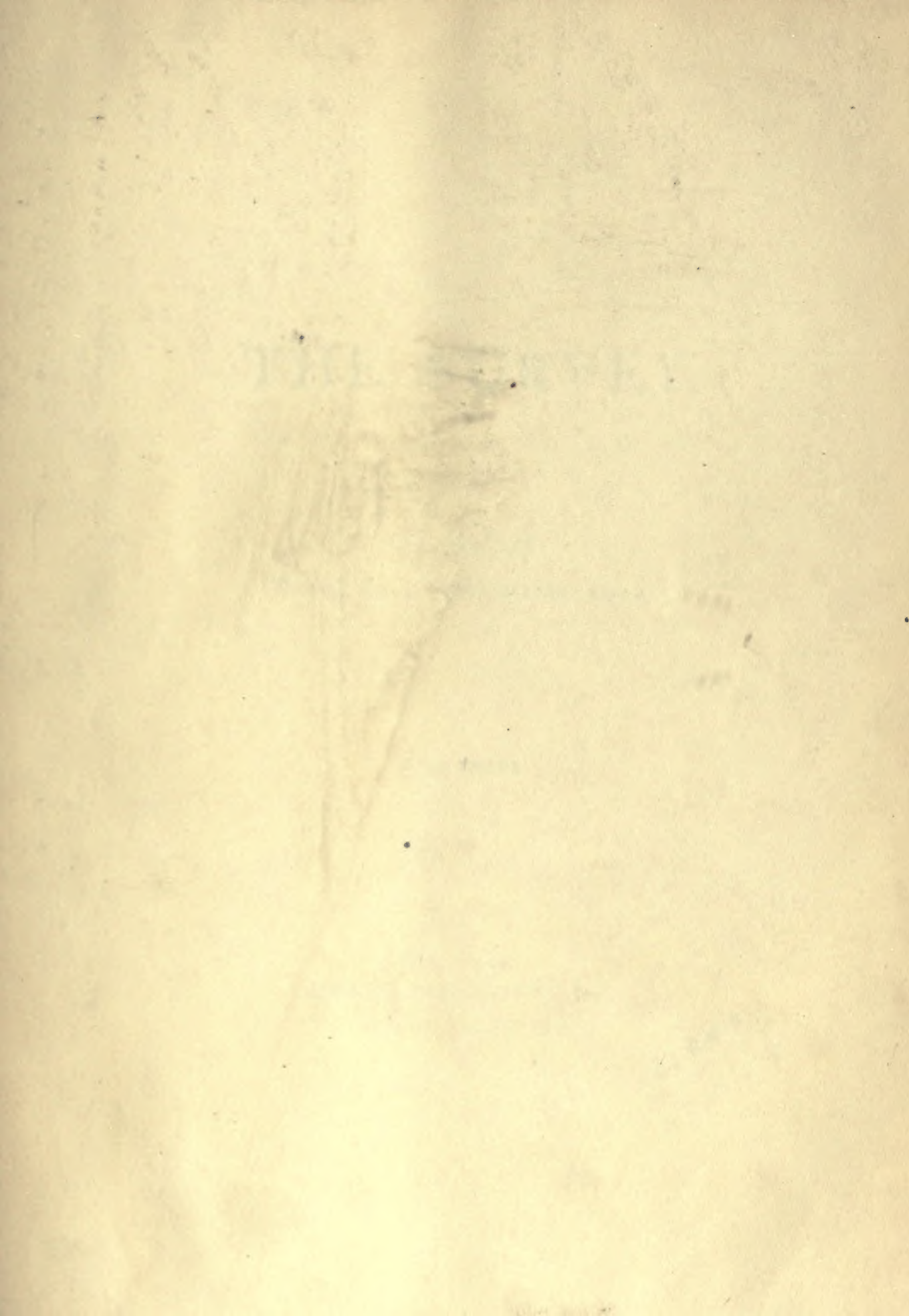


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THE SURVEY

VOL. XXXII

APRIL, 1914—SEPTEMBER, 1914

WITH INDEX

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Index

VOLUME XXXII

APRIL, 1914—SEPTEMBER, 1914

The material in this index is arranged under authors and subjects and in a few cases under titles. Anonymous articles and paragraphs are entered under their subjects. The precise wording of titles has not been retained where abbreviation or paraphrase has seemed more desirable.

A

Accidents, industrial.

- Coal mine accidents increase in 1913, 93.
- Mine explosion, Eccles, W. Va., reveals child labor conditions (E. N. Clapper), 194.
- Non-drinking notice posted in the American Car and Foundry Co., Berwick, Pa., 196.
- Prevention campaign in Minnesota, 210.
- Red Cross work with Pittsburgh Coal Co. (J. B. Deacon), 119.
- Safety first campaign conducted in Rome, N. Y. (W. A. Searle), 391.

Adams, S. H. Veneer quacks, the law and newspapers, 90.

Adams, Thomas, 606.

Addams, Jane. General Federation of Women's Clubs address, 358.

Addams, Judge, 237.

Alabama, State Sociological Congress, Birmingham, 247.

Alaska, Health surveys in, 416.

Alcohol.

- Fighting, with educational exhibits (Cora F. Stoddard), 306.
- Non-drinking notice posted by American Car and Foundry Co., 196.
- Prize poster (Elizabeth Tilton; letter), 351.
- Rising anti-alcohol movement (Elizabeth Tilton), 488.
- Social work and (R. D. Hunt; letter), 103.
- Social workers and (Elizabeth Tilton; letter), 310.
- Social workers and (Eva G. Price; letter), 65.
- See also Temperance.

Alger, G. W. Work of the Industrial Relations Commission, 380.

Allen, E. A. Portrait, 9.

Allen, E. F. Aftermath of the Ipswich strike, 216.

Allen, R. A. Co-operative medical service at the Carbonado, Wash., mines, 526.

Alling, E. L. George Junior Republic charges (letter), 401.

Alton, Ill. City planning, 176.

American Academy of Medicine. Report on medical work in Eastern lands, 525.

American Benevolent Association of Berlin, 105.

American Book Co., Child labor as told in Third Reader, 628.

American Car and Foundry Co., Non-drinking notice posted by, 196.

American Citizens' Committee in London, 591.

American City Bureau. Traveling city planning exhibition, 325.

American Civic Association. Establishes a department of Junior Civic Leagues, 389.

American Federation of Labor. Contempt case dismissed, 305.

American Journal of Surgery, quoted, 597.

American Judicature Society. Organizing the law courts for efficiency (Herbert Harley), 458.

American Medical Association. Gold medal presented to Brig-General W. C. Gorgas (fac-simile), 527, 554.

American Political Science Association.

Committee on practical training for public service, 91.

Training for public service conference, 210.

American Posture League, 190.

American Statistical Assn., Seventy-fifth anniversary, Boston, 64.

Amherst, Mass. Country Life Conference, 516.

Amidur, Max, 399.

Anagnos, Michael. Portrait, 9.

Anders, Edwin. Employment agencies, Portland, Ore., 400.

Anderson, M. E. Oh, God, Forgive (poem), 498.

Anderson, W. E. Prison labor in Rhode Island, 47.

Andreani, F. M., 632.

Andrews, J. B., 238.

Occupational disease compensation, 415.

Annalist, *The*, quoted, 537.

Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science. Housing and town planning number, 176.

Anthony, Katherine. Mothers who must earn, 17.

Arkansas. State Conference of Charities and Correction, 247.

Armstrong, Dr. D. B., 224.

Arnold, E. G. Portrait, 408.

Atkinson, H. A. Report on Colorado strike conditions, 108.

Atlanta, Ga.

Conference on problems of Negroes and Whites in the South, 506.

Fulton Bag and Cotton Mill Strike, 476.

Atlantic City, N. J. American Medical Association meeting, 527.

Atwood, Mrs. S. J., 230.

Auburn, N. Y. Conference of Mayors and other city officials of the State, 386.

Australia. Settling labor disputes in (Mary Chamberlain), 455.

B

Babies.

Baby week in New York City (cartoon), 355.

Boston Welfare Committee, 508.

Chicago baby week, 296.

Child Federation Baby-saving Show, Philadelphia (picture), 407.

Grand Rapids Press cartoons in welfare work for, 557.

Welfare movement (H. H. Hart; letter), 510.

Bacon, Mrs. Albion F. "Beauty for Ashes" (housing in Indiana), 30, 154, 276, 366, 466, 575.

Baird, G. M. P. *Prentice Songs* (verses from), 602.

Baker, Judge, 246.

Baldwin, R. M., 235. The St. Louis pageant and masque, 52.

Balkan War. See War.

Baltimore, Md.

Medical-Psychological Association Convention, 299.

National Association for the Advancement of Colored People Conference, 295.

National Committee on Mental Hygiene meeting, 299.

National Conference of Charities and Correction, 1915, 233.

Banks.

Little Rock, Ark. Board of Education establishes banks for children, 67.

"Morris plan," 335.

Baptists, "Gospel for Society," agitation, 435.

Barda, W. P., 397.

Barnes, C. B., 320.

Barry, J. D. Capital punishment (a play), 317.

Baths.

Mikveh baths of New York City (W. A. Manheimer), 77.

Municipal swimming pool lowers drowning rate in McKeesport, Pa. (picture), 524.

Purifying in New York City, 427.

Purifying water for city bathing pools (W. A. Manheimer), 183.

St. Louis' Fairgrounds Pool (picture), 491.

Baton Rouge Flood. Red Cross work in (R. L. Himes), 125.

Baxter, Sylvester. Transit facilities in Chicago, 519.

Beach, J. W. The Chimneys (poem), 440.

Power (poem), 317.

Deaufort, S. C. City management plan, 600.

- "Beauty for Ashes."
 Bacon, Mrs. A. F., 30, 154, 276, 366, 466, 575.
 Campbell, Vera (letter), 352.
 Comment on by Ben B. Lindsey, 209.
 Jones, Rev. W. C. (letter), 187.
 Beauty for blind eyes (E. H. Clement), 7.
 Beck, Carl.
 Play zones in New York's streets, 600.
 Poster stamps publicity, 618.
 Where shall the citizens of New York vote, 53.
 Becks, Gertrude, 321.
 Belgium. Peasant refugees (pictures), 588.
 Belknap, R. R. Earthquake relief work by Red Cross at Messina and Reggio, 116.
 Bell, G. L., 610.
 Bellamy, G. A., 236.
 Benesch, Alfred, 521.
 Bennington, Vt. Community recreations of, 56.
 Bent, E. T., 484.
 Bernstein, Morris, 399.
 Bicknell, E. P. Modern relief in great emergencies, 113.
 Bill Boards.
 Boy Scouts and advertising on, 627.
 Hartman, E. T. (letter), 65.
 Regulation of in St. Louis, 3.
 Binkerd, R. S., 386.
 Birmingham, Eng. Iron workers strike settled, 59.
 Biro, Michael, a cartoonist of social unrest, 364.
 Black plague. New Orleans' method of dealing with, 449.
 Blackwell's Island. Mutiny quelled by Katherine B. Davis, 445.
 Blakely, C. G. Portrait, 452.
 Blaauvelt, Mary T. Etc. (letter), 444.
 Bleach workers. How Europe protects (G. M. Price), 58.
 Blind.
 Beauty for blind eyes; Perkins Institution (E. H. Clement), 7.
 Embossed type for, 179.
 English legislation regarding midwives, 315.
 London Conference on, 191.
 Massachusetts Commission for (H. C. Greene), 181.
 Pennsylvania Institute for the Instruction of the (Overbrook), 251.
 Trachoma among employes of Youngstown Sheet and Tube Co., 111.
 Wood alcohol and (illustration), 78.
 Blossom, F. A. Confidential Exchange Bureau: letter, 65.
 Bojesen, Johanne. Red Cross agent's personal experience (Ohio floods), 143.
 Bolduan, Dr. C. F., 230.
 Bonaparte, C. J., 295.
 Bonser, Edna. The Job Doctor (Finger Prints), 439.
 Bookbinding for women in Philadelphia, 400.
 Book reviews.
 Arrows in the Gale (Giovannitti), 346.
 Backward Child (Morgan), 436.
 Boy Life and Labour (Freeman), 437.
 Boycotts and the Labor Struggle (Laidler), 99.
 Character Development (Taylor), 641.
 Child in the Midst (Labaree), 641.
 Child Labour in the United Kingdom (Keeling), 201.
 Children of the Dead End (MacGill), 642.
 Co-partnership and Profit-sharing (Williams), 100.
 Crisis of Morals (Begbie), 436.
 Democracy in New Zealand (Siegfried), 99.
 Glimpses of the Cosmos (Ward), 637.
 Hepburn of Japan and his Wife and Helpmates (Griffis), 200.
 History of Penal Methods (Ives), 639.
 Hygiene of the School Child (Terman), 346.
 In Black and White (Hammond), 201.
 In Freedom's Birthplace: A study of the Boston Negroes (Daniels), 100.
 Industrial Training of the Boy (McKeever), 548.
 Inside of the Cup, The (Churchill), 505.
 Looking Forward (Roberts), 100.
 Markets for the People (Sullivan), 437.
 Model Housing Law (Veiller), 345.
 Modern Industry (Kelley), 345.
 Municipal Franchises (Wilcox), 202.
 Nurses for Our Neighbors (Worcester), 640.
 Play and Recreation for the Open Country (Curtis), 202.
 Poverty and Waste (Withers), 549.
 Problems of Genetics (Bateson), 347.
 Question of Alcohol (Williams), 638.
 Ragged Trousered Philanthropists (Tressall), 642.
 Roughing It with Boys (Hinckley), 201.
 Round about a Pound a Week (Reeves), 98.
 Rural Life and Education (Cubberly), 346.
 Self-training for Motherhood (Lovejoy), 641.
 Social Emergency (Foster), 437.
 Social Forces in England and America (Wells), 548.
 Social Programs in the West (Henderson), 99.
 Socialized Conscience (Coffin), 436.
 Three Lords of Destiny (Crothers), 98.
 Toynbee Hall and the English Settlement Movement (Picht), 640.
 Training Girls (McKeever), 549.
 Unconscious, The (Prince), 637.
 University and Historical Addresses (Bryce), 550.
 Unpopular Government in the United States (Kales), 550.
 Vocational Guidance (Puffer), 346.
 Vocations for the Trained Woman (Women's Educational and Industrial Union), 551.
 War and the Private Citizen (Higgins), 549.
 Wine Press (Noyes), 200.
 Woman, Marriage and Motherhood (Chesser), 348.
 Women Workers in Seven Professions (Morley), 551.
 World Set Free (Wells), 548.
 Books received, 100, 202, 348, 437, 642.
 See also Pamphlets.
 Boston, Mass.
 American Statistical Ass'n, meeting, 64.
 Baby welfare committee, 508.
 Music School Settlement Creed, 512.
 Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, 7.
 School children in, 419.
 School for mentally deficient boys (Ada M. Fitts), 326.
 School for social workers, 511.
 Spring in a city neighborhood (R. A. Woods), 185.
 Boston Medical and Surgical Journal. Sketch of Dr. C. P. Putnam reprinted from, 329.
 Boston University, Boston, Mass. Vocational guidance chair established, 191.
 Boughton, Major E. J., 252.
 Boulder, Col. Charities and Sociological Conference (C. R. Henderson), 543.
 Bovine tuberculosis, 635.
 Bowen, A. L., 246.
 Boy Scouts, 210.
 Bill Board advertising and, 627.
 Non-military activities, 536.
 Bradford, Cornelia F. Sketch and portrait (J. L. Elliott), 421.
 Bradley, Dr. Frances S., 235.
 Bradstreet, Howard, 296.
 Brandeis, J. W. Failure (poem), 409.
 Breckinridge, Sophonisba P., 236.
 How teachers fail in social work, 545.
 Review of Veiller's *Model Housing Law*, 345.
 Bremer, Mrs. H. M. Immigration and World's Y. W. C. A. Conference, 510.
 Brewer, W. C. Safety at sea (letter), 493.
 Bridgeman, Olga. Delinquency and mental deficiency, 302.
 Briggs, O. P., 71.
 Brooklyn, N. Y.
 Disciplinary Training School discontinued, 604.
 Educating tenement dwellers (Nelle Reeder), 55.
 Society for Prevention of Cruelty to Children report, 521.
 Tenement House Committee of Brooklyn Public Charities report, 491.
 Brooks, R. C., 546.
 Brown, H. S. Presbyterian General Assembly and social questions, 343.
 Brown, J. S., 545.
 Brown, Udetta. Housing survey, Grand Rapids, 4.
 Bruere, Henry. "Some Inf'mation for Mother" (letter), 104.
 Brush, Fred. Old bees in young bonnets (Finger Prints), 101.
 Brush Makers' Wage Board. Report on minimum wage to Massachusetts Commission, 355.
 Bryan, J. W.
 Employers' liability by land and sea, 522.
 Losses at sea, 448.
 Portrait, 522.
 Bryn Mawr College. Carola Woerishoffer memorial, 494.

- Buckstaff, Florence G. Review of Withers' *Poverty and Waste*, 549.
 Buffalo, N. Y. C. A. Weed & Co., early closing hours, 385.
 Bulgaria.
 American Red Cross nurse to train native girls, 475.
 American training for nurses, 209.
 Bulkeley, Dr. L. C., 525.
 Bull, Nina.
 The passing of the protégé, 613.
 True pioneers of peace (letter), 643.
 Bullock, C. S. Safety at sea (letter), 349, 443.
 Burba, G. F. State relief work in Ohio floods, 137.
 Burgess, E. W., 454.
 Burnham, Josephine M. High cost of teaching (letter), 103.
 Burns, A. T. Sketch with portrait, 421.
 Burns, John. Portrait, 562.
 Burritt, B. B., 224.
 Bush Terminal, N. Y. City. Social service work (Antoinette Greely: letter), 493.
 Butler, A. W., 236.
 "Some Inf'mation for Mother" (letter), 65.
 Butte, Mont. Industrial Relations Commission hearings (J. A. Fitch), 538.
 Byington, Margaret F. Review of Reeves' *Round about a Pound a Week*, 98.

C

- Cady, G. L. Prison reform in Massachusetts, 338.
 California.
 Armies of the unemployed in (E. G. Talbott), 523.
 Campaign against vice (F. Hichborn), 430.
 Fruit growers, 444.
 Public school education in, 418.
 Recreational Inquiry Committee, 56.
 Calumet, Mich. See Strikes.
 Camp fire girls, 210.
 Campbell, C. F. F. "Some Inf'mation for Mother": letter, 65.
 Campbell, Vera. "Beauty for Ashes" (letter), 352.
 Camping. Field notes of a vacationer (F. A. Manny), 540.
 Canada.
 Deporting the unemployed (R. D. Smith), 498.
 Old age pensions measure defeated, 5.
 Radium in, 79.
 Social Service Congress (Hugh Dobson), 95.
 Town planning work of the Canadian Commission of Conservation, 606.
 Cancer. "Beta rays" and, 79.
 Canfield, H. L. Peace stamps (letter), 644.
 Canneries. New York State Industrial Board issues rules for cannery camps, 297.
 Canton, Ill. Public school letter head, 615.
 Cape Cod, Mass. Pageant, 607.
 Capital punishment.
 Boys and (H. L. Hopkins), 89.
 Collier, John (letter), 353.
 Rose, A. P. (letter), 353.
 Survival of barbarism (John Collier), 88.
 Theory and deed, 317.
 See also Gunmen
 Carbonada, Wash. Co-operative medical service for miners (R. A. Allen), 526.
 Carmen, Okla. "Take-It-Back Day," 604.
 Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. Report of the Balkan Commission of Inquiry, 249.
 Carpenter, T. E., 252.
 Carrington, Dr. T. S.
 Pamphlets issued by, 598.
 Resigns as Secretary of National Society Prevention of Tuberculosis, 422.
 Carstens, C. C., 235.
 Cartoons. Michael Biro, cartoonist of social unrest, 364.
 Castner—Electrolytic Alkali Co., Niagara Falls, N. Y.
 Bleach packers' regimentals, 58.
 Catching the Chinese Tiger (W. D. Lane), 129.
 Chadsey, Mildred. Report on Cleveland tenements (John Ihlder), 491.
 Chamberlain, Mary L.
 East Side street types in color and clay, 193.
 Settling labor disputes in Australia, 455.
 Tammany tiger's paw on labor laws in New York State, 499.
 Chapin, Dr. C. V. Infection carried in the air, belief dispelled (article in *Journal of the American Medical Association*), 79.
 Charities.
 American Association of Officials of Charity and Correction, Memphis, 246.
 American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, Memphis, 247.
 Arkansas State Conference of Charities and Correction, Fort Smith, 247.
 Central registration bureau name (F. A. Blossom: letter), 65.
 Church and organized (A. C. Ferrin), 218.
 Cincinnati Department of, Dr. O. P. Geier's report (W. J. Norton), 177.
 Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy report, 68.
 Colorado Charities and Correction Conference, Boulder (C. R. Henderson), 543.
 Connecticut State Conference of Charities and Correction, Bridgeport, 180.
 Maryland Board of Charities and Correction report, 178.
 Missouri Association of Infirmary Officials work (Oscar Leonard), 96.
 Missouri State Conference (Oscar Leonard: letter), 513.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction, Memphis, 232.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction trip, 85.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction section, 238.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction for 1915, topics wanted (Homer Folks: letter), 84.
 National Conferences of Jewish Charities (Mrs. Oscar Leonard), 245.
 New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, Asbury Park, 179.
 New York Association for Improving Condition of Poor census divisions, 208.
 New York C. O. S. Bulletin, 64.
 New York City Conference on Charities and Corrections, 208.
 New York State work hampered by lack of funds, 385.
 Philadelphia S. O. C. co-operates with Department of Safety to drive out beggars, 426.
 Philanthropy and Business (Address E. T. Devine National Conference Charities and Correction), 263.
 Pittsburgh, work, 405.
 Shanghai, China organization (F. H. McLean), 180.
 Social News Bureau of the Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy (illus.), 618.
 Social Service Church Union (Annie T. Mock), 220.
 United Workers and Emily Bruce Home, Greenwich, Conn., 170.
 University of Kentucky report on county almshouses of State (Alexander Johnson), 178.
 Welfare Council, Cleveland, 173.
 Wheeling, West Va., photograph of chained prisoners in annual report, 91.
 Charleston, S. C. Municipal playground, 176.
 Charters. Seattle's new charter defeated, 537.
 Chase, H. T. Portrait, 452.
 Chelsea Neighborhood Association. Establishes a "cent-a-glass" milk station, 618.
 Chicago, Ill.
 Baby week, 296.
 Campaign against segregation, 476.
 City Club has competition plan for neighborhood center, 392.
 City Council passes ordinance forbidding "Family Entrance" signs over saloons, 170.
 Commissions for civic improvement (Graham Taylor), 489.
 Country Club for Social Workers, 395.
 Federation of Womens Clubs, twelfth biennial session of (Graham Taylor), 358.
 Garbage (G. B. Young: letter), 187.
 Garbage disposal, 445.
 Gift to Wesley hospital, 636.
 Hebrew Institute, 514.
 Homes for young women: the Eleanor Clubs (Annie M. Maclean), 60.

- Industrial Relations Commission Hearings (Christine Merriman), 483.
 International Sunday School Convention, 433.
 Knab's restaurants strike, 537.
 Noise, reduction ordinances, 491.
 Police women's efficiency, 110.
 Portable school houses for children (pictures), 170.
 Public welfare departments established in Cook Co. and, 87, 496.
 Restaurant workers strike (Ellen G. Starr), 214.
 School of Civics and Philanthropy Commencement, 396.
 Theological Seminary, 434.
 Transit facilities (Sylvester Baxter), 519.
 Woman's City Club, 329.
- Child Labor.**
 American Book Co. Third Reader, 628.
 Arkansas bill, 494.
 Ax to grind (cartoon), 477.
 Census report of 1910 (E. N. Clapper), 628.
 Consumer and federal law (Anna Rochester), 412.
 Cotton-picking machine will affect (pictures by Hine), 171.
 Double standard (picture), 5.
 Eight-hour law in Massachusetts, 189.
 England, Juvenile labor exchange (Olga S. Halsey), 195.
 Fulton Bag and Cotton Mill strike, 476.
 Georgia law, 557.
 High cost of (panels), 49.
 Illiterates in Massachusetts (picture by Hine), 69.
 Industrial Relations Commission hearings (Christina Merriman), 303.
 Interstate commerce and (W. D. Lewis), 35.
 Kentucky law, 191.
 Maryland law amended, 87.
 National Committee, small appropriation for (S. S. Wise), 286.
 Negroes in Virginia (A. J. McKelway), 496.
 Progress of the Palmer-Owen bill, 606.
 Scholarship funds to be levied on employers violating laws, 626.
 Tenth National Conference on, New Orleans (Anna Rochester), 49.
 "Trapper" boys among dead in West Virginia mine (E. N. Clapper), 194.
- Child Welfare.**
 National Press Service, 404.
 Ohio Department (H. H. Hart), 63.
 Tri-state conference, 179.
 Worcester Children's Friend Society report (picture), 191.
- Children.**
 Brooklyn Society for Prevention of Cruelty to, report 521.
 Child's creed (L. W. Hine), 475.
 Cleveland farm for (picture), 487.
 Conference on Education of Backward, Truant, Delinquent and Dependent, Memphis (Paula Laddey), 245.
 Emily Bruce Home for Babies controversy, Greenwich, Conn., 170.
 Federal Bureau appropriation, 47, 108.
 Federal Bureau positions to be filled through civil service examinations, 448.
 Fire drill at Chauncey (picture), 511.
 Fresh air homes (Ruth F. Field: letter), 513.
 House, R. T. (poem), 189.
 Little Rock Ark., Board of Education establishes banks for children, 67.
 Motion picture shows in Philadelphia, 176.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction section, 235.
 Oregon Social Hygiene Society to keep children at home, 586.
 Peacemaker (W. T. Johnson), 426.
 Philadelphia's work for colored and white children, 395.
 Play and physical development (H. S. Curtis), 174.
 Play zones in New York's streets (Carl Beck), 600.
 Recreations (Constance D. Mackay), 513.
 Training nurse maids (C. E. Faulkner: letter), 620.
- Chimneys, The** (poem by J. W. Beach), 440.
- China.**
 Engineering work for flood-prevention (W. D. Lane), 129.
 Engineers to study flood conditions, 316.
 Famine relief in (G. W. Sarvis), 126.
 Medical work in, 525.
 Public institutions for the poor in Peking (E. T. Shaw), 616.
 Chittenden, Alice H. Suffrage question at Federation of Women's Clubs (letter), 493.
 Chown, S. D. Hymns (letter), 401.
 Christian Social Service Union, 435.
 Christmas, Community, 404.
 Church.
 Conference of Union Churches of New England (W. H. Foster), 435.
 Eclipse of religion under shadow of war (Graham Taylor), 630.
 Federation and woman's work, 220.
 Fireside talks after evening service (Pasadena), 220.
 Going to Church, 1614-1914 (cartoon), 298.
 "Gospel for Society," 435.
 Gov. Hatfield of West Virginia issues proclamation for Rural Church Sunday, 435.
 Industrial diseases and (W. C. Rucker), 504.
 London Survey, 505.
 Philanthropic organizations and (A. C. Ferrin), 218.
 Unemployed and (J. A. Ryan), 342.
 Unemployment and (J. H. Holmes), 94.
 Unemployment and (D. S. McCorkle: letter), 103.
 Church and Community (Graham Taylor), 94, 218, 342, 433, 503.
 Cincinnati, O.
 Dr. O. P. Geier's report on Department of Charities and Correction (W. J. Norton), 177.
 Labor exchanges for handi-capped persons, 189.
 Union Bethel (W. J. Norton), 308.
 Widow's pensions in, 89.
 Cincinnati Social Service Directory, 644.
 Cinematograph.
 Philadelphia children and motion picture shows, 176.
 St. Louis has free pictures in parks, 521.
 University of Wisconsin extension division has special bureau of visual instruction, 418.
 Work of the National Board of Censorship (O. G. Cocks), 337.
- Citizenship.**
 Cornell University course in, 325.
 Rochester trains aliens for, 324.
- City planning.**
 Alton, Ill., 176.
Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, January, 1914, number, 176.
 Beaufort, S. C., city management plan, 600.
 Canadian Commission of Conservation, 606.
 Chicago City Club announces neighborhood center competition, 392.
 Chicago's four Commissions (Graham Taylor), 489.
 Cleveland's clean-up week, 406.
 Erie, Pa., 176.
 Europe and America exchange experts in, 171.
 London, Eng., has summer school on town planning, 176.
 National Conference, Toronto (Flavel Shurtleff), 390.
 Newark, N. J., 176.
 Pennsylvania law contested, 56.
 Regulating heights of buildings (C. M. Robinson), 389.
 Riverside, Cal., campaign for beautifying city, 323.
 Traveling exhibition, 325.
- Civic Exhibition of Dublin** (Anna L. Strong), 599.
Civic Reforms. How best accomplished, 50.
 Claghorn, Kate H. Immigration question in Massachusetts, 409.
 Clark, Lotta A., 607.
 Clarke, C. B. Portrait, 466.
 Clarke, Mrs. C. B. Portrait, 369.
 Claxton, P. P. Teaching temperance (letter), 309.
 Clayton Bill, 305.
 Organized labor and (Edwin Witte), 360.
 "Clean-up-week."
 Cleveland, 406.
 Philadelphia, 107.
 Claghorn, Sarah N.
 Drafted (poem), 287.
 Four Wards of the Hospital (poem), 462.
 The Ghost (poem), 51.
 Clement, E. H. Beauty for blind eyes (Perkins Institution), 7.
 Clement, Fanny F., 239.

- Cleveland, O.
 Children's farm (picture), 487.
 City Hospital reorganized (Howell Wright), 396.
 Clean-up week, 406.
 Eliminating red light districts, 208.
 Fire hazards in lodging-houses, 521.
 Municipal housing scheme, 172.
 New charter under fire, 557.
 Poster stamps and buttons for anti-war campaign, 586.
 Recreation in, 404.
 Report on first year's work of Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy, 68.
 Report on tenements by Mildred Chadsey (John Ihlder), 491.
 School teachers to affiliate with American Federation of Labor, 477.
 Social News Bureau of the Federation for Charity and Philanthropy (illus.), 618.
 Welfare Council (consolidation of all philanthropic societies), 173.
- Clopper, E. N.
 Child worker in the census report of 1910, 628.
 Mine explosion, Eccles, W. Va., reveals child labor conditions, 194.
- Coal mines
 Increase of accidents in, 93.
 West Virginia explosion reveals child labor conditions (E. N. Clopper), 194.
- Coal strike. *See* Strikes.
- Cocks, O. G. Work of the National Board of Censorship of Motion Pictures, 337.
- Coffee, R. I. Lesson to society taught by electrocution of the four gunmen (letter), 330.
- Collins, Grace I. Prof. Seligman's arguments against the Herrick Schaap bill (letter), 81.
- Coleman, G. W., 509.
- Coleman, Mrs. G. W., 220.
- Collier, John
 Capital punishment (letter), 353.
 Review of Prince's *The Unconscious*, 637.
 Review of Ward's *Glimpses of the Cosmos*, 637.
 Survival of barbarism, 88.
- Collins, J. A., 237.
- Colorado
 Answer to editorial in *Boston Herald* (Erving Winslow: letter), 332.
 Hearings before Industrial Relations Commission; inquiry into conditions (J. A. Fitch), 252.
 President Wilson's peace plan, 606, 625.
 Rockefeller and the strikes (editorial), 159.
 Rockefeller holdings in Colorado Fuel & Iron Co. (Ellis Morris: letter), 350.
 Stenographers included in eight-hour law, 485.
 Three years' truce for the Colorado coal strike (W. E. Weyl), 608.
 Tuberculosis patients in (Elizabeth Dobell), 479.
 Strike breakers sent out of, 211.
 Strike conditions in, 108.
 Strike situation and final outcome (J. A. Fitch), 205.
- Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, 108.
- Colt, J. B. Country school opportunities (letter), 330.
- Colton, Olive A. District nurse of yesterday and to-day, 414.
- Columbus, O. Association for Study of Feeble-minded meeting, 407.
- Coma, Katharine
 Housing of wage-earners in Spain, 481.
 Social insurance, pensions, poor relief (letter), 187.
 Unemployment insurance in France, 281.
- Compensation
 Employers' liability by land and sea (J. W. Bryan), 329.
 New York law and laundries, 405.
 New York State law ruling, 556.
 Occupational disease (J. B. Andrews), 415.
- Conferences
 American Association of Officials of Charity and Correction, Memphis, 246.
 American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, Memphis, 247.
 Calendar, 84, 322, 423, 543, 622.
 Child Labor, Tenth National Conference, New Orleans, La. (Anna Rochester), 49.
 Child welfare work, Tri-state conference, 179.
 Colorado Charities and Sociological, Boulder (C. R. Henderson), 546.
- Connecticut State Conference of Charities and Correction, Bridgeport, 180.
- Country Life, Amherst, 516.
- Education of Backward, Truant, Delinquent and Dependent Children, Memphis (Paula Laddey), 245.
- Governor's, Madison, Wis., 251.
- Inter-city Settlement Conference, New York, 296.
- London Conference on the Blind, 191.
- National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, 295.
- National City Planning, Toronto, Can. (Flavel Shurtleff), 390.
- National Committee on Mental Hygiene meeting, 299.
- National Conference of Charities and Correction, Memphis, 66, 232.
- National Conference of Jewish Charities (Mrs. Oscar Leonard), 245.
- National Federation of Settlements, Memphis, 246.
- National Newspaper Conference, 298.
- National Probation Association, Memphis, 246.
- New Jersey Conference of Charities and Correction, Asbury Park, 179.
- New York City Conference on Charities and Corrections, 208.
- New York Hospital Social Service Conference, 64.
- New York State Mayors and Other City Officials, Auburn, 386.
- North American Student Movement, Garden City, L. I., 180.
- Pacific Coast Social Hygiene, 554.
- Sagamore Sociological (W. D. Foster), 509.
- Social Work, Sixth International Conference (London, 1915), 188.
- Southern Sociological Conference, Memphis, 234, 244.
- World's Y. W. C. A. (Mrs. H. M. Bremer), 510.
See also Charities.
- Congressional Record prints article from THE SURVEY on safety at sea, 448.
- Connecticut
 Public health conference at Greenwich, 336.
 State Conference of Charities and Correction, Bridgeport, 180.
- "Consider the other fellow."
 Easton, Christopher (letter), 351.
 Lee, G. S. (letter), 105.
 Mr. Rockefeller and Mr. Higginson (editorial), 159.
- Consumers' League
 Campaign for full Saturday holiday for retail clerks in New York City, 249.
 Safety at sea and (Florence Kelley), 112.
See also National Consumers' League.
- Continuation schools. National Association of Corporation Schools, 335.
- Converse, Florence
 Review of Giovannitti's *Arrows in the Gale*, 346.
 Review of Noyes's *Wine Press*, 200.
- Cook Co., Ill.
 Hospitals for advanced cases of tuberculosis (T. B. Sachs), 634.
 Investigation of charges against Oak Forest Infirmary (Graham Taylor), 388.
 Public welfare department established in, 87, 496.
- Cooke, J. M., 340.
- Cooper, G. L. Prison reform in Nebraska, 344.
- Co-operation
 Co-operative associations in India, 179.
 Joint meeting of the National Conference on Marketing and Farm Credits and Western Economic Society, 307.
 Power of (A. P. Wilson: letter), 207.
 Winslow, Erving (letter), 643.
- Cornell University, course in citizenship, 325.
- Cotton mill workers. Fulton Bag and Cotton Mill strike, 476.
- Coulter, J. L., 236.
- Country Life
 Conference, Amherst, 516.
 Ohio State University Week, 554.
- County, The (Graham Taylor), 240.
- Courts
 Domestic Relations, Hamilton, O., 110.
 Organizing law courts for efficiency (Herbert Harley), 458.
See also Juvenile.
- Cox, L. A. Portrait, 276.
- Cox, Mrs. L. A. Portrait, 276.

- Cripples, directory of, 66.
 Crosbie, J. E. Episcopal view of Calumet copper strike, 503.
 Cross, W. T. Sidney Webb's "Extension Ladder" (letter), 328.
 Crossland, W. A., 102.
 Cruise, Edith M. Kansas City negroes (letter), 513.
 Crum, Dr. F. S., 183.
 Curtis, H. S. Play and physical development, 174.
 Curtis Publishing Co. National Association of Corporation Schools Convention, 335.

D

- "Dago Frank." Sketch with portrait, 15.
 Dallas, Tex. Provident Loan Society, 180.
 D'Allessandro, Dominick, 252.
 Dance halls. Chicago police women effective in regulating, 110.
 Davenport, C. B., 388.
 Davies, Mary C. War (poem), 478.
 Davis, D. F. Portrait, 52.
 Davis, Edith S. Teaching temperance (letter), 309.
 Davis, Katherine B. Blackwell's Island mutiny, 445.
 Davis, L. M. Prisoner's letter, 103.
 Dayton, O.
 Flood rehabilitation in a city (Edw. T. Devine), 147.
 Red Cross agent's personal experience in flood work (Johanne Bojesen), 143.
 Deacon, J. B. How a mine company helped its sufferers, 119.
 Decker, D. O., 453.
 Deering, James. Gift to Wesley Hospital, Chicago, 636.
 Defectives.
 Boston school for mentally deficient boys (Ada M. Fitts), 326.
 Delinquency and mental deficiency (Olga Bridgeman), 302.
 Feeble-minded women of child-bearing age, 251.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction section, 237.
 New facts about (George Everson), 488.
 New York State Commission to investigate treatment of, outlines work, 619.
 De Ford, Miriam A. Just John (Finger prints), 551.
 De Forest, R. W. First aid to stranded Americans in Europe, 589.
 Delaware.
 Social Welfare Conference, 247.
 State sanatorium for negroes, 636.
 Delinquents.
 Virginia, 512.
 See also Defectives; Feeble-mindedness.
 Delivery boy, The (poem by Madeleine S. Miller), 540.
 Department Stores.
 Early closing hours of C. A. Weed & Co., men's clothiers, 385.
 Education Association, 558.
 Skilled labor of workers (E.: letter), 402.
 Testimony regarding before the Commission on Industrial Relations (J. A. Fitch), 320.
 Wages of Ohio women clerks, 427.
 Wages of women clerks in Winnipeg, Can., 428.
 White bill, 322.
 Dependents. *See* Pensions.
 Derrich, Calvin, 245.
 Detroit News, quoted, 601.
 Devine, Edw. T.
 Flood rehabilitation in a city (Dayton, O.), 147.
 New Health, The, 376.
 Philanthropy and Business (address National Conference Charities and Correction), 263.
 Widows' needs, 23.
 Dewey, John. Report on Mrs. Johnson's Fairhope League educational experiment, 199.
 De Witt, J. H., 238.
 Disease, ridding Samoan Islands of, 460.
 Dobell, Elizabeth. Colorado tuberculosis patients, 479.
 Dobson, Hugh. Canadian Social Service Congress, 95.
 "Doing the Past Week," 542.
 Donnelly, H. M. Newspaper publicity for the Fulton Bag and Cotton mill strike (letter), 643.
 Dow, Alexander. Relations of employer and employee. (letter), 611.
 Dowling, Dr. Oscar, 635.
 Doyle, Sir A. C. Comments on Sing Sing, 297.

- Drafted (poem by Sarah N. Cleghorn), 287.
 Dripps, R. D. Sketch with portrait (A. M. Wilson), 224.
 Drugs.
 Smuggling into prisons, 445.
 Trimming the drug evil (cartoon), 190.
 Dublin, Ireland. Civic Exhibition (Anna L. Strong), 599.
 Durre, Edgar. Portrait, 368.
 Dutcher, Elizabeth. Posting working hours of retail clerks (letter), 492.
 Duty of neutrals (Adelaide Earle: letter), 620.
 Dyer, F. B., 327.

E

- Earle, Adelaide. Duty of neutrals (letter), 620.
 Earthquake relief work at Messina and Reggio (R. R. Belknap), 116.
 East St. Louis, Mo. Park and recreation center established (picture), 390.
 Easter Sunrise Service. Mt. Rubidoux, Cal. (picture), 391.
 Eastman, Fred.
 Community preacher, work of, 219.
 Social work in rural districts, 184.
 Easton, Christopher. "Consider the other fellow" (letter), 351.
 Eaton, Emily L. Early closing in Syracuse (letter), 492.
 Edgar, Mary S. My sister's heritage (poem), 173.
 Edmonds, T. J. Sketch with portrait, 102.
 Education.
 Becoming "sissified" (E. A. Ross), 547.
 Boston school for mentally deficient boys (Ada M. Fitts), 326.
 Compulsory, 419.
 Country school opportunities for the teacher (J. B. Colt: letter), 330.
 Fairhope League, Prof. John Dewey's report on, 199.
 Junior Republic idea (H. W. Thurston), 203.
 National Education Association meeting, St. Paul, 544.
 Parker Open Air School, San Diego (W. T. Johnson), 570.
 Temperance instruction in public schools (E. H. Williams), 74.
 Universities and training for public service (E. A. Fitzpatrick), 614.
 See also High schools; Industrial Education; Public Schools; Temperance teaching.
 Educational Dramatic League, 512.
 Eleanor Clubs of Chicago (Annie M. Maclean), 60.
 Eliot, Charles. *Menace of Drink*, summarized by Elizabeth Tilton, 488.
 Eliot, T. D. Use of word "segregation" (letter), 401.
 Ellery, J. B. Workers and wealth (letter), 402.
 Elliott, J. L., 296.
 Elwood, E. S., 237.
 Employers' liability. *See* Compensation.
 Employment agencies.
 Hearings before the Industrial Relations Commission (J. A. Fitch), 230.
 Portland, Ore. (Edwin Anders), 400.
 Wisconsin will establish free bureaus in schools, 587.
 Empress of Ireland disaster.
 Greater need, the (cartoon), 336.
 "Slocum," 253.
 England.
 Eight-hour day in steel trade (John Hodge), 216.
 Labor exchanges for children (Olga S. Halsey), 195.
 Legislation regarding midwives, to prevent blindness, 315.
 Social measures prompted by the war (Graham Taylor), 587.
 Erie, Pa. City planning, 176.
 Estabrook, A. H., 388.
 Ettor, Joseph, 231.
 Eugenics.
 Wisconsin law, 6.
 Zeublin, Charles (letter), 330.
 Eugenics Research Association Meeting, 388.
 Europe. Women factory workers (G. M. Price), 413.
 European War. *See* War.
 Evans, Thomas, 476.
 Everhart, Harold. The future of THE SURVEY (letter), 620.
 Everson, George. New facts about delinquency, 488.
 Exhibitions.
 Calendar of, 334, 424, 534, 624.

- Fabian Society (England), 50.
Factories.
 Communal (M. W. F.: letter), 402.
 Exits proposed by H. F. J. Porter, 48.
 Laborers (Channing Turner: letter), 208.
 New York State inspection methods, 322.
 Women workers in Europe (G. M. Price), 413.
Failure (poem by J. W. Brandeis), 409.
Fairhope League.
 Prof. John Dewey's report on, 199.
 Summer school at Greenwich, Conn., 328.
Falconer, Mrs. Martha P., 237, 239.
Falkner, R. P., 59.
Families. National Conference of Charities and Correction section, 236.
Famine relief in China (G. W. Sarvis), 126.
Farms.
 For children in Cleveland (picture), 487.
 Henry Ford's plan for small, 425.
 Reformatory boys of Hart's Island to be placed on farm at New Hampton, 67.
Farland, Dr. Livingston, 230.
Faulkner, C. E. Training child nurses (letter), 620.
Federal Council of Churches in Christ, 536.
Fee, Grant, 632.
Feeble-mindedness.
 Association for the Study of, meeting, Columbus, O., 407.
 Eugenics Research Association discusses, 388.
 New York State Commission on, 495.
 New York University course for teachers of, 543.
 Opportunities for teachers (Alexander Johnson: letter), 354.
Felix, Marie R. Review of Tressall's *Ragged Trousered Philanthropists*, 642.
Fenton, W. T. Portrait, 344.
Ferguson, J. W., 340.
Fernandez, W. G. T. Y. W. C. A. traveling lecturer on sex hygiene, 76.
Ferrin, A. C. Church and philanthropic organizations, 218.
Festivals. See Pageants.
Fetter, F. A. Review of Henderson's *Social programs in the West*, 99.
Field, Anne P. L. To the Red Cross Relief Ship (poem), 605.
Field, Ruth F. Fresh air homes (letter), 513.
Finch, H. M. "Some Inf'mation for Mother" (letter), 65.
Finger printing, 404.
Finger prints (Dept.), 101, 225, 438, 531, 551.
Fires.
 Fire drill and fire panic (drawing used by H. F. Porter), 48.
 Hazards in Cleveland lodginghouses, 521.
 "Horizontal escape" to be installed in New York City hospitals, 535.
 Indiana housing law lessens danger, 56.
 Recommendations by H. F. J. Porter re exits in factories, 48.
 Salem, Mass., 387.
Fisher, Dr. I. C., 422.
Fishermen. Congress passes bill extending medical relief to deep-sea (editorial), 379.
Fitch, J. A.
 Probing the causes of unrest, hearings before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission, 71, 92, 230, 252, 320, 339, 397, 538, 558, 593, 609, 632.
 When peace comes to Colorado, 205.
Fitts, Ada M. School for mentally deficient boys in Boston, 326.
Fitzgerald, W. B., 398.
Fitzpatrick, E. A. Universities and training for public service, 614.
Fleischer, Alexander, 422.
Flexner, Bernard, 246.
 Juvenile courts in Chicago and Denver (letter), 84.
Flies.
 (The) First fly (Wichita, Kan., *Eagle*), 55.
 Kansas State Board of Health bulletin, 415.
 Switches in time (Walt Mason), 55.
Flint, Mich. Industrial welfare work in (F. V. V. Swan), 411.
Floods.
 Bills before Congress, 153.
 Ohio, 135.
 Red Cross agent's personal experience in Ohio (Johanne Bojesen), 143.
 Red Cross rehabilitation work (C. M. Hubbard), 142.
 Red Cross work in China (W. D. Lane), 129.
 Red Cross work in Ohio (L. E. Stein), 139.
 Rehabilitation in a city (E. T. Devine), 147.
 River regulation and prevention (Morris Knowles), 151.
 State relief work in Ohio (G. F. Burba), 137.
Foght, H. W. Review of Cubberly's *Rural Life and Education*, 346.
Folks, Homer. National Conference of Charities and Correction for 1915, topics wanted (letter), 84.
Foor, J. D. Portrait, 277.
Foor, Mrs. J. D., 471.
 Portrait, 277.
Ford, Henry. Small farms plan, 425.
Ford, James.
 Review of Roberts' *Looking Forward*, 100.
 Review of Williams' *Co-partnership and Profit-sharing*, 100.
Fortune-telling. New York State legislature fails to pass bill to prevent, 213.
Foster, W. D. Sagamore Sociological Conference, 509.
Foster, W. H. Conference of Union Churches of New England, 435.
Four Wards of the Hospital (poem by Sarah N. Cleghorn), 462.
Fourth of July.
 Riverside, Cal., celebration for new citizens, 521.
 Sane Fourth in Detroit (Louis Wolsey: letter), 513.
 Willow Place Chapel House, Brooklyn, celebration, 448.
Fox, H. F. Teaching temperance (letter), 310.
France. Unemployment insurance in (Katharine Coman), 281.
Frank, Helen. Translations of poems by Morris Rosenfeld, 266.
From the strife of tongues (By an English contributor), 50.
Furuseth, Andrew. Empress of Ireland disaster, 256.

(G.)
Gaines, M. R. Review of Griffith's *Hepburn of Japan and his Wife and Helpmates*, 200.
Garbage.
 Chicago (G. B. Young: letter), 187.
 Chicago's disposal of, 445.
 Pamphlet issued by government on disposal of, 79.
Garden City, L. I. North American Student Movement Conference, 180.
Gardner, Mass. State hospital for incurable insane (picture), 635, 636.
Garment makers. Hearings before the Commission on Industrial Relations (Christina Merriman), 303.
Garver, T. F. Portrait, 452.
Geier, Dr. O. P. Cincinnati Department of Charities and Correction report (W. J. Norton), 177.
George Junior Republic.
 Charges against Mr. George (E. L. Alling: letter), 401.
 Educational idea of (H. W. Thurston), 203.
Georgia. Child labor law, 557.
Germany. War relief measures, 625.
Ghost, The (poem by Sarah N. Cleghorn), 51.
Gilman, Robbins, 494.
Glenn, J. M., 485.
Glenn, Mary W.
 Portrait, 235.
 Social hygiene, 239.
Goeth, C. M. Price of a pencil (finger prints), 225.
Goldmark, Josephine. New York nightwork law for women upheld, 450.
Gompers, Samuel, 229.
 Testimony before Industrial Relations Commission, 231.
Gordon, Jean, 238.
Gorgas, Brig. Genl. W. C. Gold medal presented to by American Medical Association (fac-simile), 527, 554.
"Gospel for Society," 435.
Gould, Elgin, R. L., 335.
Gould, F. J. Demonstrating moral education, 105.
Governor's Conference, Madison, Wis., 251.
Graff, Percy, 321.
Granbery, J. C. Land problem in Texas, 394.

- Grand Rapids, Mich. Housing code adopted by, 4.
Press cartoons in Baby Welfare campaign, 557.
- Grant, Edith. Omaha tornado relief work, 122.
- Greely, Antoinette. Bush Terminal Social service work (letter), 493.
- Greene, H. C. Massachusetts Commission for the Blind, 181.
- Greenwich, Conn. Emily Bruce Home for babies controversy, 170.
- Greenwich Village, New York City.
County Fair (panel), 385.
Playgrounds, 521.
- Griffiths, Austin. Portrait and sketch, 111.
- Guild, R. B. Portrait, 452.
- Gunmen
Lesson to society taught by electrocution of (R. I. Coffee: letter), 330.
Meimarides, Stachys (letter), 207.
- Gutterson, G. H., 228.
- "Gyp, the Blood." Sketch with portrait, 16.
- H.
- Hager, W. H. "Some Information for Mother" (letter), 65.
- Haines, Mabel R.
Public library and town history exhibit, 325.
Review of Chesser's *Woman, Marriage and Motherhood*, 348.
Review of Curtis' *Play and Recreation for the Open Country*, 202.
- Hall, Dr. Gertrude, 388.
- Hall, R. C. Sketch, 203.
- Hallock, Mabel C., 330.
- Halsey, Olga S.
Directing the working life of English children, 195.
Sweden's new law for the protection of workingmen, 59.
- Hamilton, Dr. Alice.
Review of Worcester's *Nurses for our Neighbors*, 640.
War surgery of yesterday, 564.
- Hamilton, S. W. Communal factories (letter), 402.
- Hammond, L. H. Negro boys make good (letter), 603.
- Hardie, Keir. Portrait, 562.
- Harley, Herbert. Organizing the law courts for efficiency, 458.
- Harris, Ella D. Philadelphia Bureau of Health co-operates with social workers, 78.
- Harrison, S. M. Topeka survey, 451.
- Harrison Bros. & Co., 633.
- Hart, H. H.
Infant welfare movement (letter), 510.
Ohio Child Welfare Department, 63.
Review of Osborne's *Within Prison Walls*, 528.
- Hart, Schaffner & Marx. Economic prize essays, 294.
- Harte, R. H. Sketch with portrait, 225.
- Hartmann, E. T. Billboards (letter), 65.
- Hatfield, C. J. Sketch with portrait, 532.
- Hatfield, Gov. (W. Va.). Portrait, 194.
- Hatfield, Miss, 472.
- Hawaii. Missionaries establish industrial schools for boys (J. O. Warner), 197.
- Hawes, Dr. J. B., 229.
- Hay, Helen S., 209, 475.
- Hayes, Max, 231.
- Hazard, Alida B. Review of Sullivan's *Markets for the People*, 437.
- Health. See Public Health.
- Heberd, R. W., 238.
- Henderson, C. R.
Joint conference of charities and sociological forces at Boulder, Col., 543.
Review of Ives' *History of Penal Methods*, 639.
Sidney Webb's "Extension Ladder" (letter), 227.
- Henrici's Restaurant strike, 214.
- Herrick-Schaap bill.
Prof. Seligman's arguments against answered (letters), 81.
- Hess, Selmar. Land tax in New York City (letter), 81.
- Hiatt, J. S., 398.
- Hibbard, J. D., 484.
- Hichborn, Franklin. California's campaign against vice, 430.
- Hicks, Dean, 210.
- Higgins, H. B.
Portrait, 457.
Settling labor disputes in Australia (Mary Chamberlain), 455.
- Higginson, H. L. "Consider the other fellow" (editorial on), 159.
- Hill, Henry. Said of THE SURVEY (letter), 494.
- Hill, R. W., 388.
- Hillquit, Morris, 231.
- Himes, R. L. Baton Rouge flood work suggests emergency relief drills, 125.
- Hine, L. W.
Boyhood and lawlessness on West Side of New York City (pictures), 80.
Cans and kids (picture), 192.
Child labor will be affected by perfection of a cotton picking machine (pictures), 171.
Child's creed, 475.
Double standard: child labor in cotton mills (picture), 5.
Girls they leave behind them (pictures), 517.
Guilty as charged (picture), 388.
Illiterates in Massachusetts (picture), 69.
In the cool of the evening (picture), 556.
Outside "the poor man's club" (picture), 212.
Playgrounds for children (picture), 446.
- "Hoboes" Union of America, 560.
- Hodder, Mrs. Jessie D., 393.
- Hodge, John. Eight-hour day in the British steel trade, 216.
- Hogan, T. J., 71.
- Holmes, J. D. August Magazine number of THE SURVEY (letter), 553.
School in summer (letter), 441.
What's the use? (letter), 492.
- Holmes, J. H.
Tannenbaum in the large, 94.
Unemployed and the churches: a reply (J. A. Ryan), 342.
War and the social movement, 629.
- Holy Land, prostitution in, 169.
- Home rule for cities. New York State Conference of Mayors and Other City Officials work for, 386.
- Homes for young women in Chicago (Annie M. Maclean), 60.
- Honolulu, H. I. Social evil in, 627.
- Hooker, G. E. Through routes for Chicago's Steam Railroads plan, 519.
- Hopedale, Mass. Conference of Union Churches of New England (W. H. Foster), 435.
- Hopkins, H. L. Capital punishment, 89.
- Hospitals.
American training for Bulgarian nurses, 209.
Bellevue Hospital affiliates with New York School of Philanthropy in social service medical course, 619.
Cleveland City Hospital reorganized (Howell Wright), 596.
Congress passes bill extending medical relief to deep-sea fishermen (editorial), 379.
Cook Co., Ill., advanced cases of tuberculosis (T. B. Sachs), 634.
Gardner, Mass. State hospital for incurable insane (picture), 635, 636.
Horizontal fire escapes to be placed in New York City hospitals, 535.
Massachusetts Commission for the Blind (H. C. Greene), 181.
Medical work in Eastern lands, 525.
New York Academy of Medicines resolution re operations on tonsils, 79.
New York Hospital Social Service Conference, 64.
Philadelphia's, plan co-operation, 404.
Sanatorium of Metropolitan Life Insurance Co., 386.
"Teaching" hospital, Chicago, 636.
See also Nursing.
- Hours of labor.
Eight-hour day in British steel trade (John Hodge), 216.
Eight-hour law for children in Massachusetts, 189.
Massachusetts legislature defeats 48-hour week for women bill, 322.
New York nightwork law for women upheld (Josephine Goldmark), 450.
New York state law for women, 169.
New York Supreme Court upholds six-day law, 172.
Retail clerks full Saturday holiday, New York City, 249.
Shortening the work day and increasing production (H. F. Porter), 341.

- Stenographers included in Colorado eight-hour law, 483.
 U. S. Steel Corporation, recommendations of Fish Committee (editorial), 222.
 Weed (C. A.) & Co., early closing hours, 385.
 House, R. T. The children (poem), 189.
 "House of Bondage" (poem by Esther M. Smith), 631.
 Housewives League (Providence, R. I.) (fights for pure milk), 1.
 Housing.
 Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science, January, 1914, number, 176.
 Brooklyn's Tenement House Committee of Public Charities report, 491.
 Cleveland tenements, report by Mildred Chadsey (John Ihlder), 491.
 Cleveland's municipal housing scheme, 172.
 Educating tenement dwellers (Nelle Reeder), 55.
 Europe and America exchange ideas on, 171.
 Grand Rapids, Mich., adopts code, 1.
 Indiana law lessens fire dangers, 36.
 National Conference to be held at Minneapolis, 404.
 Negro problems, 635.
 New York C. O. S. Commission issues pamphlet (John Ihlder), 490.
 Pennsylvania State Ass'n., institutes reforms, 229.
 Philadelphia's proposed reform law gets set back, 324.
 Regulating heights of buildings (C. M. Robinson), 389.
 Richmond, Va., report (John Ihlder), 54.
 Simplified plumbing, 636.
 Spain, wage earners (Katharine Coman), 431.
 Washington (D. C.) alley bill (editorial), 184.
 Washington (D. C.) alleys (editorial), 204.
 Workmen's houses erected by Standard Buildings, Inc., 175.
 Workmen's houses, Liverpool (pictures), 379.
 See also "Beauty for Ashes."
 Houston, Texas. Single tax progress, 55.
 Howard, J. R., 422, 494.
 Howe, F. C.
 Single tax theory, 304.
 Sketch with portrait, 535.
 Howe, Samuel. War! War! War! (letter), 553.
 Howe, S. G. Portrait, 7.
 Hubbard, C. M. Rehabilitation work in Ohio floods, 142.
 Huicks, Hazel P. *THE SURVEY*'s criticism of Peach Bloom (letter), 187.
 Hull House, Chicago, Ill. Ideals of life and living (By a little Italian Girl and an Immigrant Greek), 420.
 Hungary. Michael Biro, cartoonist of social unrest, 364.
 Hunt, R. D. Social work and alcohol (letter), 103.
 Hurty, J. N. Portrait, 278.
 Hygiene.
 Co-operative medical service at Carbonado, Wash., mines (R. A. Allen), 526.
 Medical work in Eastern lands, 525.
 New York Bureau of Child, 494.
 Tropical sanitation and hygiene course in London School of Tropical Medicine, 79.
 Hymns. S. D. Chown (letter), 401.
- I
- Ice. Municipal ice plants: investigation by Jeanie W. Wentworth, 391.
 Ideals of life and living (By a little Italian Girl and an Immigrant Greek), 420.
 Ihlder, John.
 For those who must live in tenements, 490.
 How Richmond, Va., is housed, 54.
 Illinois.
 Women's votes in (Mrs. Benjamin Nicoll: letter), 442.
 Women's voting significantly tested in (Graham Taylor), 69, 165 (correction).
 Illinois Central Railroad, 636.
 Illiteracy. Bill to eliminate adult, 419.
 Immigrants Guide, 404.
 Immigration.
 Effect of European war, 495.
 Massachusetts problem (Kate H. Claghorn), 409.
 Riverside, Cal. Fourth of July celebration for new citizens, 521.
 World's Y. W. C. A. Conference and (Mrs. H. M. Bremer), 510.
- In a Foundry (poem by Anna B. McGill), 564.
 Independence Day. *See* Fourth of July.
 India.
 Co-operative associations in, 179.
 Medical work in, 525.
 Indiana.
 Housing law lessens fire danger, 56.
 Penal farm for misdemeanants, 294.
 See also "Beauty for Ashes."
 Indianapolis, Ind.
 Social Service Church Union (Annie T. Mock), 220.
 Street car strike decision, 586.
 Industrial diseases. *See* Occupational diseases.
 Industrial education.
 Craftsman work in East End Neighborhood House, Cleveland, 211.
 Department Store Education Association, 558.
 Factory school conducted by D. E. Sicher & Co., 295.
 Hawaiian missionaries establish schools for boys (J. O. Warner), 197.
 National Association of Corporation Schools Convention, 335.
 Philadelphia Trade Schools, 328.
 Industrial Finance Corporation, 335.
 Industrial Relations. Exhibit of Better Industrial Relations, New York City, 190.
 Industrial Relations Commission.
 Appropriation bill for, passed, 425.
 Appropriation small for its work (S. S. Wise), 286.
 Bill of rights (G. W. Alger), 380.
 Drafts bill for national mediation and conciliation board, 211.
 Hearings before (J. A. Fitch), 71, 92, 230, 252, 320, 339, 397, 538, 558, 593, 609, 632.
 Hearings before (Christina Merriman), 303.
 National employment bureaus proposed by, 208.
 Review of symposium on (by an English contributor), 50.
 Industrial Welfare Commission (Washington State). Accepts minimum wage for women recommendation, 173.
 Industrial welfare work in Flint, Mich. (F. V. V. Swan), 411.
- I. W. W.
 Hearings before the Industrial Relations Commission (J. A. Fitch), 231.
 Ipswich, Mass., strike (E. F. Allen), 216.
 Infection carried in the air, 79.
 Inglis, Agnes, Relation of employer and employee (letter), 611.
- Insane.
 Exhibit of work of patients in hospitals, 300.
 Gardner, Mass. State hospital (picture), 635, 636.
 Pittsburgh's methods of caring for the improved, 426.
- Insurance, Social.
 American Association for Labor Legislation Committee on, 485.
 European, for sickness, 444.
 Metropolitan Life Insurance issues disability policies, 475.
 Pensions, poor relief and (Katherine Coman: letter), 187.
 Sweden's new law for the protection of workingmen (Olga S. Halsey), 59.
 Wisconsin life fund (Reuben McKittrick), 72.
- International Congress on Home Education, 554.
 International Convention on Safety of Life at Sea, 254.
 International Defense Workers' Conference, 321.
 Interstate commerce and child labor (W. D. Lewis), 35.
 Investors. "White list" for, 405.
 Ipswich, Mass. Aftermath of the strike (E. F. Allen), 216.
 Ireland. *THE SURVEY* in (M. W. F.: letter), 401.
 Irish, J. P., 609.
 Italy. Earthquake relief work of Red Cross at Messina and Reggio (R. R. Belknap), 116.
- J.
- James, Eunice. Two children (poem), 37.
 Jameson, C. D.
 Engineering work in China (W. D. Lane), 130.
 Portrait, 130.
 Japan. Peace movement publication, 541.
 Jaurés, Jean. Portrait, 561.
 Jenkins, James, Jr. Anti-war demonstration seen in Paris, 518.

Jenney City. Whittier House settlement (J. L. Elliott), 421.
 Jerusalem. Social survey, 315.
 Jews. National Conference of Jewish Charities (Mrs. Oscar Leonard), 245.
 Jilison, W. E. Community picnic (letter), 441.
 Job doctor, The (Edna Bonser), 439.
 John, Financier (Mary J. Woods), 531.
 Johnson, Alba, 397.
 Johnson, Alexander, 237.
 Opportunities for teachers of the feeble-minded (letter), 354.
 Review of Crothers' *Three Lords of Destiny*, 98.
 Review of Morgan's *Backward Child*, 436.
 University of Kentucky report on County almshouses of State, 178.
 Johnson, C. H., 235, 246.
 Johnson, W. T.
 Parker Open Air School, San Diego, 570.
 The peacemaker, 426.
 Jolley, Mrs. Pearl, 252.
 Jones, H. M. Note on Channing Turner's letter, 208.
 Jones, Myrta L., 444.
 Jones, Rev. W. C. "Beauty for Ashes" (letter), 187.
 Journal of the American Medical Association, quoted, 78, 527, 636.
 Juvenile courts.
 Brooklyn, N. Y., 404.
 Chicago and Denver (Bernard Flexner's letter), 84.
 Colored and white contrasted in Memphis, Tenn. (Florence Kelley), 318.
 Missouri law declared unconstitutional, 406.
 New facts about delinquency (George Everson), 488.
 St. Louis, Mo., report for five year period, 396.
 K.
 Kaiulani Home for Girls, Honolulu, 627.
 Kansas.
 Map of crime, 105.
 National Newspaper Conference, 298.
 State Board of Health fly bulletin, 415.
 Kansas City (Mo.).
 Municipal employees contribute part of their salaries to Public Welfare Board, 626.
 Negroes (Edith M. Cruise), 513.
 Kay, Dr. City Probation Conference (letter), 207.
 Kelley, Florence, 238.
 Colored Juvenile Court, Memphis, Tenn., 318.
 Review of Freeman's *Boy Life and Labour*, 437.
 Review of Keeling's *Child Labour in the United Kingdom*, 201.
 Safety at sea (letter), 349.
 Safety at sea and the Consumer's League, 112.
 Kelso, J. J. Sketch with portrait, 224.
 Kelso, R. W. Our dormant state institutions, 541.
 Kendig, Miss I. V., 388.
 Kennaday, Paul, 296.
 Review of Siegfried's *Democracy in New Zealand*, 99.
 Kennard, Beulah E., 558.
 National League of Women Workers, 410.
 Kentucky.
 Child labor law, 191.
 Report on county almshouses by the University of Kentucky (Alexander Johnson), 178.
 Keyes, E. L. "Some Information for Mother" (letter), 65.
 Kichelt, Florence C. Teodoro (Finger prints), 438.
 Kilpatrick, Van Evrie, 546.
 Kincaid, F. L., 609.
 King, John, Peanut Co., 496.
 Kingsley, S. C., 235.
 Kite, Mabel C. Professor Seligman's arguments against Herrick-Schaap bill (letter), 81.
 Knevels, Mary E. School houses as fire traps (letter), 353.
 Knowles, Morris. Flood prevention and river regulation, 151.
 Knox, Dr. H. A., 388.
 Knox, Maryal. Social settlement and its critics, 486.
 Koch, F. H. Portrait, 357.
 Kranz, J. P., 247.
 Kropotkin, Peter. Portrait, 563.
 Krulish, Dr. Alaska Health Survey report, 416.

L.
 Labor.
 American Association for Labor Legislation Committee on Social Insurance, 485.
 Australia, settling disputes in (Mary Chamberlain), 455.
 Church and industrial diseases (W. C. Rucker), 504.
 Cincinnati exchanges for handicapped people, 189.
 Clayton anti-trust bill, 305.
 Cleveland teachers to affiliate with American Federation of, 477.
 Day work preferred to piece work by Judge Jacob Trieber, 322.
 European war action (Graham Taylor), 561.
 Factory school conducted by D. E. Sicher & Co., 295.
 Importance of problems (W. H. Raynor), 400.
 International Defense Workers' Conference, 321.
 Letters exchanged between Alex. Dow and Agnes Inglis, 611.
 Massachusetts Board of Labor and Industries work, 594.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction section, 238.
 National League of Women Workers (Beulah E. Kennard), 410.
 New York State Factory Investigation Commission: hearings before, 399.
 Passing of the protégé, The (Nina Bull), 613.
 Political influence in administering labor laws in New York State (Mary Chamberlain), 499.
 See also Industrial Relations.
 Labor exchanges. Juvenile exchanges in England direct education of children (Olga S. Halsey), 195.
 Labor in the Transvaal.
 Cullen, William (letter), 310.
 Rainsford, W. S. (letter), 311.
 Laddey, Paula. Conference on Education of Backward, Truant, Delinquent and Dependent Children, Memphis, 245.
 La Follette bill, 355.
 Land-locked disaster (By "Slocum"), 253.
 Safety at sea and the Consumers' League (Florence Kelley), 112.
 Laidler, H. W. Closed shop and labor boycott, 304.
 Lakeman, C. E., 248.
 Lancet-Clinic, quoted, 169.
 Land-locked disaster (By "Slocum"), 253.
 Land problem in Texas (J. C. Granbery), 394.
 Lane, W. D.
 (The) Four gunmen, 13.
 Making of a Russian Revolutionist: Marie Sukloff, 257.
 New York City's vocational education plans, 544.
 Red Cross and engineering work in China for flood prevention, 129.
 Review of Puffer's *Vocational Guidance*, 346.
 Vocational education in the United States, 417.
 Langdon, Marion, 607.
 Langdon, W. C., 607.
 Lansbury, George. Portrait, 562.
 Laundries.
 New York Compensation law and, 495.
 University of Wisconsin extension course, 297.
 Lawrence, Bishop. Charge to the Episcopalians of Eastern Massachusetts, 488.
 Leaden Eyed, The (poem by N. V. Lindsay), 425.
 Learned, Rev. L. E., 220.
 Lee, G. S. "Consider the other fellow" (letter), 105.
 Lee, Joseph.
 Melting pot, The (letter), 493.
 School lunches (letter), 103.
 "Lefty Louis." Sketch with portrait, 13.
 Legg, H. F., 516.
 Lehigh Coal and Navigation Co. Workmen's bungalows erected by, 175.
 Leighton, Etta V. Social education supervisor (letter), 443.
 Leiserson, William, 230.
 Leonard, Oscar.
 Importance of the Association of Infirmary Officials (Missouri), 96.
 Missouri State Conference of Charities and Correction (letter), 513.
 Leonard, Mrs. Oscar. National Conference of Jewish Charities, Memphis, 245.

- Lepers. Dr. W. C. Rucker would have national institution care for, 587.
 Lessig, Adolph, 340.
 Leubuscher, F. C.
 Prof. Seligman's arguments against the Herrick-Schaap bill (letter), 83.
 Single taxers (letter), 402.
 Levine, Louis. Review of Laidler's *Boycotts and the Labor Struggle*, 99.
 Levy, William Auerbach. The Rabbi (etching), 193.
 Lewis, W. D. Child labor and interstate commerce, 35.
 Lewisohn, Adolph.
 Prison reform (letter), 513.
 Prisoners: some observations of a business man, 61.
 Libraries.
 Center for social work, 192.
 See also Public library.
 Liebknecht, Karl. Portrait, 563.
 Lies, E. T., 236.
 Lighting systems. Seattle, Wash., 521.
 Liquor question.
 Bishop Lawrence's charge to the Episcopalians of Eastern Massachusetts, 488.
 Menace of drink summarized (Elizabeth Tilton), 488.
 Report of the Commission to Investigate Drunkenness in Massachusetts, quoted, 488.
 See also Alcohol: Temperance teaching.
 Lindsay, N. V. The Leaden Eyed (poem), 425.
 Lindsay, S. M. Review of Bryce's *University and Historical Addresses*, 550.
 Lindsey, Ben B.
 Comment on Mrs. Bacon's *Beauty for Ashes*, 209.
 Portrait, 209.
 Lissner, Meyer.
 Charles D. Willard (sketch), 102.
 "Some Inf'mation for Mother" (letter), 65.
 Little Rock, Ark. School board establishes banks for children, 67.
 Liverpool, Eng. Workingmen's homes (pictures), 579.
 Lloyd, M. S. Safety at sea (letter), 553.
 Loans.
 Dallas, Tex. Provident Loan Society, 180.
 "Morris plan" banks for wage-earners, 335.
 National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations—convention, 512.
 Lockwood, Mrs. V. H., 470.
 Locust Valley, N. Y. Matinecock Neighborhood Ass'n., 194.
 Lodging-houses. Fire hazards in Cleveland, 521.
 Loch, Dr. Jacques, 296, 336.
 London, Eng.
 Conference on the Blind, 191.
 Sixth International Conference on Social work (1915), 188, 644.
 Summer school of town planning, 176.
 Survey of church work, 505.
 Work of the American Committee for stranded travelers (S. S. Menken), 790.
 Longshoremen. Hearings before the Industrial Relations Commission (I. A. Fitch), 320.
 Lord and Taylor (New York City). Laboratory school, 558.
 Los Angeles, Cal. Municipal vacation camp, 174.
 Louisville, Ky. Municipal scrubber, 392.
 Lowman, Dr. I. H., 229.
 Lutes, Della T. "Some Inf'mation for Mother" (letter), 65.
 Lutz, R. R., 545.
 Lyman, A. T. Women's wages (letter), 553.
 Lynn, P. D., 321.
- M.
- McCampbell, Dr. E. F., 230.
 McCarthy, Charles, 210.
 McCarthy, P. H., 633.
 McClenahan, Bessie A., 422.
 McCorkle, D. S. Churches and Unemployment (letter), 103.
 Macdonald, J. R. Portrait, 562.
 McDowell, Mary, 484.
 McGill, Anna B. In a foundry (poem), 565.
 McHugh, Rose, 494.
 Mackay, Constance D. Children's plays (letter), 513.
 Mackay, Percy. Portrait, 52.
 McKeesport, Penn. Municipal swimming pool lowers drowning rate (picture), 524.
 McKelway, A. J., 235.
 Negro child laborers in Virginia, 496.
 Maclean, Annie M. Homes for young women: the Eleanor Clubs of Chicago, 60.
 McLean, F. H. Charity organization society to be formed in Shanghai, 180.
 McLean, Senator. Paper read at National Committee on Mental Hygiene meeting, 300.
 McMahon, Mrs. Theresa S., 559.
 M'Murtrie, Dr. Douglas. Quoted from article in *Lancet-Clinic* on prostitution in the Holy Land, 169.
 Madison, Wis. Governor's Conference, 251.
 Magazines, leading articles in, 97, 221.
 Magnes, J. L. Mikveh Baths (letter), 207.
 Maine, child welfare work in, 179.
 Making it right (poem by Miriam Teichner), 601.
 Manheimer, W. A.
 Mikveh baths of New York City, 77.
 Purifying water for city bathing pools, 183.
 Manierre, C. E. Teaching temperance (letter), 226.
 Mann, F. H., 230.
 Manny, F. A., 444.
 Employing leisure (letter), 493.
 Field notes of a vacationer, 540.
 March, J. E., 230.
 Marchant, Rev. James, 208.
 Marelli, Henry, 339.
 Margulies, Pauline. Painter of East Side types (Mary L. Chamberlain), 193.
 Marks, M. M. Establishes joint board to try city employees, 586.
 Marsh, B. C. Prof. Seligman's arguments against the Herrick-Schaap bill (letter), 81.
 Martin, Irving, 609.
 Maryland.
 Child labor law amended, 87.
 Seventh Biennial Report of the State Board of Charities and Corrections, 178.
 Mason, Walt. Switches in time, 55.
 Massachusetts.
 Board of Labor and Industries Work, 594.
 Chart showing result of fight against tuberculosis in, 79.
 Commission for the Blind (H. C. Griene), 181.
 Eight-hour law for children, 189.
 Forty-eight-hour week for women bill defeated, 322.
 Illiterates in (picture by Hine), 69.
 Immigration question in (Kate H. Claghorn), 409.
 Minimum Wage Board report, 355.
 Prison reform in (G. L. Cady), 338.
 State hospital for incurable insane, Gardner (picture), 635, 636.
 Mathews, J. L., 340.
 Matthews, W. H. Widow's families, 270.
 Mattullath, Alice. Safety at sea (letter), 403.
 Matzner, Paula A., 607.
 Maurer, J. H., 397.
 Mead, Helen E., 326.
 Meadville, Pa., Theological School, 434.
 Measles. Statistics (Dr. F. S. Crum), 183.
 Mechanics. University of Wisconsin offers teaching course for, 328.
 Meder, Mrs. Leonora Z., 533.
 Medical-Psychological Association Convention, 299.
 Medical publicity. American Medical Association report on, 527.
 Medical Social Service.
 Co-operative at the Carbonado, Wash., mines (R. A. Allen), 526.
 Morton, Daniel, 508.
 Medicine. War surgery of yesterday (Alice Hamilton), 564.
 Meimarides, Stachys. The gunmen (letter), 207.
 Melting pot (Joseph Lee: letter), 493.
 Memphis, Tenn.
 American Association of Officials of Charity and Correction, 246.
 American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity, 247.
 Colored and White Juvenile Courts Contrasted (Florence Kelley), 318.
 Conference on Education of Backward, Truant, Delinquent and Dependent Children (Paula Laddey), 245.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction, 232.
 National Conference of Jewish Charities (Mrs. Oscar Leonard), 245.

National Federation of Settlements, 246.
 National Probation Association Conference, 246.
 Men and Religion Forward Movement. Fulton Bag and Cotton Mills strike, 476.
 Menken, S. S. Work of the American Committee of London for stranded travellers, 590.
 Mental hygiene.
 National Committee meeting, 299.
 Report of State organizations, 300.
 See also Feeble-mindedness; Insanity.
 Merchants, Manufacturers and Employers' Association, San Francisco, 609.
 Merrill, T. G. A Narrow Squeak (Finger prints), 531.
 Merriman, Christina. Probing causes of unrest, 403, 483.
 Metropolitan Life Insurance Co.
 Group disability insurance, 475.
 Sanatorium, 386.
 Mexico.
 Peace meeting of New York women, 107.
 Red Cross in, 429.
 War with (editorial), 157.
 Meylan, G. L. Review of Terman's *Hygiene of the School Child*, 346.
 Michaelis, G. V. S. Westinghouse strike, 463.
 Michigan. Jackson State Prison establishes extension work department, 250.
 Midsummer Night's Dream. Overbrook, Pa., Institution for the instruction of the Blind gives, 251.
 Midwives and blindness, 315.
 Mikveh Baths (J. L. Magnes: letter), 207.
 Miles, C. A., 476.
 Milk.
 Chelsea Neighborhood Association establishes "cent-a-glass" station, 618.
 Philadelphia ordinance, 446.
 Providence, R. I., fight for pure, 1.
 St. Louis pure milk ordinance, 190.
 Miller, Dr. J. A., 229.
 Value of tuberculin in treatment of tuberculosis, 507.
 Miller, Madeleine S. Delivery boy (poem), 540.
 Miller R. E. Nickel gift for the Y. W. C. A. campaign (letter), 331.
 Miller, Mrs. W. E., 471.
 Miner, Maude E., 239.
 Minimum wage.
 Australia settling labor disputes in (Mary Chamberlain), 455.
 Massachusetts report, 355.
 Oregon law, 593.
 Reply to critics of (Bertha R. Warbasse), 57.
 Washington State, 173.
 Mining. Co-operative medical service at Carbonado, Wash., mines (R. A. Allen), 526.
 Minnesota.
 Accident prevention campaign, 210.
 University will open school of public health, 598.
 Missouri.
 Association of Infirmary Officials' Work (Oscar Leonard), 96.
 Juvenile court law declared unconstitutional, 406.
 Prison contract labor, 66.
 Social legislation bills proposed, 516.
 Mitchel, John P., 210.
 Vocational education plans for New York City (W. D. Lane), 544.
 Mitchell, Lucy S. Sex instruction in schools, 327.
 Mitten, T. E., 398.
 Mobile, Ala. Business Women's Club, 396.
 Mock, Annie T. Social Service Church Union (Indianapolis), 220.
 Modern relief in great emergencies (E. P. Bicknell), 113.
 Moffat, Adalene, 295.
 Moore, Vida F. Said of THE SURVEY (letter), 604.
 Moral education (F. J. Gould), 105.
 Morbidity statistics (Dr. J. W. Trask), 239.
 Morris, Ellis. Rockefeller holdings in Colorado Fuel & Iron Co. (letter), 350.
 "Morris plan" banks, 335.
 Morristown, N. J. Presbyterian Board of Home Missions survey, 4.
 Morton, Daniel. Medical social service, 508.
 Mothers' pensions. *See* Pensions; Widows' pensions.
 Mothers who must earn (Katherine Anthony), 17.
 Moton, Major R. R., 234.
 Mott, Dr. J. R., 506.
 Mt. Rubidoux, Cal. Easter sunrise service (picture), 391.

Moving pictures. *See* Cinematograph.
 Mullenbach, James, 484.
 Munich. News bulletin issued to give information to stranded Americans, 591.
 Municipal government. Prize offered by National Municipal League for essay on, 176.
 Municipal markets. Fish markets, Wash., D. C., 520.
 Murphy, J. J. Prof. Seligman's article on the Herrick-Schaap bill (letter), 311.
 Music. "Pirates of Penzance" given by inmates of Sherborn, Mass., Prison (Mary C. Crawford), 393.
 Music School Settlement, Boston, 512.
 My sister's heritage (poem by Mary S. Edgar), 173.

N.

Narbeth, Pa. Pageant, 447.
 Narrow squeak (T. G. Merrill), 531.
 National Association for the Advancement of Colored People, Memphis, 234.
 National Association of Corporation Schools convention, 335.
 National Civic Federation.
 Food and drugs survey, 294.
 Social progress survey, under direction of R. P. Falkner, 59.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction. *See* Charities.
 National Consumers' League. Triangle Waist Co. and its label, 478.
 See also Consumers' League.
 National Municipal League. Municipal government prize essay, 176.
 National Women's Trade Union League. Training School for Organizers established by, 322.
 Naturalization. Office hours of Boards, 396.
 Nearing, Prof. Scott, 397.
 Nebraska. Prison reform in (G. L. Cooper), 344.
 Negro scrubwoman (picture), 2.
 Negroes.
 "Aunty Fanny" Banks of St. Monica's Home for Sick Colored Women and Children, Roxbury, Mass. (picture), 68.
 Black man's case (Deets Pickett: letter), 442.
 Conference at New Orleans to discuss race improvement, 635.
 Conference on problems of negroes and whites in the South, 506.
 Conservation of Negro health, 598.
 Delaware State sanatorium for tubercular, 636.
 Juvenile Court, Memphis, Tenn. (Florence Kelley), 318.
 Kansas City (Edith M. Cruise: letter), 513.
 National Association for the Advancement of Colored People Conference, 295.
 Negro boys make good (L. H. Hammond: letter), 603.
 Philadelphia's organized work for colored children, 395.
 Race question discussed at National Conference of Charities and Correction, 234.
 Spingarn medal, 295.
 University Commission on Southern Race Questions, 190.
 University of North Carolina Y. M. C. A., work with (S. R. Winters), 542.
 Wilson Tubercular Home for, 479.
 Neighborhood work.
 Chicago City Club announces competition plan for Neighborhood center, 392.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction Section, 236.
 Nerney, May C. Dr. Spingarn misquoted (letter), 403.
 New Hampshire. Child welfare work, 179.
 New Haven Improvement Ass'n. Two-family houses erected by, 175.
 New Jersey.
 Conference of Charities and Correction, Asbury Park, 179.
 Sex hygiene bill, 6.
 Tuberculosis exhibit, 5.
 New Orleans, La.
 Black plague, 449.
 Conference to discuss improvement of negro, 635.
 Rodent survey, 621.
 Tenth National Conference on Child Labor (Anna Rochester), 49.

New York (City).

- Academy of Medicine resolution re operations on tonsils, 79.
- Blackwell's Island meeting quelled by Katherine B. Davis, 445.
- Boyhood and lawlessness on West Side (pictures by Hine), 80.
- Chelsea Neighborhood Association establishes "cent-a-glass" milk station, 618.
- Department Store Education Association, 558.
- Dependent widows with dependent children report, 1.
- Directory of cripples, 66.
- East Side street types in color and clay (Mary L. Chamberlain), 193.
- Educational Dramatic League, 512.
- Employers' and employees' joint board to settle municipal disputes, 586.
- Exhibit of Better Industrial Relations, 190.
- Factory school conducted by D. E. Sicher & Co., 295.
- Festival and pageant of nations, 209, 356.
- Fifth Conference of Charities and Corrections, 208, 220.
- Greenwich House Settlement Dramatic Ass'n. gives Pygmalion and Galatea, 63.
- Greenwich Village county fair (panel), 385.
- Gunmen (W. D. Lane), 13.
- Health Federation offers suggestions as to policeman's duties, 298.
- Horizontal fire escapes to be installed, 335.
- Hospital Social Service Conference, 64.
- Industrial Relations Commission hearing (J. A. Fitch), 290, (Christina Merriman), 303, (J. A. Fitch), 320.
- Inter-city Settlement Conference, 296.
- Land tax in (Selmar Hess: letter), 81.
- Mikveh baths (W. A. Manheimer), 77.
- Mothers who must earn (Katherine Anthony), 17.
- Municipal ice plant problem, 291.
- National League of Women Workers Convention (Beulah E. Kennard), 410.
- Nightwork law for women upheld (Josephine Goldmark), 150.
- Onion study western progress, 315.
- Play zones in streets of (Carl Beck), 600.
- Purifying the public baths, 427.
- Reformatory back of Hart's Island, 67.
- Report of the Heights of Buildings Commission (C. M. Robinson), 389.
- Report on price of food stuffs, 555.
- Report on public comfort stations, 176.
- Saturday holiday for retail clerks, 249.
- Society for Social and Moral Prophylaxis meeting, 90.
- State Probation Commission Conference, 179.
- Street cleaning plan, 326.
- Tenement House Commission issues pamphlet (John Ihlder), 490.
- Training for public service conference, 210.
- Vocational education plans (W. D. Lane), 544.
- Voting places (Carl Beck), 53.
- Widows' needs (Edw. T. Devine), 23.
- Woman's Trade Union League Anniversary, 111.
- Women hold anti-war mass meeting, 107.
- Women's night work case before the courts, 169.
- Women's peace parade, 555.

New York (State)

- Auburn Prison "Mutual Welfare League," 4.
- Bill to stop fortune telling fails of passage, 213.
- Charities and Correction Conference, 212.
- Commission on Relief for Widowed Mothers' report, 1.
- Commission to investigate bovine tuberculosis, 635.
- Commission to investigate treatment of feeble-minded, 495, 619.
- Compensation law ruling, 556.
- Factory inspection methods to be improved, 322.
- Industrial Board of the Labor Department issues rules for cannery labor camps, 297.
- Labor laws affected by politics (Mary Chamberlain), 499.
- Lack of appropriations will hamper work of state institutions, 385.
- Mayors' Conference, Auburn, 386.
- Prison reform suggested by Prison Association, 406.
- Religious Citizenship League, 96.
- Six-day labor law upheld, 172.
- Social legislation in, 88.
- State Commission on Prison Reform, 212.
- State Factory Investigation Commission hearings, 309.

White bill, 322.

Women eligible for positions in State Bureau of Employment, 407.

Wood alcohol bill, 78.

New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor.

- Report on public comfort stations in New York City, 176.
- Report on Widows' families (W. H. Matthews), 270.
- New York Charity Organization Society, 404.
- New York Clearing House for Mental Defectives. Report on feeble-minded women of child-bearing age, 251.
- New York Evening Post*. To the Red Cross Relief Ship (poem by Anne P. L. Field reprinted from), 605.
- New York School of Philanthropy, 619.
- New York University.

Course for teachers of the feeble-minded, 543.

Public accounting course, 316.

Newark, N. J. City planning, 176.

Newhall, C. S. Up the road (poem), 213.

Newspapers.

- National Newspaper Conference, 298.
- Whack the quack (cartoon), 90.
- Newton, Elizabeth M. Founds tuberculosis hospital, 508.
- Newton, R. J.
- Anti-pension league (letter), 65.
- Consumptives who go West (letter), 620.
- Nickle gift. Y. W. C. A. campaign (R. E. Miller: letter), 331.
- Nicoll, Grace. Illinois women voters (letter), 187.
- Nightingale, Florence. Memorial window, Royal Infirmary, Glasgow, 555.
- Noises. Chicago's reduction of noise ordinances, 491.
- North Carolina. University Y. M. C. A. work with Negroes (S. R. Winters), 542.
- North Dakota.
- Agricultural College at Fargo establishes "Little Country Theater," 408.
- Pageant of the Northwest given at University, 357.
- Norton, W. J.
- Cincinnati Union Bethel, 308.
- Dr. O. P. Geier's report on the Cincinnati Department of Charities and Correction, 177.
- Nursing.
- American Red Cross nurse to train Bulgarian girls, 475.
- American training for Bulgarian nurses, 209.
- Association convention, 404.
- District nurse of yesterday and to-day (Olive A. Colton), 414.
- New York School of Philanthropy offers a medical social service course, 619.
- Philippine medical methods, 481.
- Public health, 636.
- Rural visiting, 188.

O.

Occupational diseases.

- Compensation for (J. B. Andrews), 415.
- Relation of Church to (W. C. Rucker), 504.
- O'Connor, William. Old age (letter), 401.
- Odgers, J. H. Said of THE SURVEY (letter), 332.
- Ogden, L. R. Sex hygiene (letter), 603.
- O'Hara, Rev. E. V., 238, 593.
- Oh God, Forgive (poem by M. E. Anderson), 498.
- Ohio.
- Child Welfare Department (H. H. Hart), 63.
- Domestic Relations Court of Hamilton Co., 110.
- Flood rehabilitation in a city (Edw. T. Devine), 147.
- Floods of 1913, 135.
- Red Cross agent's personal experience (Johanne Bojesen), 143.
- Red Cross rehabilitation work (C. M. Hubbard), 142.
- Red Cross work in (L. E. Stein), 139.
- Spread of Trachoma among employees of Youngstown Sheet and Tube Co., 111.
- State-city labor exchange for handicapped people, 189.
- State relief work in floods (G. F. Burba), 137.
- Women clerks' wages, 427.
- Ohio State University, 494.
- Olander, V. A. Safety at sea (letter), 403.
- Old age pensions. See Pensions.
- Omaha, Neb. Tornado relief work (Edith Grant), 122.
- Oregon. Social Hygiene Society "back to the home" movement, 586.
- Osborn, Ellen M., 444.

- Ostorne, I. M.
Portrait, 529.
Woman Prisoner *Halls*, reviewed by H. H. Hart, 528.
- Ostrawsky, Abbo. Painter of East Side types (Mary L. Chamberlain), 193.
- Ovington, Mary W. Review of Hammond's *In Black and White*, 201.
- P.
- Pageants.
Cape Cod, 607.
Greenwich Village county fair (panel), 385.
Natick, Pa., 447.
New York City festival and pageant of nations, 209, 356.
North Dakota University gives Pageant of the Northwest, 357.
St. Louis Pageant and Masque (Charlotte Rumbold), 472.
- Palendach, John, 533.
- Palmer-Owen bill, 412, 606.
- Pamphlets, recent, 423, 444, 494, 621, 644.
- Panama Canal Zone. Health officer's report, 533.
- Paris. Anti-war demonstration (James Jenkins, Jr.), 518.
- Park, Clara C. Widows' pensions (letter), 334.
- Park, R. E. Review of Daniels' *In Freedom's Birthplace*, 100.
- Parker, C. H., 524.
- Parker Open Air School, San Diego (W. J. Johnson), 570.
- Parkinson, J. T. Liability of vessel owners for losses at sea, 361.
- Parks.
East St. Louis, Mo., establishes recreation center in, 390.
Municipal moving pictures in St. Louis, 521.
- Paterson, N. J.
Industrial Relations Commission hearing (J. A. Fitch), 339.
- Paton, Dr. Stewart. Address at National Committee on Mental Hygiene meeting, 299.
- Patterson, J. V., 558.
- Patterson, Major R. Y. Portrait, 566.
- Pauly, Henry, 560.
- Peabody, Francis, 71.
- Peace.
George Washington Memorial Association plans national civic hall as peace memorial, 324.
Japan Peace Movement, 541.
Plans for furthering, 555.
Report of the Balkan Commission of Inquiry, 249.
Women's peace parade, New York City, 555.
- Peacemaker, The (W. J. Johnson), 426.
- Peking, China. Public institutions for the poor (E. T. Shaw), 616.
- Pellagra. Thompson-McFadden Commission Report on, 415.
- Pennsylvania.
City planning law contested, 56.
Mothers' pensions, 512.
Overbrook Institute for the Instruction of the Blind (festival), 251.
Penal laws to be revised, 533.
State Housing Association will inaugurate reforms, 229.
University offers new course for social workers, 615.
- Pennybacker, Mrs. P. V. Portrait, 358.
- Pensions.
Anti-pension league (R. J. Newton: letter), 65.
Mothers' in Pennsylvania, 512.
Old age (William O'Connor: letter), 401.
Old age pensions measure defeated in Canada, 5.
Social insurance, pensions and poor relief (Katharine Coman: letter), 187.
See also Widows' pensions.
- People's Gardens Association, Wash., D. C. Citizens of to-morrow (picture), 389.
- People's Institute of New York City.
Festival and pageant of nations, 209, 356.
Poster stamp used by, 619.
- Perkins, Col. T. H. Portrait, 7.
- Perkins Institution and Massachusetts School for the Blind, Boston, Mass. (E. H. Clement), 7.
- Perry, C. A., 236.
- Persons, W. F. Red Cross work in the Volturno disaster, 190.
- Peters, J. P. "Some Information for Mother" (letter), 65.
- Philadelphia, Pa.
Bookbinding for women, 400.
Bureau of Health co-operates with social workers (Ella D. Harris), 78.
Child Federation Baby-saving Show (picture), 407.
"Clean-up-week," 107.
Driving beggars out of, 426.
Housing reform gets setback in, 324.
Industrial Relations Commission hearing (J. A. Fitch), 397.
Motion pictures and children in, 176.
National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations Convention, 512.
Organized work for colored and white children, 395.
Pigs within city limits, 188.
Pure milk ordinance, 446.
Report on Moyamensing Prison, 386.
Social work explained to teachers, 419.
Trade schools to be established, 328.
- Philanthropy and Business (E. T. Devine), 263.
- Philippine Islands. Medical methods in, 481.
- Pickett, Deets. Black man's case (letter), 442.
- Piez, Charles, 483.
- Pirates of Pensance*. Given by inmates of Sherborn, Mass., Prison (Mary C. Crawford), 393.
- Pittman, Jane C. Temperance teaching (letter), 227.
- Pittsburgh, Pa.
Charity relief work, 405.
Christian Social Service Union, 435.
Proposed improvements in care of the insane, 426.
Pittsburgh Coal Co. Red Cross work with (J. B. Deacon), 119.
- Pity (Statue by A. Cordonnier), 30.
- Platt, P. S., 224.
- Playground and Recreation Association of America, 392.
- Playgrounds.
Charleston, S. C., municipal, 176.
Greenwich Village, New York City, 521.
Los Angeles, Cal., municipal camps, 174.
Play and physical development (H. S. Curtis), 174.
Play zones in New York's streets (Carl Beck), 600.
- Plimpsoll law (England), 159.
- Plows. Comment on H. M. Jones' poem (Channing Turner: letter), 208.
- Poe, Clarence, 236.
- Poems.
Children (R. T. House), 189.
Chimneys (J. W. Beach), 440.
Collection of poems by Morris Rosenfeld, tr. by Rose P. Stokes and Helen Frank, 266.
Delivery boy (Madeleine S. Miller), 540.
Drafted (Sarah N. Cleghorn), 287.
Failure (J. W. Brandeis), 409.
Four wards of the hospital (Sarah N. Cleghorn), 462.
Ghost, The (Sarah N. Cleghorn), 51.
House of bondage, The (Esther M. Smith), 631.
In a foundry (Anna B. McGill), 565.
Leaden eyed (N. V. Lindsay), 425.
Making it right (Miriam Teichner), 601.
My sister's heritage (Mary S. Edgar), 173.
Oh, God, forgive (M. E. Anderson), 498.
Power (J. W. Beach), 317.
Prentice Songs, verses from (G. M. P. Baird), 602.
Rose makers (Miriam Teichner), 601.
Submission (Miriam Teichner), 601.
To the Red Cross relief ship (Anne P. L. Field), 605.
Two children (Eunice James), 37.
Up the road (C. S. Newhall), 213.
War (Mary C. Davies), 478.
- "Poisoned needles." *Journal of the American Medical Association*, quoted on, 78.
- Policemen.
Chicago, 476.
Health Federation of City of New York offers suggestions as to duties, 298.
- Policewomen (Alice S. Wells: letter), 207.
- Polish Social workers (Thaddeus Sleszynski: letter), 603.
- Poor in spirit (M. L., letter), 331.
- Poppler, I. E.
Sex education (letter), 643.
- Porter, H. F. J.
Factory Investigation Commission (letter), 313.
Recommendations for exits in factories to prevent loss of life in fires, 48.
Shortening the work day and increasing production, 341.

- Portland, Ore.
 Employment agencies in (Edwin Anders), 400.
 Hearings before the Industrial Relations Commission (J. A. Fitch), 593.
 "Portland 1913" Conference, 298.
- Portraits.
 Allen, E. A., 9.
 Anagnos, Michael, 9.
 Arvold, E. G., 408.
 Blakely, C. G., 452.
 Bradford, Miss Cornelia F., 421.
 Bryan, J. W., 522.
 Burns, A. T., 421.
 Burns, John, 562.
 Chase, H. T., 452.
 Clarke, C. B., 466.
 Clarke, Mrs. C. B., 369.
 Cox, L. A., 276.
 Cox, Mrs. L. A., 276.
 "Dago Frank," 14.
 Davis, D. F., 52.
 Dripps, R. D., 224.
 Durre, Edgar, 368.
 Edmonds, T. J., 102.
 Fenton, W. T., 344.
 Foor, J. D., 277.
 Foor, Mrs. J. D., 277.
 Garver, T. F., 452.
 Glenn, Mary W., 235.
 Griffiths, Austin, 111.
 Grind, R. B., 452.
 "Gyp the Blood," 14.
 Hardie, Keir, 562.
 Hane, R. H., 225.
 Hatfield, C. J., 542.
 Higgins, H. B., 457.
 Howe, F. C., 567.
 Howe, Dr. S. G., 7.
 Hurty, J. N., 278.
 Jaurès, Jean, 361.
 Kelso, J. L., 225.
 Koch, F. H., 357.
 Kropotkin, Peter, 563.
 Landsbury, George, 562.
 "Lefty Louie," 15.
 Liebknecht, Karl, 563.
 Lindsey, Ben B., 209.
 Macdonald, J. R., 562.
 McKay, Percy, 52.
 Osborne, T. M., 529.
 Patterson, Maj. R. U., 566.
 Pennybacker, Mrs. P. V., 358.
 Perkins, Col. T. H., 7.
 Robertson, Ina L., 60.
 Rumbold, Charlotte, 52.
 Ryan, Rev. J. A., 234.
 Schoenfeld, Julia, 330.
 Sears, Amelia, 87.
 Shannon, W. L., 422.
 Smith, J. L., 63.
 Stevens, T. W., 53.
 Sukk-H. Marie, 257.
 Taylor, Graham, 240.
 Vandervelde, Emile, 563.
 "Walter Lewis," 15.
 Wort, William, 345.
 Woodruff, Lt. Col. C. E., 224.
- Poster advertising. Church "Ad" between a cigar and beer signs (picture by Hine), 111.
- Poster stamps.
 For peace propaganda, 585.
 Peace stamps (H. L. Canfield: letter), 644.
 Publicity uses of (Carl Beck), 618.
- Power, Z. L., 452.
- Power, C. S., 267.
- Poverty.
 Cutting through poverty hill (cartoon by Des Moines Associated Charities), 543.
 Public institutions for the poor in Peking (E. T. Shaw), 616.
 See also "Beauty for Ashes."
- Powell, Elias. Said of THE SURVEY (letter), 514.
- Powell, R. C., 422.
- Power (poem by I. W. Burch), 317.
- Practical Science (G. M. P. Baird), 602.
- Presbyterians. Social questions treated in the General Assembly (H. S. Brown), 343.
- Price, Eva G. Social workers and alcohol (letter), 65.
- Price, G. M. How Europe protects bleach workers, 58.
 Women factory workers in Europe, 413.
- Prison labor.
 Contract labor in Rhode Island, proceedings re, 47.
 Missouri contract labor, 66.
- Prisons.
 Goal of prison reform, 237.
 "It means practical paying reformation" (cartoon published in prison paper), 62.
 Jackson, Mich. State prison established extension work department, 250.
 Massachusetts reforms (G. L. Cady), 338.
 Mentality and prison reform (Dorothy Straus: letter), 443.
 Mutinies in, 445.
 "Mutual Welfare League" at Auburn Prison (New York), 4.
 National Committee on Prison Labor, 604.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction section, 236.
 Nebraska reforms (G. L. Cooper), 344.
 New York Prison Association suggestions, 406.
 New York State Commission on Prison Reform recommendations re Sing Sing, 212.
 Picture of prisoners in Wheeling, West Va., Associated Charities report, 91.
 Prisoners (L. M. Davis: letter), 104.
 Prisoners: some observations of a business man (Adolph Lewisohn), 61.
 Recidivist convicts (Francis A. Seymour: letter), 553.
 Reform (Adolph Lewisohn: letter), 513.
 Report on Moyamensing Prison, Philadelphia, 386.
 Sherborn, Mass., inmates give "Pirates of Pensance" (Mary C. Crawford), 393.
 Within Prison Walls (T. M. Osborne), 528.
 See also Sing Sing.
- Probation.
 Conference (Dr. Kay: letter), 207.
 Conference of National Probation Assn., Memphis, 246.
 New York State Commission Conference, 179.
- Probing the causes of unrest.
 Hearings before the Industrial Relations Commission (J. A. Fitch), 71, 92, 230, 252, 320, 339, 397, 538, 558, 593, 609.
 Merriman, Christina, 303.
- Prostitution.
 California's campaign against entrenched vice (F. Hichborn), 430.
 Chicago, 476.
 Holy Land, 169.
 Honolulu, H. I., 627.
 Memphis, Tenn., 232.
 THE SURVEY's criticism of Peach Bloom (Hazel P. Hincks: letter), 187.
- Protestant Episcopal Church.
 Marquette diocese view of the Calumet Copper strike (J. E. Crosbie), 503.
 "White list" for investors, 405.
- Providence, R. I. Housewives' League fight for pure milk, 1.
- Provident Loan Society, Dallas, Tex., 180.
- Public accounting. New York University course, 316.
- Public health.
 Alaska report, 416.
 Conference at Greenwich, Conn., 336.
 Congress passes bill extending medical relief to deep-sea fishermen (editorial), 379.
 District nurse of yesterday and to-day (Olive A. Colton), 414.
 Hospitals for advanced cases of tuberculosis (Dr. T. B. Sachs), 634.
 Leper institution proposed, 587.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction section, 239.
 New health, The (Edw. T. Devine), 376.
 New Orleans' method of dealing with black plague, 449.
 State supervision of tuberculosis sanatorium, 598.
 Training for service in, 494.
 University of Minnesota has school of, 598.
- Public library. As a civic factor (Mabel R. Haines), 325.

- Public schools.
 Bill for the wider use of the school plant in District of Columbia, 337.
 Boston children, 419.
 Buildings as fire traps (Mary E. Knevels: letter), 353.
 California, 418.
 Canton, Ill. High school letterhead, 615.
 Medical inspection, 419.
 Portable school houses in Chicago (pictures), 170.
 School in summer (J. D. Holmes: letter), 441.
 Wisconsin free employment bureaus in, 587.
 Public service training and universities, 91.
 Public welfare. *See* Social Welfare.
 Pullman, R. W. Mobilizing the Red Cross forces, 566.
 Pure Food law. Effects of, discussed by Dr. C. E. A. Winslow, 212.
 Putnam, Dr. C. P.
 Sketch reprinted from *Boston Medical and Surgical Journal*, 329.
 Putnam, Mrs. W. L. "Some Information for Mother" (letter), 104.
- Q.
- Quacks. Whack the quack (cartoon), 90.
- R.
- Rabbi, The. Levy, William Auerbach (etching), 193.
 Radium.
 "Beta rays" and cancer, 79.
 Canada, 79.
 Rahway, N. Y. New Jersey reformatory self-government, 512.
 Railroads. Chicago's steam (Sylvester Baxter), 519.
 Rainsford, W. S. Labour in the Transvaal (letter), 311.
 Ransom, W. L. Said of THE SURVEY (letter), 314.
 Raynor, W. H. Labor problems against bridge building, 400.
 Recreation.
 Bennington, Vt., program, 56.
 California Recreational Inquiry Committee, 56.
 Community picnic (W. E. Jillson: letter), 441.
 East St. Louis, Mo., establishes park and recreation center (picture), 390.
 Employing leisure (F. A. Manny: letter), 493.
 Pamphlet on, issued by Russell Sage Foundation, 176.
 Santa Barbara, Cal., has new center, 601.
 Red Cross.
 Agent's personal experience in Ohio flood relief work (Johanne Bojesen), 143.
 American nurse to train Bulgarian women, 475.
 Earthquake relief work at Messina and Reggio (R. R. Belknap), 116.
 Engineering work in China for flood-prevention (W. D. Lane), 129.
 European war work, 535, 515.
 Flood rehabilitation in a city (Edw. T. Devine), 147.
 General work of the society (E. P. Bicknell), 113.
 Mexican border, 429.
 Mobilizing the forces (R. W. Pullman), 566.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction section, 245.
 Ohio floods work (L. E. Stein), 139.
 Omaha tornado relief work (Edith Grant), 122.
 Pittsburgh Coal Co., in mine accident (J. B. Deacon), 119.
 Rehabilitation work in Ohio floods (C. M. Hubbard), 142.
 Relief ship for Europe fitted out, 605.
 Salem relief work, 387.
 Volturno disaster work (W. F. Persons), 120.
 War and, 110.
 "When disaster comes"—work in time of peace, 113.
 Red-light abatement act (California), 430.
 Reeder, Nelle. Educating tenement dwellers (Brooklyn, N. Y.), 55.
 Reformatories. Self-government to be tried at New Jersey Reformatory, 512.
 Relief measures. Emergency relief drills proposed (R. L. Himes), 125.
 Religion. *See* church.
 Religious Citizenship League, 96.
- Retail clerks.
 Lord & Taylor establish laboratory school under direction Department Store Education Assn., 558.
 New York stores grant full Saturday holidays, 249.
 Posting working time (Elizabeth Dutcher: letter), 492.
 Retail stores. *See* Department stores.
 Reynolds, J. B., 233.
 Reynolds, W. S., 235.
 Rhode Island. Prison labor contracts, 47.
 Richards, Dr. C. R., 304.
 Richmond, Va. Report of Society for Improvement of Housing and Living Conditions in (John Ihlder), 54.
 Riis, Jacob.
 Appreciation by Jane E. Robbins, 285.
 Chicago to have a school named after him, 404.
 Easter sunrise service on Mt. Rubidoux, Cal., suggested by (picture), 391.
 Letters and personal experiences to be compiled, 379.
 Movement to name park for, 249.
 Riley, J. F., 320.
 Riverside, Cal.
 City beautifying, 323.
 Fourth of July celebration for new citizens, 521.
 Robbins, Jane E. Jacob Riis—an appreciation, 285.
 Robertson, Ina L. Sketch with portrait, 60.
 Robins, Mrs. Raymond, 297.
 Robinson, C. M., 453.
 Regulating heights of buildings, 389.
 Rochester, Anna.
 Consumer and federal child labor law, 412.
 Report on the Tenth National Conference on Child Labor, 49.
 Rochester, N. Y. Training for citizenship for aliens, 324.
 Rockefeller, J. D., Jr.
 Colorado strike and (editorial), 159.
 Colorado strike situation (J. A. Fitch), 205.
 Restitution (W. J. B.: letter), 441.
 Roman, Dr. C. V., 234.
 Rome, N. Y. Safety first campaign (W. A. Searle), 391.
 Roney, J. A. Dr. Williams' article on temperance teaching (letter), 226.
 Root, Mrs. G. M., 220.
 Rose, A. P. Capital punishment (letter), 353.
 Rose Makers (poem by Miriam Teichner), 601.
 Rosenfeld, Morris. Collection of poems tr. by Rose Pastor Stokes and Helen Frank, 266.
 Rosenwald, Julius. Gives Country Club for Chicago Social Workers, 395.
 Ross, E. A. Training citizens with "spunk" for social service, 547.
 Ross, J. D., 521.
 Routzahn, E. G., 454.
 Royce, R. M., 610.
 Rucker, W. C., 587.
 Relation of Church to industrial disease, 504.
 Rumbold, Charlotte.
 Portrait, 52.
 St. Louis Pageant and Masque, 372.
 Rural Credits. Joint meeting National Conference on Marketing and Farms Credits and Western Economic Society, 307.
 Rural education. National Education Association discusses, 546.
 Rural sociology.
 Community preachers, work (Fred Eastman), 219.
 Country school opportunities (J. B. Colt: letter), 330.
 County, The (Graham Taylor), 240.
 Rural theatricals.
 North Dakota State Agricultural College establishes theater, 408.
 Russell Sage Foundation. Information on recreation pamphlet issued by, 176.
 Russia. Making of a Russian Revolutionist (W. D. Lane), 257.
 Ryan, J. A.
 Portrait, 234.
 Unemployed and the churches: a reply to Dr. Holmes, 342.
- S.
- Sachs, Dr. T. B., 229.
 Cook Co., Ill. hospitals for advanced cases of tuberculosis, 634.
 Sacramento, Cal.
 Armies of the unemployed in California (E. G. Talbott), 523.

- Civic club luncheons for shoppers, 69
- Safety at sea.
Brewer, W. C. (letter), 493.
Bullock, C. S. (letter), 349, 443.
Congress dilatory in passing bill, 355.
Congressional Record reprints article from *THE SURVEY*, 448.
Consumer's League and (Florence Kelley), 112.
Empress of Ireland disaster (By "Slocum"), 253.
Kelley, Florence (letter), 349.
Legislation re (editorial), 159.
Lloyd, M. S. (letter), 553.
Mattullath, Alice (letter), 403.
Modified La Follette bill passed by House of Representatives, 555.
Olander, V. A. (letter), 403.
Progress of bill, with cartoon, 316.
Walton, J. W. (letter), 349.
- Safety first.
Clock at plant of Harrison Bros & Co., 688.
- Safety first campaign. Conducted in Rome, N. Y. (W. A. Searle), 391.
- Sagamore Sociological Conference (W. D. Foster), 509.
- St. John, Vincent, 241.
- St. Louis, Mo.
Billboard regulation, 8.
Fairgrounds Pool (picture), 491.
Juvenile Court report covering five year's work, 396.
Municipal moving pictures in parks, 521.
New city charter, 405.
Pageant and Masque of (R. N. Baldwin), 52.
Pageant and Masque (Charlotte Rumbold), 372.
Pure milk ordinance, 190.
School of Social Economy, 512.
Social center established in, 419.
- St. Monica's Home for Sick Colored Women and Children, Roxbury, Mass., 68.
- St. Paul, Minn. National Education Association meeting, 544.
- Salem, Mass. Relief work at fire, 387.
- Salmon, Dr. T. W. Address at National Committee on Mental Hygiene meeting, 299.
- Saloons.
Chicago forbids "Family Entrance" signs, 170.
Outside "the poor man's club" (picture by Hine), 212.
- Samoa Islands (American). Ridding the Islands of disease, 460.
- Sanderson, J. P., Jr., 532.
- San Diego, Cal. Francis W. Parker Open Air School (W. T. Johnson), 570.
- San Francisco, Cal.
Federal Industrial Relations Commission hearings (J. A. Fitch), 609, 622.
Merchants, Manufacturers and Employers' Association, 609.
- Santa Barbara, Cal. Recreation center, 601.
- Savage, G. W. Famine relief in China, 196.
- Schaeffer, Joseph, 71.
- Schaeffer, Franz, Jr., 152.
- Schneider, Herman, 541.
- Schoenfeld, Julia. Sketch with portrait, 330.
- School buildings. New York City would use as voting places, 52.
- School lunches (Joseph Lee; letter), 103.
- Schools. *See Education*. High schools: Public schools.
- Schweinitz, Karl de. Sketch of Lt. Col. C. E. Woodruff, 924.
- Scientific management. Laboring men and efficiency engineers (J. A. Fitch), 92.
- Scientific Temperance Federation (Cora F. Stoddard), 406.
- Scott, Alexander, 208.
- Scrubwoman, Negro (picture), 2.
- Seablan, Vida D.
Review of Wells' *Social Forces in England and America*, 545.
Review of Wells' *World Set Free*, 548.
- Seamen. *See Safety at sea*.
- Searle, W. A. Safety first campaign in Rome, N. Y., 391.
- Seas, Amelia. Portrait, 87.
- Seattle, Wash.
Defeat of new charter, 537.
Griffiths (A. E.), appointed chief of police, 111.
Industrial Relations Commission hearings (J. A. Fitch), 558.
Lighting system, 521.
- Segregation. Use of word (T. D. Eliot; letter), 401.
- Seligman, E. R. A. Answers critics re his Herrick-Schaap bill article (letter), 83.
- Settlements.
Cincinnati Union Bethel (W. J. Norton), 308.
Dramatic Assn. of Greenwich House, New York City, gives Pygmalion and Galatea, 63.
Henry Weinhard Memorial (New York City), 105.
House of Social Service of the Stockyards District, Chicago, 294.
Inter-city Settlement Conference, 296.
National Federation, Memphis, 246.
Social settlement and its critics (Maryal Knox), 486.
Whittier House (J. L. Elliott), 421.
Willow Place Chapel House celebration of Fourth of July, 448.
- Sewage. *See Garbage*.
- Sex education.
Its place in the school (Lucy S. Mitchell), 327.
Poppler, I. E. (letter), 643.
Y. W. C. A. traveling lecturer on sex hygiene (W. G. T. Fernandez), 76.
See also "Some Information for Mother."
- Sex hygiene.
National Education Association discusses teaching of, 545.
Ogden, L. R. (letter), 603.
Swing of the pendulum on (W. F. Snow), 6.
- Seymour, Francis A. Recidivist convicts (letter), 553.
- Seymour, Gertrude.
Review of Bateson's *Problems of Genetics*, 347.
Review of Churchill's *The Inside of the Cup*, 505.
- Shafroth-Callaway Bill. Southwestern Tuberculosis Conference sponsor for, 67.
- Shanghai, China. Charity organization society (F. H. McLean), 180.
- Shannon, W. L. Sketch with portrait, 422.
- Shaw, E. T. Public institutions for the poor in Peking, 616.
- Shedd, J. G., 485.
- Sheffield, Ada E. Sidney Webb's "Extension Ladder" (letter), 227.
- Shepard, Amos. Justice and mercy (letter), 187.
- Sherborn, Mass. Prison inmates give *Pirates of Penance* (Mary C. Crawford), 393.
- Sherman, J. H., 520.
- Shields, R. T., 525.
- Shientag, B. L. Mr. H. F. J. Porter's criticism of Factory Investigating Commission's work (letter), 312.
- Shipwrecks. Liability of vessel owners for losses at sea (T. I. Parkinson), 361.
- Shurtleff, Flavel. Report of National Conference on City Planning, Toronto, 390.
- Siam. Medical work in, 525.
- Sicher, D. E. & Co. Factory school conducted by, 295.
- Simkhovitch, Mary K. "Some Information for Mother" (letter), 65.
- Simpson, N. F. Inaugurates reforms in Jackson, Mich., State prison, 250.
- Simpson-Goldberg Bill, 53.
- Sing Sing, N. Y.
Comments of Sir A. C. Doyle on, 297.
New York Prison Assn. report on, 406.
New York State Commission on Prison Reform recommendations re, 212.
Within prison walls (T. M. Osborne), 528.
- Single tax.
Economists who are single taxers (F. C. Leubuscher; letter), 402.
Houston, Tex., 55.
Land problem in Texas (J. C. Granbery), 394.
- Sleszynski, Thaddeus. Polish social workers (letter), 603.
- "Slocum." Land-locked disaster, 253.
- "Slums." Use of the word (C. S. Woods; letter), 401.
- Sly, L. H., 632.
- Smith, Dr. Carrie W., 248.
- Smith, Esther M. "The house of bondage" (poem), 631.
- Smith, J. L. Portrait, 53.
- Smith, Mary G. "Who is responsible?" (Finger prints), 440.
- Smith, R. D. Canada's new policy of deporting the unemployed, 498.
- Snow, Mary S.
Review of *Vocations for the Trained Woman*, 551.
Review of Morley's *Women Workers in Seven Professions*, 551.

- Snow, W. F. Swing of the pendulum on sex hygiene, 6.
 Social centers.
 Leadership conference, 325.
 Paid secretaries for, 490.
 St. Louis, 419.
 Social evil. *See* Prostitution.
 Social hygiene.
 National Conference of Charities and Correction section, 239.
 Pacific Coast Conference, 554.
 Wood, C. S. (letter), 554.
 Social Hygiene Society.
 Oregon organization to keep children off the street, 586.
 Social insurance. *See* Insurance, Social.
 Social legislation.
 Missouri plans, 516.
 New York State, 88.
 War and the retarding of (J. H. Holmes), 629.
 Social poetry, writing of (C. W. Stork), 283.
 Social service. Canadian congress (Hugh Dobson), 95.
 Social surveys.
 Jerusalem, 315.
 Morristown, N. J. (Misunderstanding regarding), 4.
 National Civic Federation social progress survey, 59.
 Topeka (S. M. Harrison), 451.
 Windsor, Vt., county survey, 64.
 Social Welfare.
 Chicago and Cook Co., Ill., establish departments, 87.
 Delaware Conference, 247.
 Kansas City employees contribute part of their salaries to, 626.
 Medical social service (Daniel Morton), 508.
 Religious Citizenship League, 96.
 Sacramento, Cal., Civic Club has luncheons for shoppers, 69.
 St. Louis' new charter, 405.
 State institutions, Our dormant (R. W. Kelso), 541.
 Social work.
 Cincinnati Social Service Directory, 644.
 Community preacher's work (Fred Eastman), 219.
 Conference, Sixth International (London, 1915), 188, 644.
 Explained to Philadelphia teachers, 419.
 Memorial library center of, in a small town, 192.
 Presbyterian General Assembly and (H. S. Brown), 343.
 Small town problem of leader (editorial), 203.
 Spring and the rural social worker (Fred Eastman), 184.
 Supervisor of social education (Etta V. Leighton: letter), 443.
 Training citizens with "spunk" for (E. A. Ross), 547.
 Social workers.
 Alcohol and (R. D. Hunt: letter), 103.
 Alcohol and (Eva G. Price: letter), 65.
 Boston school for, 511.
 Chicago Country Club for, 395.
 Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy commencement, 396.
 National Brotherhood Council of England campaign (W. G. Wilkins: letter), 492.
 New York School of Philanthropy offers a social service medical course, 619.
 Philadelphia Bureau of Health co-operates with (Ella D. Harris), 78.
 Polish (Thaddeus Slesyznski: letter), 603.
 St. Louis School of Social Economy, 512.
 Spring in a city neighborhood (R. A. Woods), 185.
 "Thanks before meat" (a grace), 218.
 University of Pennsylvania offers course for, 615.
 University of Toronto course for, 444.
 Social workers and alcohol.
 Tilton, Elizabeth (letter), 310.
 Socialism.
 European war and (Graham Taylor), 561.
 Hearings before the Industrial Relations Commission (J. A. Fitch), 231.
 Sociological Conferences.
 Boulder, Col., 543.
 Sagamore, 509.
 See also Southern Sociological Conference.
 Solemnizer F. D. 235.
 "Some Information for Mother."
 Bene, Henry (letter), 104.
 Butler, A. W. (letter), 65.
 Campbell, C. F. F. (letter), 65.
 Finch, H. M. (letter), 65.
 Hager, W. H. (letter), 65.
 Keyes, E. L. (letter), 65.
 Lissner, Meyer (letter), 65.
 Lutes, Della T. (letter), 65.
 Peters, J. P. (letter), 65.
 Published in pamphlet form, 621.
 Putnam, Mrs. W. L. (letter), 104.
 Simkhovitch, Mary K. (letter), 65.
 South, University Commission on Southern Race Questions, 190.
 Southern Sociological Conference, Memphis, 234.
 Southern Sociological Congress (C. A. Waterfield), 244.
 Spain. Housing of wage-earners (Katharine Coman), 431.
 Spencer, Anna G., 434.
 Spencer, Arthur, 399.
 Spingarn, J. E., 234.
 Misquoted (May C. Nerney: letter), 403.
 Spingarn medal, 295.
 Standard Buildings, Inc. Erects workmen's houses, 175.
 Starr, Ellen G. Strike of Chicago restaurant workers, 214.
 Stebbins, E. V. Prof. Seligmann's arguments against the Herrick-Schaap bill (letter), 83.
 Steel Industry.
 Committee of U. S. Steel Corporation recommendations as to hours of labor (editorial), 222.
 Eight-hour day in British (John Hodge), 216.
 Stein, L. E. Red Cross work in Ohio floods, 139.
 Stenographers. Colorado eight-hour day for, 485.
 Sternheim, Emanuel.
 Review of Higgins' *War and the Private Citizen*, 549.
 Review of Wilcox's *Municipal Franchises*, 202.
 Stevens, T. W. Portrait, 53.
 Stevenson, Harriet J., 220.
 Stimson, Mrs. S. C., 471.
 Stockholm, Sweden. World's Conference Y. W. C. A. (Mrs. H. M. Bremer), 510.
 Stoddard, Cora F. Fighting alcohol with educational exhibits, 306.
 Stokes, Rose Pastor. Translations of poems by Morris Rosenfeld, 266.
 Stork, C. W. Writing of social poetry, 283.
 Straus, Dorothy. Mentality and prison reform (letter), 443.
 Street cleaning.
 New York City's new plan, 536.
 Street lighting (picture), 325.
 Strikes.
 Aftermath of the Ipswich (E. F. Allen), 216.
 Australia settling labor disputes in (Mary Chamberlain), 455.
 Birmingham, Eng., iron workers' strike settled, 59.
 Butte, Mont. (J. A. Fitch), 538.
 Chicago restaurant workers (Ellen G. Starr), 214.
 Closed shop and labor boycott (H. W. Laidler), 304.
 Colorado mine, 108, 205, 211.
 Episcopal view of Calumet Copper strike (J. E. Crosby), 503.
 Fulton Bag and Cotton Mills, Atlanta, Ga., 476.
 Hearing before the Industrial Relations Commission (J. A. Fitch), 71.
 Indianapolis steel car decision, 586.
 Knab's restaurants, Chicago, 537.
 Paterson silk mill (J. A. Fitch), 339.
 Publicity for (H. M. Donnelly: letter), 643.
 Westinghouse (G. V. S. Michaelis), 463.
 See also Colorado.
 Strong, Anna L. Dublin Civic Exhibition, 599.
 Student Conference. North American Student Movement Conference, Garden City, L. I., 180.
 Submission (poem by Miriam Teichner), 601.
 Sukloff, Marie.
 Interview with (W. D. Lane), 257.
 Portrait, 257.
 Sunday Schools. International Convention, Chicago, 433.
 Suburban Planning Association, Phil., Pa., 55.
 Surgery. War surgery of yesterday (Alice Hamilton), 564.
 SURVEY, THE.
 August Magazine Number (I. D. Holmes' letter), 553.
 The future of (Harold Everhart: letter), 620.
 In Ireland (M. W. F.: letter), 401.
 Said of, 228, 444.
 Said of (Henry Hill: letter), 494.
 Said of (Vida F. Moore: letter), 604.
 Said of (J. H. Odgers: letter), 332.

- Said of (Elias Powell: letter), 514.
 Said of (W. L. Ransom: letter), 314.
 Seven-day week (A. C. B.: letter), 492.
 Swan, F. V. V. Industrial welfare work in Flint, Mich., 411.
 Sweden. Law for the protection of workingmen (Olga S. Halsey), 59.
 Swing, R. E., 625.
 Syracuse, N. Y. Early closing hours (Emily L. Eaton: letter), 492.
- T.
- "Take-It-Back Day," 604.
 Talbott, E. G. Armies of the unemployed in California, 523.
 Tannenbaum, Frank. What his church raid accomplished (J. H. Holmes), 94.
 Tate, W. K., 235.
 Taxation.
 Herrick-Schaap bill: answer to critics of article on (E. R. A. Seligman: letter), 83.
 Land tax in New York City (Selmar Hess: letter), 81.
 Prof. Seligman's arguments against the Herrick-Schaap bill (Grace I. Colborn: letter), 81.
 Professor Seligman's arguments against the Herrick-Schaap Bill (Mabel C. Kite: letter), 81.
 Prof. Seligman's arguments against the Herrick-Schaap bill (B. C. Marsh: letter), 81.
 Prof. Seligman's arguments against the Herrick-Schaap bill (F. C. Leubuscher: letter), 83.
 Prof. Seligman's arguments against the Herrick-Schaap bill (E. V. Stebbins: letter), 83.
 Taxes, Wiscon., 110.
 Taylor, Dudley, 484.
 Taylor, F. W., 93.
 Taylor, Graham.
 Chicago's four City Commissions work, 489.
 Church and Community, 94, 218, 342, 433, 503.
 Eclipse of religion under shadow of war, 640.
 Investigation of charges against Oak Forest (Cook Co., Ill.) Infirmary, 388.
 Labor's internationalism tested by the war of nations, 561.
 Portrait, 240.
 Presidential address National Conference Charities and Correction, 240.
 Review of Begbie's *Crisis of Morals*, 436.
 Review of Coffin's *Socialized Conscience*, 436.
 Review of Foster's *Social Emergency*, 437.
 Review of Kale's *Unpopular Government in the United States*, 550.
 Social measures prompted by the war, 587.
 Twelfth biennial session of General Federation of Women's Clubs, 358.
 Women's voting significantly tested in Illinois, 69.
 Taylor, Dr. H. L. Quoted from *Modern Hospital*, 598.
 Teachers.
 Cleveland to affiliate with American Federation of Labor, 477.
 Social work explained to Philadelphia, 419.
 Teachers' wages.
 National Education Association report on, 546.
 Teaching. High cost of (Josephine M. Burnham: letter), 103.
 Techa, Emri. Master Craftsman, 211.
 Teichner, Miriam.
 Making it right (poem), 601.
 Rose makers (poem), 601.
 Submission (poem), 601.
 Temperance instruction in public schools (E. H. Williams), 74.
 Temperance teaching.
 Claxton, P. P. (letter), 309.
 Davis, Edith S. (letter), 309.
 Editorial Comment, 310.
 Fox, H. F. (letter), 310.
 Manierre, C. E. (letter), 226.
 Pittman, Jape C. (letter), 227.
 Roney, J. A. (letter), 226.
 Urmy, B. (letter), 309.
 Wasson, E. A. (letter), 226.
 Williams, E. H. (letter), 226.
 Worthen, Louise W. (letter), 227.
 See also Alcohol
 Tenements. See Housing
 Teodoro, Kichelt. Florence C., 438.
- Texas. Land problem in (J. C. Granbery), 394.
 Theatricals. North Dakota State Agricultural College establishes country theatre, 408.
 Theological Schools. Will affiliate with Universities, 434.
 Thomas, Mrs. Hannah, 252.
 Thompson, J. P., 559.
 Thompson, W. O., 225.
 Thompson-McFaddon Commission, 415.
 Thurston, H. W.
 Junior Republic idea, 203.
 Review of Hinckley's *Roughing it with Boys*, 201.
 Review of Labaree's *Child in the Midst*, 641.
 Review of Lovejoy's *Self-training for Motherhood*, 641.
 Review of McKeever's *Industrial Training of the Boy*, 548.
 Review of McKeever's *Training the Girl*, 549.
 Review of Taylor's *Character Development*, 641.
 Tilley, D. F., 238.
 Tilton, Mrs. Elizabeth.
 Peace propaganda suggestions, 585.
 Prize alcohol poster (letter), 351.
 Review of Williams' *Question of Alcohol*, 638.
 Rising anti-alcohol movement, 488.
 Social workers and alcohol (letter), 310.
 To the Red Cross relief ship (poem by Anne P. L. Field), 605.
 Toledo, O. Parole for first offenders, 105.
 Tonsils. New York Academy of Medicine resolution re operations on, 79.
 Topeka, Kans.
 How the streets are cleaned (cartoon), 489.
 Survey (S. M. Harrison), 451.
 Tornadoes. Omaha relief work (Edith Grant), 122.
 Toronto, Can.
 Department of Health organizes Child Hygiene department, 636.
 National Conference on City Planning (Flavel Shurtleff), 390.
 Town planning. See City planning.
 Trade unionism.
 Clayton bill and (Edwin Witte), 360.
 Closed shops and labor boycott (H. W. Laidler), 304.
 Hearing before the Industrial Relations Commission (J. A. Fitch), 231, 397.
 Training child nurses (C. E. Faulkner: letter), 620.
 Transvaal.
 Labor in (William Cullen: letter), 310.
 Labor in (W. S. Rainsford: letter), 311.
 Trask, Dr. J. W. Morbidity statistics, 239.
 Triangle Waist Co. Similarity of label to that of National Consumers' League, 478.
 Trieber, Judge Jacob. Day work preferred to piece work, 322.
 Tuberculosis.
 Bovine, 635.
 Chart showing result of fight against, in Massachusetts, 79, 183.
 Colorado seekers after health (Elizabeth Dobell), 479.
 Conservation of Negro health, 598.
 Consumptives who go West (R. J. Newton), 620.
 Delaware State Sanatorium for Negroes, 636.
 Hospitals for advanced cases in Cook Co., Ill. (T. B. Sachs), 634.
 In India, 404.
 National Association for the Study and Prevention, 229, 598.
 New Jersey State Board of Health exhibit, 5.
 Newton Memorial Hospital, 508.
 Southwestern Tuberculosis Conference favors Shafroth-Callaway Bill, 67.
 State supervision of sanatoriums, 598.
 States which have no legislation on, 533.
 Value of tuberculin in treatment of (J. A. Miller), 507.
 Wilson Tubercular Home for Negroes, 479.
 Turner, Channing. Factory hands (letter), 208.
 Two Children (poem by Eunice James), 37.
 Tyson, James, 633.
- U.
- Ulrich, Dr. Mabel S. Sketch and portrait, 76.
 Unemployment.
 Armies of the unemployed in California (E. B. Talbott), 523.
 Canada's policy of deporting the unemployed (R. D. Smith), 498.

Churches and (J. H. Holmes), 94.
Churches and (D. S. McCorkle: letter), 103.
Churches and (J. A. Ryan), 342.
Insurance against in France (Katherine Coman), 281.
Land tax as help for in New York City (Selmar Hess: letter), 81.
U. S. Steel Corporation. See Steel Industry.
University and public service training, 91, 210.
Up the Road (poem by C. S. Newhall), 213.
Urmy, R. B. Teaching temperance (letter), 309.

V.

Valentine, R. G. Review of Kelley's *Modern Industry*, 345.
Van Blarcom, Miss. English legislation regarding midwives, to prevent blindness, 315.
Vandervelde, Emile. Portrait, 363.
Vandiver, A. C. Venereal quacks and the present New York State law, 91.
Van Leeuwen, Nora. Describes plan of pageant of nations, 209.
Venereal quacks. Adams, S. H., addresses Society for Social and Moral Prophylaxis in New York city, 90.
Vermont. Child welfare work, 179.
Villard, O. G., 295.
Virginia.
Negro child labor in (A. J. McKelway), 496.
Report on needs of defectives, 512.
Vittum, Harriet E., 236, 329.
Vocational education.
Boston University establishes a department of, 191.
Federal aid for (W. D. Lane), 417.
National Education Association discusses, 545.
New York City's plans (W. D. Lane), 544.
Volutno disaster. Red Cross work in (W. F. Persons), 120.

W.

Wages.
Ohio women clerks, 427.
Teachers' wages discussed by National Education Association, 546.
Winnipeg, Can., women clerks, 428.
Wald, Lillian D., 303.
Walker, John, 484.
Wallace, R. S., 235.
Walton, J. W.
Safety at sea (letter), 349.
War.
Another triple alliance (cartoon), 515.
Anti-war demonstration seen in Paris (James Jenkins, Jr.), 518.
Belgian peasants (pictures), 588.
Bulletins issued to give information to Americans stranded in Munich and London, 591.
Colors, The (cartoon), 536.
Davies, Mary C. (poem), 478.
Duty of neutrals (Adelaide Earle: letter), 620.
Eclipse of religion under shadow of (Graham Taylor), 630.
1814-1914 (cartoons), 497, 518.
First aid to stranded Americans in Europe (R. W. de Forest), 589.
Germany's relief measures, 625.
Girls they leave behind them (pictures by Hine), 517.
High cost of living and (diagram), 537.
Immigration effected by, 495.
Labor's attitude in European war (Graham Taylor), 561.
Mobilizing the Red Cross forces (R. W. Pullman), 566.
New York women hold mass meeting to protest against Mexican, 107.
Non-combatants (cartoon), 626.
Peace propaganda, 585.
Red Cross and, 110.
Red Cross prepares for work, 515.
Red Cross relief ship fitted out, 605.
Red Cross work in, 535.
Relief work in America, 535.
Report of the Balkan Commission of Inquiry, 249.
Social legislation and (J. H. Holmes), 629.
Social measures prompted by (Graham Taylor), 587.
True pioneers of peace (Nina Bull: letter), 643.
War surgery of yesterday (Alice Hamilton), 561.
Wilkins, W. G. (letter), 644.

With Mexico (editorial), 157.
Work of the American Committee of London for stranded travellers (S. S. Menken), 590.
War! War! War! Howe, Samuel (letter), 553.
Warbasse, Bertha B. Minimum wage legislation, 57.
Ward, H. F., 236.
Warner, J. O. Industrial training school established by missionaries in Hawaii, 197.
Washington (State) Minimum wage for women, 173.
Washington, Booker T., 234, 236.
Washington, D. C.
Abolishing the alleys bill, 515.
Alley bill (editorial), 184.
Alleys of (editorial), 204.
Bill for the wider use of the school plant, 337.
George Washington Memorial Association plans national civic hall, 324.
Industrial Relations Commission hearing (J. A. Fitch), 71, 92.
Municipal fish markets, 520.
National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis meeting, 229.
Wasson, E. A. Temperance teaching (letter), 226.
Waterfield, C. A. Southern Sociological Congress, 244.
Watson, Elizabeth, 304.
Weatherford, Okla. Municipal ice plant, 392.
Webb, Sidney.
Letter on his "Extension Ladder" (W. T. Cross), 228.
Letter on his "Extension Ladder" idea (C. R. Henderson), 227.
Letter on his "Extension Ladder" (Ada E. Sheffield), 227.
Weed, C. A. & Co. Early closing hours, 385.
Welch, Dr. W. H. Address at National Committee on Mental Hygiene meeting, 300.
Welfare work.
Flint, Mich., industrial (F. V. V. Swan), 411.
North American Student Movement Conference, Garden City, L. I., 180.
Wells, Alice S. Policewomen in United States (letter), 207, 441.
Wentworth, Jeanie W. Municipal ice plants, investigation of, 391.
West, J. E., 627.
West Virginia.
Gov. Hatfield issues proclamation for Rural Church Sunday, 435.
Mine explosion, Eccles, reveals child labor conditions (E. N. Clopper), 194.
Western Federation of Miners, 538.
Westinghouse strike (G. V. S. Michaelis), 463.
Weyl, W. E. Three years' truce for the Colorado coal strike, 608.
What do American people want for their children (Anna Rochester), 49.
Wheatland riots. Federal Industrial Relations Commission hearing (J. A. Fitch), 610.
When disaster comes. Red Cross work in time of peace (series of articles), 113.
White, Dr. W. C., 229.
White bill, 322.
White Foundation, 621.
Whitehead, Helen. Sketch, 102.
"Whitey Lewis." Sketch, with portrait, 14.
Whitney, Jessamine S., 422.
"Who is Responsible?" (Mary G. Smith), 440.
Widow, The, photograph of the painting of Hermann Groeber, 625.
Widows' needs (Edw. T. Devine), 23.
Widows' pensions.
Cincinnati adopts, 89.
Mothers who must earn (Katherine Anthony), 17.
New York State Commission on Relief for Widowed Mothers, 1.
Park, Clara C. (letter), 331.
Pittsburgh charity relief work, 405.
Report on dependent widows with dependent children in the city of New York, 1.
Widows' families (W. H. Matthews), 270.
Widows' needs (Edw. T. Devine), 23.
Wilbur, Dr. C. L., 248.
Wilkins, W. G.
National Brotherhood Council of England campaign (letter), 492.
War (letters), 644.
Wilkinson, Mrs. Perle, 393.

- Willard, C. D. Sketch (Meyer Lissner), 102.
 Wilcox, Mrs. Anna H., 304.
 Williams, Clark, 336.
 Williams, Dr. E. G., 239.
 Williams, E. H.
 Teaching temperance (letter), 226.
 Temperance instruction in public schools, 74.
 Williams, J. E., 71.
 Williams, Dr. L. R., 248.
 Willow Place Chapel House. Fourth of July celebration, 448.
 Wilson, A. M. Sketch of R. D. Dripps, with portrait, 224.
 Wilson, A. P., 626.
 Power of co-operation (letter), 207.
 Wilson, Woodrow. Colorado peace plan, 608, 625.
 Wilson, Mrs. Woodrow. Interest in Washington alleys: death, 515.
 Windsor, Vt. County survey conducted by Windsor Co. Y. M. C. A., 64.
 Winnipeg, Can. Women clerks' wages, 428.
 Winslow, Dr. C. E. A., 225.
 Effects of pure food law, 212.
 Winslow, Irving.
 Co-operating (letter), 613.
 Colorado situation (letter), 332.
 Winters, S. R. University of North Carolina Y. M. C. A. work with Negroes, 542.
 Wirt, William, 544.
 Portrait, 545.
 Wisconsin.
 Eugenics law, 6.
 Eugenics law (Charles Zeublin: letter), 330.
 Extension course in laundry work at University of, 297.
 Free employment bureaus in public schools, 587.
 "Life fund" insurance by the State (Reuben McKittick), 72.
 State Board of Public Affairs will make survey of the University, 418.
 Taxes and public service in, 110.
 University conference on social centers leadership, 325.
 University establishes bureau of visual instruction, 418.
 University offers course in training for public service (E. A. Fitzpatrick), 614.
 University offers mechanics course in teaching, 328.
 Wise, Stephen S. Small government appropriations for social work, 286.
 Witte, Edwin. Clayton bill and organized labor, 360.
 Wolner, W. S., 662.
 Wolsey, Louis. Sane Fourth in Detroit (letter), 513.
 Woman suffrage.
 Federation of Women's Clubs action on (Alice Chittenden: letter), 493.
 General Federation of Women's Clubs resolutions, 359.
 Illinois (Mrs. Benjamin Nisoll: letter), 442.
 Illinois women voters (Grace Nicoll: letter), 187.
 Women's voting significantly tested in Illinois (Graham Taylor), 69, 168 (correction).
 Woman's Trade Union League (New York city), 111.
 Women.
 Bookbinding for, in Philadelphia, 400.
 Business Women's Club, Mobile, Ala., 396.
 Chicago forbids "Family Entrance" signs over saloons, 170.
 Chicago police women, 110.
 Chicago Woman's City Club, 329.
 Church Federations and, 220.
 Constitutional convention representation, 514.
 Eligible for positions in New York State Bureau of Employment, 407.
 Eye (Mary T. Blauvelt: letter), 444.
 Factory workers in Europe (G. M. Price), 413.
 Feeble-minded of child-bearing age, 251.
 Housewives' League (Providence, R. I.) fight for pure milk, 1.
 Knab's restaurants strike, 538.
 Mass meeting in New York city to protest against Mexican war, 107.
 Massachusetts legislature kills 48-hour week bill, 322.
 Minimum wage law in Washington State, 173.
 National League of Women Workers (Beulah E. Kennard), 410.
 New health, The: address by Edw. T. Devine at General Federation of Women's Clubs, 376.
 New York nightwork law upheld (Josephine Goldmark), 450.
 New York state law re night work, 169.
 Ohio wages for clerks, 427.
 Peace parade, New York city, 555.
 Philadelphia Bureau of Occupations for Trained Women, 404.
 Police women (Alice S. Wells: letter), 441.
 Status of woman discussed at National Education Association, 545.
 Training school for organizers, 322.
 Twelfth biennial session of General Federation of Women's Clubs (Graham Taylor), 358.
 Unemployment Conference, New York City, 404.
 Wages (A. T. Lyman: letter), 553.
 Wages of clerks in Winnipeg, Can., 428.
 Women's Municipal League, Boston, 514.
 Wood, A. E., 593.
 Wood, C. E. S., 594.
 Social hygiene (letter), 554.
 Use of the word "Slums" (letter), 401.
 Wood, J. P., 397.
 Wood alcohol. Bill regarding its sale not passed by New York Senate, 78.
 Woodruff, Lt.-Col. C. E.
 Sketch and portrait (Karl de Schweinitz), 224.
 Woods, Major J. B., 237.
 Woods, Mary J. John, financier (Finger prints), 531.
 Woods, R. A., 296.
 How we know it's spring in a city neighborhood, 185.
 Review of Picht's *Toynbee Hall and the English Settlement Movement*, 640.
 Woodworth, A. V. Review of Mac Gill's *Children of the Dead End*, 642.
 Wooley, Mary E., 545.
 Woodward, D. Lucile F. "A Sickness" (Finger prints), 101.
 Worcester, Mass. Children's Friend Society report (picture), 191.
 Working girls. Homes for young women: the Eleanor Clubs of Chicago (Annie M. Maclean), 60.
 Workingmen. How Spain's wage-earners are housed (Katharine Coman), 431.
 Worthen, Louise W. Teaching temperance (letter), 227.
 Wright, Howell. Cleveland City Hospital reorganized, 596.
- Y
- Yale Medical School, 636.
 Young, G. B. Chicago garbage (letter), 187.
 Y. M. C. A. University of North Carolina work with Negroes (S. R. Winters), 542.
 Y. W. C. A.
 Immigration and World's Conference (Mrs. H. M. Bremer), 510.
 Traveling lecturer on sex hygiene (W. G. T. Fernandez), 76.
 Youngstown Sheet and Tube Co. Trachoma among employes of, 111.
- Z
- Zeublin, Charles. Wisconsin eugenic law (letter), 330.

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April 4, 1914
Price 25 Cents



Volume XXXII
Number 1

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Katharine Anthony

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ADMISSION to the one-year or two-year classes of the New York School of Philanthropy for 1914-15 will be by examination only.

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1. What is your idea of the meaning of "social work" and the business of the social worker?
2. State briefly what you understand by the following terms: Heredity, Juvenile Court, Capital (in the economic sense), Charity, Economic Interpretation of History, Defectives, Unearned Increment, Standard of Living, Probation, Death Rate, Environment, Instinct.
3. What kinds of facts (or statistics) are needed as a basis for social work?
4. Give a brief account of the industrial revolution, outlining social and economic problems to which it gave rise.
5. Describe some of the social problems that would arise through the location of a steel plant employing ten thousand men (about 50% of them unskilled labor) in the open country near a village.
6. What are the most important functions of the family as a social institution? What economic and social conditions are in danger of interfering with the continued performance of these functions?
7. What reforms in local government would further social welfare and why?
8. What social and economic conditions coming under your observation have impressed you with the need for social work, and what kind of social work do they seem to demand?
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116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 1

Contents

April 4, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

SKIMMING POLITICS FROM MILK IN PROVIDENCE	1
NEEDY WIDOWS IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK	1
GOOD HOUSING STANDARDS SET IN GRAND RAPIDS	4
SELF-GOVERNING WELFARE LEAGUE OF PRISONERS	4
SMASHING OF THE MORRISTOWN SURVEY EXHIBIT	4
OLD AGE PENSIONS BROACHED IN CANADA	5
THE SWING OF THE PENDULUM ON SEX HYGIENE, William F. Snow, M. D.	6

CONTRIBUTED ARTICLES

BEAUTY FOR BLIND EYES	E. H. Clement	7
THE FOUR GUNMEN	Winthrop D. Lane	13
MOTHERS WHO MUST EARN	Katharine Anthony	17
WIDOWS' NEEDS	Edward T. Devine	23
"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"—VI. THE POOR AND THEIR POVERTY	Albion Fellows Bacon	30

EDITORIALS

CHILD LABOR AND INTERSTATE COMMERCE	William Draper Lewis	35
TWO CHILDREN, a Poem	Eunice James	37

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The GIST of IT—

THE United States Supreme Court has upheld the constitutionality of the Massachusetts law of 1909 limiting the working hours of women and minors to 56 a week. In the meantime, the state has passed a 54-hour law. The constitutionality of the latter has not been attacked, so that the court's decision is less a practical matter than a re-enforcement of earlier decisions.

FRANK TANNENBAUM, leader of the unemployed in New York, has been found guilty of unlawful assemblage and sentenced to a year's imprisonment and a fine of \$500.

IT takes all sorts and conditions of men and women to make up "the poor," Mrs. Bacon found. Those who go down to live in the slums are smeared with the smut of them, and their children have not both slum environment and slum heredity. Page 30.

APPLICATION for a respite in the cases of the four gunmen convicted of killing Herman Rosenthal was made on Monday and Governor Glynn, while not announcing his decision immediately was declared to favor a reprieve until after the trial of Becker. Page 13.

AT the new Perkins Institution for the Blind there's not only sound teaching and good cheer, books in Braille and grand opera in raised notes, but a building plan that combines utility and beauty. Perkins' Gothic tower, some way, has struck into the lives of those who cannot see it, and squared their shoulders. Page 7.

WIDOWS to the fore again.

THE New York Legislature did not pass the pension or "allowance" bill. A preliminary report by the state commission holds that private charities have failed the widow. The private charities have come forward with a thorough diagnosis of their own condition based on a study of the work of six societies with 1,556 widows and their children, and a constructive program which puts public pensions last. Page 1.

DR. DEVINE'S report, on which their diagnosis is based, might be summarized thus: Most widows known to private charity are unskilled and must, if they work, take hard jobs at low wages, which was the lot of their husbands before them; few children are separated from competent mothers because of poverty alone, and those few could be kept together by closer cooperation between private societies and public officials; the work of the relief societies is good and is improving, but judged by actual rehabilitation of families it is far from perfect. Page 23.

THE dingy West Side, where Miss Anthony made her study, characteristically puts its mothers at work on their knees, scrubbing floors. They hold their jobs because six of them work for less than three men to operate a vacuum cleaner, and their helpless resentment of the machines classes them with the declining cabby who curses taxis. Page 17.

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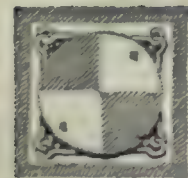
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THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



SKIMMING POLITICS FROM MILK IN PROVIDENCE

"MILK IN PROVIDENCE is all politics."

This was the helpless feeling of many Providence citizens who were dissatisfied with the quality of the milk supply. But the birth of the Providence Housewives' League simultaneously with the rise in the price of milk from nine to ten cents a quart opened a campaign that lasted fifteen weary months.

With a desire to see if the increased price was legitimate, the investigating committee of the league turned to the city milk inspector for information. Immediately interest shifted from price to quality. The committee learned that people were not only charged an excessive rate, but were receiving poor and dirty milk from at least one large firm.

The milk inspector declared he was powerless to prevent adulteration on account of political influence, although further inquiry threw doubt on his word. On the other hand it was felt that no effective appeal could be made to the milk committee. One of them is reported by the league to have said on the street: "Why couldn't those d— women have come to us. We'd have fixed it up quietly."

The Housewives' League quietly had seventy-six samples of milk analyzed and found 50 per cent often below the state standard. Furthermore, they turned over to the city evidence that a ring of milkmen were paying graft each year for protection, and that watered and manipulated milk was being sold. These facts were published in the daily papers.

Then the storm broke and the milk committee was obliged to start an investigation in order to quiet the clamorous public.

Through forty-nine hearings, members and officers of the league were in constant attendance. They took the stand, refusing to be browbeaten by the milk-inspector's attorney. In the face of insult and insinuation, through legal quibbles and delay, they persisted in their demand for "Pure Milk for Providence."

The committee appointed by the city found enough evidence to recommend the dismissal of the milk inspector and his assistant, and to advise legislation raising the standard of milk in Rhode Island. An ordinance was introduced in the Common Council. It passed the council but was killed in the Board of Aldermen by the votes of four men. Two of these were members of the milk committee and all were said to be influenced by political motives.

This was a crushing blow but the women started the fight afresh.

The city asked the state to do what it had failed to do for itself. A bill was introduced in the General Assembly placing the milk department in charge of the superintendent of the Board of Health, thus automatically removing the present inspector. The women brought all manner of pressure to bear on the Legislature to secure the passage of the bill and declared their intention of showing, in case the bill didn't pass, why it had failed to do so. After a strenuous fight the bill was passed in February.

The victory for pure milk was the first battle of the Housewives' League. It has impressed merchants and manufacturers that there are formidable antagonists of dirty and adulterated food in Providence. The women have assisted in cleaning up city bakeries and in securing the correct labeling of eggs.



From the Providence Journal

NEEDY WIDOWS IN THE STATE OF NEW YORK

TWO REPORTS on needy widows in New York are fresh from the press.

One is a preliminary statement by the New York State Commission on Relief for Widowed Mothers, an official body appointed under authority of the last Legislature, of which former Assemblyman Aaron J. Levy is chairman. This was issued in support of the widows' allowance bill introduced in the Legislature by the commission, an outline of which was given in *THE SURVEY* last week. The bill did not pass.

The full report of the state commission, it is expected, will be issued in the course of a few weeks as a public document. A fuller analysis of it must await publication.

The other is the Report of an Investigation of Matters Relating to the Care, Treatment and Relief of Dependent Widows With Dependent Children in the city of New York, made by a voluntary committee.

The major part of the voluntary report, written by Edward T. Devine, is given on pages 23-29 of this issue of *THE SURVEY*, with a statement of the scope and purposes of the committee.

The voluntary report is rendered by an executive committee of ten members appointed by the chairman, Frank Tucker, from a committee of twenty-two including representatives of the large relief societies of Greater New York. It was an outgrowth of the discussion of governmental aid to dependent families at the 1911 meeting of the New York City Conference of Charities and Correction. Its appointment antedates that of the state commission and its investigation was contemporaneous with that of the latter.

The committee makes the following "findings and recommendations," based on Dr. Devine's report:

"1. The committee approves the suggestion that the fundamentally important aims in dealing with dependent widowhood and orphanage should be: (1) the prevention of such conditions by prolonging the lives and increasing the

Photo by Abastenia St. Leger Eberle.



A NEGRO SCRUBWOMAN

The New York State Commission on Relief for Widowed Mothers found "that most such mothers, doing wage-earning work of the crudest sort, bending over laundry tubs, for instance, or crawling with wash rags in their hands over the dirty floors of office buildings in the late evening or in the early dark morning, are unable to provide their children with the proper measure of the necessities of life." The commission's way out was a state pension.

The voluntary committee found that the occupations of widowed mothers "are mainly characterized by long hours, severe physical strain, and either low wages or exceeding irregularity and uncertainty of employment." The committee's way out is to prevent widowhood by prolonging the lives and increasing the working efficiency of men, to distribute the loss due to sickness and death of working men by a system of social insurance, and to furnish effective vocational training and guidance to children reaching working age. Pending the achievement of these ends, an adequate relief system.

working efficiency of men; (2) the distribution of loss due to sickness and death of working men by a system of social insurance; and (3) effective vocational training and guidance of children reaching working age.

"2. The committee recognizes the fact that pending the achievement of these results there must remain a large place for an adequate relief system and a wise relief policy in dealing with widows and their children. The need for relief will undoubtedly be diminished, but will not disappear when these other desirable results enumerated above shall have been secured.

"3. The committee is of the opinion that children should not be removed from the personal care of their mothers

for reasons of poverty alone; and that, when needed, adequate relief should be given to enable needy widows, qualified to train and care for children, to keep their children at home and to train and care for them.

"4. The number of instances in which at the present time children are being separated from their mothers, in violation of the principle stated above, is not as large as is commonly supposed. The Charities Department committed 5,767 children during the year 1912. Of these 861 were the children of widows. Of these 861 children our investigator reports that 190, in 100 different families, should clearly have been kept at home with their mothers, aid being given. Illness on the part of mothers or their

inability to control young children was recognized by our investigators as adequate reasons for commitment. In some cases such illness or inability to control may have resulted from absence of adequate relief. It is possible, therefore, that the number of children of widows unwisely committed in 1912 may have been somewhat larger than 190, but, in any case, it could not have been much larger.

"5. That 190 children, or a number somewhat larger than this, should have been separated from their mothers for poverty alone during 1912 is to be regretted. It indicates a lack of complete co-operation and effective action between the bureaus of dependent children and the societies giving or securing relief. The bureaus and the societies should immediately take steps to prevent the recurrence of this undesirable situation. Nevertheless it is our opinion that the relief of widows and their children in this city is more nearly adequately performed by the societies now engaged in this task than is any one of the important duties assumed by the municipality or the State in the care of dependent classes such as, for instance, the provision of sanatoria and hospitals for the tuberculous, or institutions for the feeble-minded; and is also more nearly adequate than is the relief for the poor from public funds in most of those localities in which public outdoor relief still exists.

"6. The number of children committed by reason of poverty alone is small in comparison with the number of children of widows already under the care of and receiving aid from relief societies. The proportionate increase in the work of these societies involved in preventing all commitments due to poverty alone would not be impossibly large.

"7. However, both in caring for the widows and their children now under their care and for those who would be brought under their care if all undesirable commitments were prevented, it is recognized that a larger number of well trained agents and also more adequate relief funds are needed.

"8. While a reasonable amount of work outside the home may be expected of a widow whose children are not of such numbers, ages, or conditions as to require her constant presence in the home, concerted effort should be made to see that she is not overworked as to number of days; nor allowed to perform labor demoralizing to health or character; nor underpaid because she is forced to accept whatever is offered in the way of employment.

"9. We are not able to state from the investigation made by us, even approximately, what increase would be needed in the resources of relief societies to enable them to prevent undesirable commitments and to care adequately both for those now under their care and for

those who are now being unwisely committed. We believe, however, that it would be possible to make a reasonably close approximation of the sums required.

"10. It seems to us desirable that the societies concerned should promptly make an inquiry as to the additional sums needed by them to enable them to aid adequately widows and their children needing aid in this city, and should endeavor promptly to secure assurance that such income will be forthcoming as needed.

"11. As to what course should be followed if the societies should be unable to secure the sum needed, the members of this committee are divided in opinion. Some, under those circumstances, would favor the establishment of a public relief system, believing that the possible evils under such a system would be less serious than those now existing. Others would oppose the establishment of a public relief system, believing that its evils would outweigh any possible advantages."

The report is signed by the chairman, Frank Tucker, vice-president Provident Loan Society; Cornelius N. Bliss, Jr., president Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; Edward T. Devine, director New York School of Philanthropy; Lee K. Frankel, sixth vice-president Metropolitan Life Insurance Company, formerly manager United Hebrew Charities; Homer Folks, secretary State Charities Aid Association; Arthur M. Howe, editorial Staff Brooklyn Daily Eagle; Michael J. Scanlan, treasurer Superior Council of the Society of St. Vincent de Paul; Henry R. Seager, professor political economy Columbia University; Gaylord S. White, headworker Union Settlement; John A. Kingsbury, commissioner of public charities. Rabbi Stephen S. Wise did not sign.

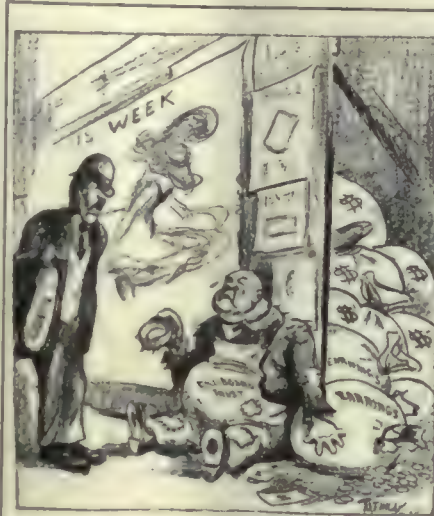
The state commission reports that it has held more than one hundred hearings within the state, has observed on the ground the workings of widows' pension laws in five other states, has sent a representative abroad to study the social insurance and relief systems of Europe, has thoroughly questioned a large number of the officials of private charitable societies and has carefully examined their records.

This has disclosed "some 6,000 widowed mothers on the books of the private charity societies" in New York city, and in institutions throughout the state "more than 2,000 children who have been taken away from widowed mothers for no other cause than that those mothers, though physically strong and morally worthy, have been unable to support them any longer either by earning money of their own or by begging money from private charity societies."

The commission bases its recommendation of a widows' pension law on the

"fact, and" says the commission, "we emphasize that fact, that the private charities themselves are too poor to be able to rescue those widowed mothers, as a class, from poverty. Private charity, in this particular matter of the widowed mother, is today a failure."

The principle which the commission urges upon the Legislature, the report declares, is to remove needy widowed mothers from the category of paupers,



PITY THE POOR BILLBOARD

An eight years' battle for the regulation of billboards in St. Louis has just been won, although the companies are still fighting in the courts. In 1905 an ordinance limited the area of billboards to 500 square feet, their height to 14 feet and length to 50 feet. An injunction prevented enforcement until October last, when the companies abandoned an appeal to the United States Supreme Court from the decision of the Supreme Court of Missouri, which had upheld the right of the city to regulate.

The companies then sought to have the 1905 ordinance changed so as to legalize existing conditions. But the newspapers and civic organizations hammered away on the other side and the city council declined to make any change in the law.

The companies then applied to the federal courts for an injunction which has been denied. From this decision they are appealing to the United States Supreme Court. Meanwhile, the city officials are free to enforce the law and the work of reconstructing the boards is beginning.

following in the steps of Denmark. The report continues:

"The phrase is 'widows' pensions.' The phrase is wrong.

"A 'pension' commonly is for services already rendered. This 'pension' to a widowed mother is for services about to be rendered.

"A 'pension' commonly continues till death. This 'pension' to a widowed mother ceases when the reason for it ceases.

"It is a salary granted to her by the state in return for which she undertakes

to perform a certain present task of child-rearing.

"If she somehow becomes prosperous, the salary stops. If she neglects her task, if she neglects her children, the salary stops. When she completes her task, when the children are sixteen years of age, the salary stops.

"She becomes an employee of the state and, when the occasion for her hiring has gone by, she is discharged. In the meantime she has performed for the state the most valuable type of service that can be performed for it by anybody.

"In our bill, therefore, we have discarded the word 'pensions' and have used the word 'allowances.'"

The "one solid objection" to widows' pensions which the commission has been able to find—that social insurance would make such pensions unnecessary—"melts and vaporizes as soon as touched." Nevertheless, the commission makes two answers to the objection:

"(1) In the countries which have gone farthest into social insurance we still see the development of special measures of aid and protection for the children of widowed mothers.

"(2) Many years, perhaps many decades, will elapse before any system of universal compulsory insurance can be erected by the Legislature of New York. It is a thing of the distant future."

The report is signed by twelve of the fifteen members of the commission. Of the five members from the Assembly, Messrs. Levy, McCue, Burr and Rozan signed; Thomas K. Smith did not. Of the three from the Senate, Messrs. Pollock, Griffin and Thomas all signed. Of the seven appointed by the governor to represent the public, five signed, John D. Lindsay, Dr. William I. Sorovitch, William Hard, Sophie Irene Loeb and Mrs. William Einstein; two, Ansley Wilcox and E. Frank Brewster, did not sign.

Mr. Brewster is a business man of Rochester. Mr. Wilcox, who is president of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society, is opposed to the bill as introduced. He states that the preliminary report was not given to him in its final form for signature, and that he first saw it as presented to the Legislature after it had been printed. He says: "There are a number of statements made in this preliminary report which I do not know to be correct, and some which I do not believe to be correct, so that I could not possibly have signed such a report in haste or without more inquiry and investigation."

It will be remembered that public outdoor relief, of which widows' pensions or allowances are now generally acknowledged to be one form, is common throughout New York state with the exception of New York city including Brooklyn. The proposed widows' pension law was for the whole state.

GOOD HOUSING STANDARDS SET IN GRAND RAPIDS

THE LATEST CITY to adopt a thorough-going housing code is Grand Rapids, Mich. It deals with all classes of dwellings—single-family, two-family and multiple, with hotels, asylums, clubs and other structures in which people live. Its provisions for proper lighting, ventilation, sanitation and protection against fire follow those in Veiller's Model Housing Law. In some cases its standards are higher, as when it requires fireproof construction for all multiple dwellings of more than two stories or occupied by more than four families. In this it has seen the advantage Chicago secured when it raised—or lowered—the New York standard to three stories. Grand Rapids at present has but few multiple dwellings. Those that it may build in the future will provide not only for light and air and sanitation, but also for the safety of their occupants, little enough to require in a multiple dwelling which at best is but a makeshift as a home.

Housing conditions in Grand Rapids at present were shown to be unusually good by a housing survey made by Udetta D. Brown last winter. There are, however, groups of old converted houses which are overcrowded with recent immigrants; occasional cheap and flimsy tenements that fill their lots, leaving no space for light and air when the adjoining lots are built upon; an increasing number of alley dwellings; and a few "apartment" houses that appeal now because of their modern conveniences but which are sure to deteriorate rapidly if their number multiplies. It is the good fortune of Grand Rapids that the eyes of the people were opened before these conditions became widespread.

The report on the housing survey led to a demand for regulations that would prevent the growth of bad building habits and set good standards for the future. The survey had been made under the auspices of the housing committee of the Social Welfare Association. This committee joined forces with the building committee of the Common Council and the mayor appointed representatives of various civic and social organizations to serve with them as a semi-official housing council which held public hearings, secured the co-operation of city officials and of such bodies as the Association of Commerce, the Real Estate Board, and neighborhood improvement associations. Finally it presented to the council a code which was adopted.

The weakest provisions of this code are those dealing with rear yards, which need be only 20 per cent of the depth and area of interior lots, and only 10 per cent of corner lots. Minimums of 25 feet and 15 feet respectively might well have been required. The required percentages are understandable in a city

where nearly all lots at present are one hundred or more feet deep, but they invite trouble in the future when land becomes more crowded and lot subdivision begins.

On the whole, the code is excellent and will safeguard the city against evils that are comparatively easy to prevent but difficult to cure.

SELF-GOVERNING WELFARE LEAGUE OF PRISONERS

"I SOLEMNLY PROMISE that I will do all in my power to promote in every way the true welfare of the men confined in Auburn Prison; that I will cheerfully obey the rules and regulations of the duly constituted prison authorities, and that I will endeavor to promote friendly feeling, good conduct and fair dealing among both officers and men to the end that each man after serving the briefest possible term of imprisonment may go forth with renewed strength and courage to face the world again. All this I promise faithfully to endeavor; so help me God."

This oath was taken a few weeks ago by forty-nine men prisoners standing with uplifted hands in the chapel of the New York State Prison at Auburn. These men had been elected in secret ballot by 1,350 of their fellow inmates to constitute the board of delegates of the new "Mutual Welfare League."

This league, the formation of which has been the work of the prisoners aided by Thomas Mott Osborne, chairman of the state commission on prison reform, is an experiment in enabling prisoners to fit themselves for a more self-controlled life outside prison by giving them greater control of their life inside.

Only as the prisoners show that they can be trusted with power will the scope of the league be extended; but it has already demonstrated its usefulness to such an extent that the warden has given to its grievance committee the administration of the minor discipline of the prison. A similar league has been organized among the 117 women in the women's prison.

At present the executive committee has charge of the formation of clubs, conduct of lectures, entertainments and other activities. A delegate is elected for six months and may be recalled.

Any prisoner signing the rules and by-laws may become a member, but membership is forfeited if his behavior is not satisfactory to the league. These rules were adopted by the men themselves in open debate. The clause in the oath which calls for obedience to the authorities was not included in the original draft, but was inserted by the prisoners. The motto, "Do good, make good," was chosen by the men. Many of the delegates are old and serious offenders, but they are men whose personalities have impressed their fellow inmates.

SMASHING OF THE MORRISTOWN SURVEY EXHIBIT

WIDELY published newspaper reports have told how a group of Italians destroyed or mutilated a score or more of the charts and photographs in an exhibit of social survey findings at Morristown, N. J. The incident has raised sharp questions as to exhibit functions and methods and goes to show that a specialized technique must be used in popular social propaganda.

The newspaper dispatches indicated that the Italians who were angry because the exhibit reflected on their manner and place of living, descended on the hall in a body and smashed things forthwith. Italian prejudice was aroused by the misquoting of an incidental remark in a public address.

Beyond and behind this incident lie the issues which, for those who are giving or planning surveys and exhibits, are of more importance.

That Morristown with its environs is a satisfying place of residence is evidenced by its remarkable number of costly homes and beautiful estates. It has also an alert organization of business men, a "boosting" newspaper, and real estate men with typical real estate enterprise and viewpoint. There are also politics in Morristown, and a paternal "boss" of the large Italian colony.

Added to these forces for arousing a suspicious and alert "public pride," is the important fact that Morristown is a small city so that nearly everybody knows everybody else and photographs need not be labeled with names and addresses to secure quick identification. Moreover, pride in having the whole family photographed is easily dissipated by a neighbor's careless or insinuating remark. Then, too, in statistics for a city of this size (12,500) small errors or unqualified figures loom large in proportion to the totals.

These, doubtless, were factors in the objections raised by prominent critics outside the Italian colony. The Board of Health, for example, challenged the statement that Morristown's death rate is 50 per cent higher than New York city's and at their next meeting showed clearly enough that Morristown's two hospitals and the use of the city by invalid visitors increased its death rate. They held that deaths of non-residents should not be charged to Morristown's account, and they demonstrated that on a truer basis of comparison the death rates of the two cities are about the same.

Again, in the school report of the survey, it was stated that 12 per cent of all the children in the public schools were on part time and that of every entering class only one pupil in three graduates from the grammar school. The Board of Education showed in rebuttal that if "part time" had been accurately defined

it would have showed that very little time was actually lost; and that the percentage of graduates was based on a comparison of the eighth grade enrollment with the first grade enrollment of the same year, which was a marked increase over the first grade enrollment eight years ago when the present grammar pupils first entered school.

Most important of all, perhaps, in the Morristown lessons was the lack of an organized body of local public opinion to back up the findings, favorable or unfavorable. The survey was made by the Presbyterian Board of Home Missions at the instance of a small group of Morristown ministers. The material was collected, the exhibit was set up and the public was invited to see it and hear it interpreted without preparation beyond a preliminary advertising campaign which centered in a slogan of "What is the Matter with Morristown?"

Naturally enough, the public did not feel that this was *their* survey. When the facts were challenged the few who were in charge had to bear the brunt of the whole thing. Related to this was a lack of general understanding of the spirit and purpose of the survey which led to misinterpretations of it by both individuals and important groups.

The following comment on the situation is made by a man who has had wide experience collecting exhibit material for social uses and in "getting over" that material to whole communities:

"The Morristown incident does not mean that there should be any hesitancy about revealing local conditions. The very keynote of the social survey is publicity, but the publicity should be educational and constructive, which means that it shall be so handled that the least amount of irritation will be aroused and the greatest amount of responsiveness will be cultivated. The exhibit is probably the best single medium for presenting the survey findings in attractive and convincing fashion to the community.

"The exhibit in relation to a survey will not only report the findings but is expected also to facilitate community understanding and support of the same. Thus the exhibit of survey results should be more than a billboard statement of bare fact. A constructive program or suggested remedy should go with an account of a bad condition. Then again, a simple fact, however accurate and complete in itself, may be entirely without significance or even misleading unless its meaning or the qualifying facts are also stated. For instance, the public officials may not satisfactorily dispose of garbage, but the exhibit of a survey cannot ignore the fact that the city officials lack authority, or funds, or public support, or whatever it is which the surveyor may have discovered as the reason back of the deficiency."

In spite of the unexpected outcome in Morristown there is already assurance that even the undesired publicity will be

TIME EXPOSURES by HINE



THE DOUBLE STANDARD

The two youngsters at the mill gate assured Mr. Hine they were 12 years old. Twelve is the meager minimum working age fixed by Alabama law. "Pinky" was particularly sure of it and his mother bore him out. But the school record, disconcertingly enough, showed him barely eight.

Other school records, family Bibles and life insurance policies in Huntsville testified to five children of 8 and 10 years at work; to 13 who had started to work before they were 12.

The bigger boys in the panel work for the same company. But they are in its mill in New England where the minimum age is 14 and most of the children, Mr. Hine found, are 16 or over.

Both pictures are of employees (the diminutive form of *employee* has not yet been coined) of the Merrimack Manufacturing Company which has mills at Huntsville, Ala., and Lowell, Mass.

fruitful of results. It is impossible that garbage disposal should be a chief subject of conversation on Sunday evening at the exclusive club in the town without some helpful reaction.

New Jersey has furnished a similar incident the past month. The tuberculosis exhibit of the State Board of Health was roundly condemned by a woman in a small town who found her small rooms and her large family held up in a stereopticon picture as an example of how not to live.

Dr. Millard Knowlton, director of tuberculosis work for the board, writes THE SURVEY that this picture was taken in conformity with his practice of using local pictures in each community, that he secured permission to take the picture and that he used it to show crowded conditions. The mother and her eleven children were all in the one picture, beds for the eleven were packed tightly into one room, the parents sleeping in the room adjoining. The mother's objection, he has since learned, came from her misunderstanding of the point of the picture, which she believed was being made the basis of a plea for relief, which she resented. The family income is \$25 a week and Dr. Knowlton has been told that steps to improve conditions were taken immediately after the exhibition.

OLD AGE PENSIONS BROACHED IN CANADA

OLD AGE PENSIONS for Canada were shelved by "the government" in the Canadian House of Commons. While the measure was introduced by the opposition evidently to test the government's attitude and put it on record, yet the debate marks the beginning of the agitation.

In advocating an initiative of the pension system it was said: "We give assistance to railways and steamship companies, to the steel companies, and coal corporations, but the time had arrived when a step, even though a short step, might well be taken by Canada in the direction of old age pensions"; "while \$3,000,000 is paid out for housing the poor, an annual outlay of \$7,000,000 would suffice to pension the aged"; "the special commission of the House of Commons had presented evidence to prove that under present conditions it is impossible for the average workman in Canada to put anything aside for his old age."

In "adjourning the debate," the finance minister while disclaiming the idea that old age pensions would discourage thrift and admitting that the discussion had already passed "the academic stage," contended that it had not reached the legislative stage, because "there was no great body of pronounced sentiment calling for action."

THE SWING OF THE PENDULUM ON SEX HYGIENE

—BY WILLIAM F. SNOW, M. D.,

GENERAL SECRETARY, AMERICAN SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION

Eight states make venereal disease a bar to marriage: Michigan (1899), Indiana (1905), Utah (1905), Washington (1909), and the following four in 1913: North Dakota, Oregon, Wisconsin and Pennsylvania.

Of these eight, Indiana and Pennsylvania name only "a transmissible disease"; the other six mention venereal disease specifically as a bar.

Indiana, Michigan, Utah, Washington and Pennsylvania do not require a medical certificate. The remaining three—North Dakota, Oregon and Wisconsin require a medical certificate.

ON MARCH 17 the Assembly of the New Jersey state Legislature passed the following bill, which now goes to the senate for consideration:

"The teaching of sex hygiene or sexology, and the distribution of any books or pamphlets in which such subjects are treated or discussed, in any school receiving any portion of the moneys appropriated for the support of public schools is hereby prohibited."

It was to be expected that the breaking down of the age-long silence of public opinion upon the social hygiene problems, would lead to some undesirable publicity and ill-considered efforts to promote unsound propaganda upon sex education and the white slave traffic. But social hygiene agencies were not prepared for the sudden swinging of the pendulum to the extreme of unguarded publicity which has recently been demonstrated by harmful books, plays, moving picture films, and lectures.

This New Jersey bill illustrates the inevitable reaction which is taking place. It is unfortunate that the pendulum has swung from the extreme of silence to this extreme of unlimited discussion without time for the development of a constructive program for action. It will, however, be still more unfortunate if the pendulum is allowed to swing back again to its old position of silence, enforced under certain conditions by law.

In obtaining accurate weighings in chemistry and physics, the scientist determines what he calls the "null point" by noting the extremes to which the indicator of the scales swings in a number of oscillations back and forth across the register. From this data he calculates the exact weight.

In a similar fashion the American Social Hygiene Association and other social agencies are trying to weigh the results of social hygiene efforts in various parts of the United States in order to determine the advisable educational methods to be adopted. Hasty or ill-

considered actions such as are indicated by the New Jersey bill as quoted above, or by the Wisconsin so-called "eugenics" marriage law, are calculated to retard real progress. The proposed New Jersey law would seem to be unnecessary and unwise. The Wisconsin law illustrates how a good principle can be rendered largely ineffective through incorporation in an impractical law.

Owing to the vicissitudes of legislation the Wisconsin bill became a law with several fatal defects and its constitutionality was challenged. A test case was brought in one of the lower courts, and the decision was against the law. The public impression has thus been gained that this was a decision of the Supreme Court and accordingly disposes of this type of legislation.

The facts are that the case has not yet gone to the State Supreme Court, and, in the meantime, is being operated under a decision of the attorney general, who has ruled that the legal interpretation of the phrase "recognized clinical and laboratory tests of scientific search" requires only those methods of examination which the average reputable physician in general practice understands and is equipped to apply.

It should be made clear to the public that this is not a type law, and that no one having a practical knowledge of the benefits a health certificate for marriage might accomplish, and a general understanding of the technical and expensive methods of laboratory diagnosis of venereal diseases, would endorse it as workable.

Physicians are required to sign a certificate which virtually requires a positive "yes" or "no" answer as to the existence of venereal infection in any form. This certificate reads as follows:

I, (name of physician), being a legally licensed physician, do certify that I have this day of , 19 , carefully and thoroughly examined (name of person), having applied the recognized clinical and laboratory tests of scientific search and find him to be free from all venereal diseases so nearly as can be determined.

(signature of physician).

A maximum fee of three dollars is specified for this certificate. When a "dispute or disagreement" arises regarding the findings of the physician, the state hygienic laboratory may be called upon to make laboratory examinations, but this assistance is not provided in ordinary cases. Indigent persons may apply to the county physicians.

Thus it is evident that technically only those who are adjudged too poor to pay three dollars, and those who have no confidence in the judgment of their physicians, are offered state aid. This

means in practice, of course, that the law undertakes to set the fee which shall be charged for a specified expensive and difficult examination, and then says to men desiring to marry, "You must find physicians willing to give you a certificate under these conditions or you cannot marry."

Aside from the absurdly low fee and the unwisdom of attempting to legislate upon fees at all, there is a very real objection to the law because the modern laboratory tests for venereal diseases are based upon a difficult and expensive technique, which few physicians understand or are equipped to apply. Consequently, if they are to fill out the certificate as specified, in good faith, and thus escape the penalty which would be enforced under a strict interpretation of the law, they must send their applicants to private laboratories at a minimum cost of probably fifteen to fifty dollars. The penalty referred to reads as follows:

"Any physician who shall knowingly and wilfully make any false statement in the certificate provided for in subsection 1 of this section shall be guilty of perjury and upon conviction shall be punished as for perjury, and a conviction under this subsection shall revoke the license of such physician to practice in this state."

The *Wisconsin Medical Journal*, commenting editorially upon the law, summed up the situation thus: "The medical profession has been and always will be ready to do whatever lies within its power to lessen the ravages of the venereal diseases, and the theory of the eugenic marriage bill might well receive our hearty endorsement, but in its present form the act asks impossibilities of the medical profession and the only loophole of escape is through insincerity and evasion. This is an intolerable situation, and the united profession should rise in protest. But as the state has seen fit to enact this law, let it, and not the overburdened medical profession, devise and provide ways and means of carrying it into effect." As the matter now stands if the law is construed by the Supreme Court strictly as written it is impractical for the reasons given above, if it is construed in accordance with the Attorney General's opinion it will fail to give the requisite protection.

Ten states during the past few years have passed legislation bearing on the principles represented by this law and the proposed New Jersey law. The intention of the author in one instance to safeguard marriage from the tragedies of preventable disease is excellent, but the law is impracticable. The intention of the author in the other instance to safeguard children and indirectly the public from unsound sex-education propaganda is also excellent, but the proposed law will not accomplish that purpose and may seriously retard desirable educational work in this field.

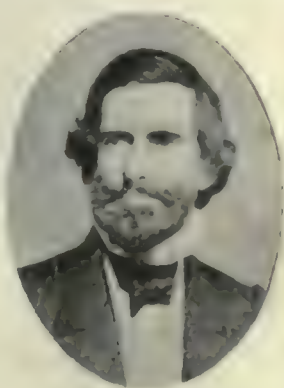


THE TOWER, FROM ACROSS THE CHARLES RIVER



COL. THOMAS H. PERKINS

Who gave his estate a century ago, for the education of the blind.



DR. SAMUEL G. HOWE

Inventor of the new system of teaching the blind.



MAIN TOWER AND GIRLS' CLOSE

Beauty for Blind Eyes

Indoors and Out at Perkins Institution

By E. H. Clement

PERKINS INSTITUTION is an "institution" indeed,—one of the boasts of Boston. It achieved world-wide fame nearly three generations ago, but the point of special interest to which this article is addressed is the feat that has been accomplished in transplanting the great institution. This octogenarian, with all its widespread growth, with all its deep-rooted associations of locality flourishing like an ancient oak, has been moved without maiming a single bough, without cutting a single rootlet.

The great sea-faring merchant-prince who had pushed Boston's commerce as far as China and the East Indies, and to the West Indies and South America, Thomas Handasyd Perkins, gave a century ago his home estate for the housing of the new education for the blind. Originally intended for all sorts of defectives, the method was then but newly invented by Samuel Gridley Howe, a singular young Boston doctor, freshly returned from participating in an ill-fated revolt of the Greeks inspired by Lord

Byron. It was not until middle-age that Dr. Howe became the husband of Julia Ward. Their honeymoon was a tour through Europe in which his triumph in the training of Laura Bridgman had made ready for him among all classes and in every land some such a reception as awaited Franklin after his demonstration that lightning is electricity.

Perkins' Early Fame

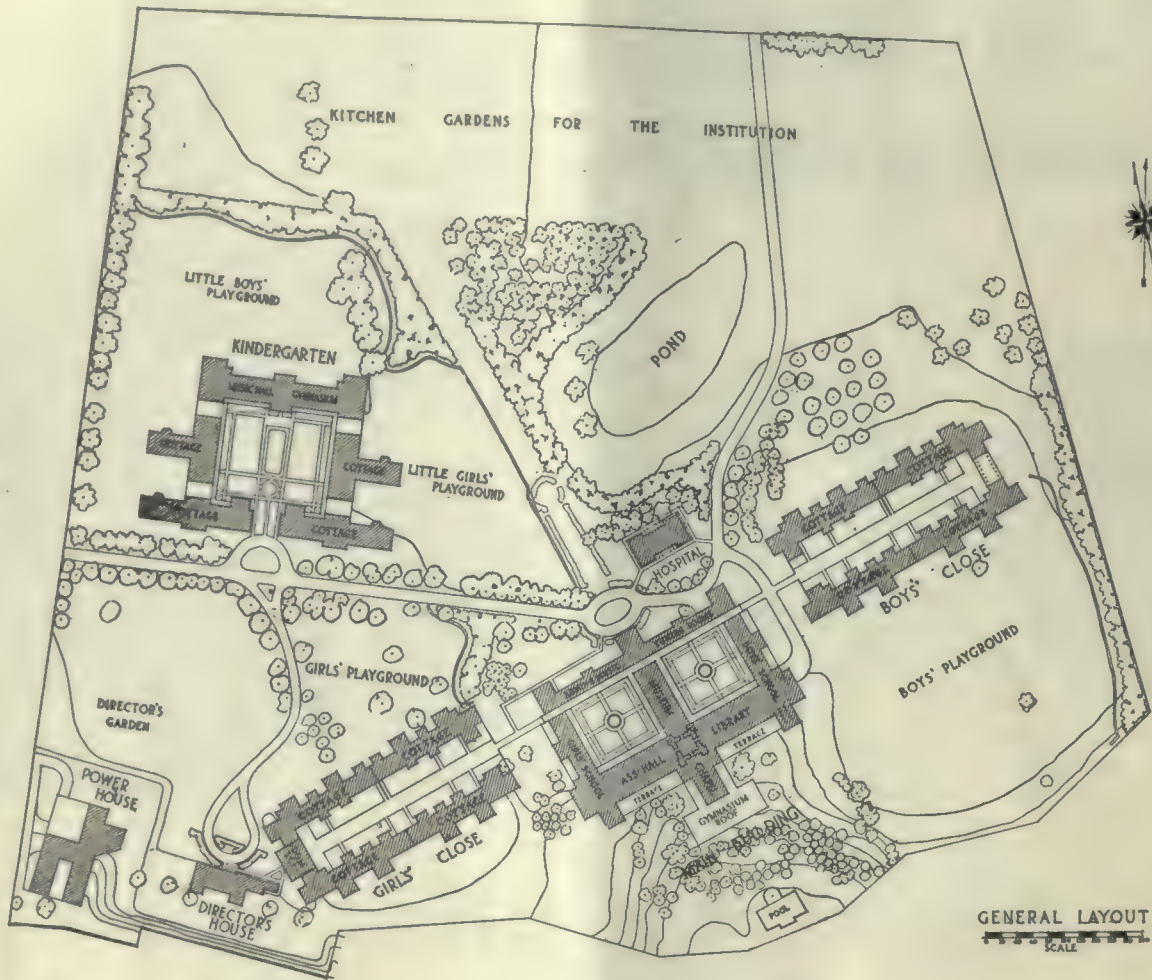
Thereafter, the Perkins Institution was the Mecca of all European tourists. Lafayette visited it. No less a pen than that of Charles Dickens gave it the best "write-up" the Institution has since received. Thackeray and Jenny Lind, Kossuth, Carl Schurz and his companions of the Revolution of '48,—any stripe of revolutionist found Dr. Howe a keen and active sympathizer. John Brown of Ossawatamie and a thousand other celebrities have joined the pro-

cessions winding down the stairs from the Institution's reception-room to the Howe family dining-room.

This much of history is necessary to an understanding of the difficulty and delicacy of the work of transferring the plant to a new site. Sentimental ties had to be ruptured, historical associations, personal memories sacrificed. The whole brilliant career of the Perkins Institution had been passed on this historic height where stood the battery that forced British authority to evacuate the rebel capital of New England. And the institution had had but two directors, Dr. Howe, and after him his son-in-law, Michael Anagnos, a Greek brought home from the campaign with Byron.

The whole institution, wherever and whatever it may be, is and must be Howe's monument. But there were some special interests of his, studies introduced, systems worked out, regulations and practices stressed as vital to the school, policies of administration and principles of pedagogy insisted on,

PERKINS INSTITUTION AND MASSACHUSETTS SCHOOL FOR THE BLIND.
R CLIPSTON STURGIS ARCHITECT 120 BOYLSTON STREET BOSTON MASS.



which may be said to have characterized his administration, and again others which characterized Mr. Anagnos' term as director. These have all been most loyally and piously safeguarded. Along with everything that was precious in the venerable Institution at South Boston, amid all the multifarious detail and enormous labor incident to the transfer to Watertown, busts and paintings representing Dr. Howe and Director Anagnos have been installed in their new places of honor. The lineaments of Mr. Anagnos, sculptured in terra cotta, or concrete, form part of the decoration of the kindergarten which he loved so devotedly and left so munificently endowed.

In contrast with the aesthetic evolution of Perkins in its superb new home, the old tinder-box ex-hotel in which it was housed in South Boston appears in memory like a homely, serviceable chrysalis for its splendid new birth and expansion. But there has been no break with the past in essentials,—neither in things pedagogical, nor in things spir-

itual. Even the vast, old-fashioned, revolving globe, in appearance the ancestor of all its kind, teaching geography through touch instead of sight, which stood in entrance hall-way so many years at South Boston, presents its burly form and offers genial welcome to faithfully returning corporation members as of yore. The teachers took weeks from their vacation, summer before last, to pack up cherished heirlooms among the furniture of the old home,—a touching testimony of the *esprit de corps* that pervades the hard-working teaching body, for whom "Service" is part of their compensation.

The New Perkins

And now the work is crowned with a new Perkins, a stately monument of all the "Service" that has gone into four score years and two. Dr. Howe began his work by gathering first a few feeble-minded children in his father's house in Boston because his interpretation of "noblesse oblige" did not admit of his taking money in medical practice.

The present director, Edward E. Allen, only the third in all these years, holds the high chivalric emprise of "Service" like his predecessors. He has achieved a million-dollar plant for his school of three hundred pupils and teachers. The outlay for plant in similar institutions runs, in this country, from \$1200 to \$2500 per capita. Allen has no misgivings over his per capita of \$3000. It means that Perkins is to live up to its old standing as the model establishment of its kind for the country and for the world.

In place of the dear old fire-trap barracks in Boston's east end, in cramped grounds closely begirt with slums, an extended series of buildings architecturally beautiful, grouped about a lofty Gothic tower with a chime of English bells, spreads for fully 1600 feet along a high plateau on the banks of the Charles River five miles from the city at Watertown. Its thirty-five acres were mostly the estate surrounding a mansion destroyed by fire a few years ago. The avenue of fine old trees which led up



MICHAEL ANAGNOS

The Greek who became second director of Perkins Institution

to it serves admirably for fitting approach to the new institution. About 20 acres are kept for playground space. A natural pond is another ornament for the grounds, and enters aptly into a basic scheme of the new education for the blind,—out-door sports and life for the pupils. The first total impression of low buildings and high tower, is somewhat like that across the Campagna, from the train, of a little old Italian city huddled around its campanile or its cathedral.

As you approach, you discover that the buildings are English, of the Tudor Gothic style. The group of college-like, low structures of brick, simply but artistically designed and finished, arranged to form quadrangles, cloisters and closes, may be "compared to the Vicars' Close at Wells in England," according to the technical description given by the architect, R. Clipston Sturgis, of Boston.

The Cottage System

But the choice of this building-plan was not determined only by aesthetic considerations, although such considerations have had large place in Mr. Allen's mind. "The matter of environment is a basic one in the education of the blind to which too much attention and study cannot be paid," he says. "The environment of both teacher and pupil, who are mutually dependent for results, must be stimulative. It must supply every known agency to encourage efficiency. The influence of such association for the enrichment of the intellect and the liberation of the spirit may be prodigious." At the same time, Mr. Allen keeps his feet solidly on the ground. The practical use and convenience and material advantages of his

plans for the new school went hand-in-hand with the aesthetic and spiritual outlook. He insisted upon the cottage principle in the housing of pupils, rather than a dormitory massing of inmates, by so much preventing the entrance into their life of germs of the "institution taint." Mr. Allen had already made a brilliant success of the rebuilding of the Pennsylvania School for the Blind and his fine plant at Overbrook, near Philadelphia, with its splendid upland site and great out-of-door spaces for athletics, and is novel and colorful architecture in Hispano-American Mission style, was the furthest advance, up to its date, of the new departure away from the type hitherto of such institutions. But in embodying the cottage system at the new Perkins at Watertown, he himself considers that he has made another step in advance and has left behind even the Pennsylvania school of his earlier pride.

The Closes

The cottages at Watertown, though as completely distinct as if they were detached houses, are in fact, for the sake of economy in space and in construction, built with continuous exterior walls, in groups of four cottages each. One group is for the boys and one for the girls of the upper school; and another group for the lower or kindergarten school. The last-named group differs in interior plan from the upper-school group, in that, on account of the tender age of its inmates, the school-rooms are under the same roof with the living and sleeping rooms. The cottages of the upper school form two "closes,"—an architectural as well as an ecclesiastical term—or quadrangles, with a broad street-like path down the middle of each close.

These open, bright, homelike closes, one for girls and one for boys,—purposely separated from one another by the whole distance and mass of the main building with the tower—are found in practice to be the favorite ground for the rendezvous of students after school-hours. With the whole beautiful tract as big as Boston Common, with old trees, and summer breezes from the river at their option, still the girls at least are apt to group themselves on their respective doorsteps to receive calls from the other cottages, or to walk up and down the wide concrete path bordered with nasturtiums.

You enter one of the eight cottages, either in the boys' wing, or in that of the girls, and you step into a living-room most generous in floor-space, with piano and lounges, easy-chairs and open fire-place, and flowers and tasteful draperies at the windows, all with much the air of a gentlemen's club, or the sitting-room of well-to-do college room-mates.

There is an equally spacious dining-room off the hall with three or four round tables, and certain of the pupils, chosen in turn, are waiting on the tables, as certain others in turn, will, when the meal is over, wash and dry and put away the dishes. Part of the training of the school is in this contributory house-keeping, just as another part of its influence is brought to bear in the cheer and elegance of the rooms and the habits of well-bred people at table.

Upstairs, in the bed-rooms and bath-rooms of these eight cottages, the appearance and scale of comfort and good taste are the same as downstairs. Every pupil must take the shower-bath every day. Students at Harvard and at Wellesley have the same sort of sleeping-rooms, and furniture, little knick-knacks on the bureaus, photographs on the walls,—all are quite the same. Though not seeing them, the pupils know they are there, and feel their influence. It was touching to see pennants and trophies of class games all bearing, besides specific numbers and initials, the head of a goat, signifying that they all go about butting into things!

The Library

To describe adequately the main building and its tower, and the history and significance of the libraries, where are kept Dr. Howe's raised-letter reprints of standard works on English literature and Mr. Anagnos's bibliographical collection; to tell of the object-teaching museum of birds and animals, and the historical relics, would alone take a whole paper. There are, besides, two beautiful halls. The smaller might be called the chapel, but is rather a choir, for rehearsing choral music which has taken the place of the former orchestral training. This hall is a perfect gem of design and finish. Its carved ornament



EDWARD A. ALLEN

Present director of Perkins Institution



KINDERGARTEN AND PRIMARY SCHOOL

on the edges and corners of the benches is one of the embellishments which the blind can feel as they find their way to their places. Adjoining in the same vestibule beneath the great tower, is the large hall for public assemblages. The platform is backed by the organ, and is also fitted up to be used as a stage for dramatic performances.

Into the basement of the central building runs a great tunnel which not only brings supplies to the cottages and workshops, and heat and power from the power-house down by the river, but affords a dry and warm and lighted passage-way for pupils in case of severe storms. In the basement, too, as the slope of the hillside gives light and air, are the gymnasium and the great swimming pool with every latest device, many peculiarly adapted to sightless bathers.

The Great Tower

All this is at the foot of the great monumental tower and is ventilated through its core.

It is a common thing to hear visitors remark, "What good does this do the blind if they do not see it?" The truth is that the blind have a very real sense of its presence and its effect, of its assertion of dignity in the Institution, of its influence on the spirits and self-respect of the teachers they depend on for their own cheerfulness, progress, and content. There is a literal physical connection in their consciousness too, of hearing the chimes from the tower. But there is a subtler and a more penetrating influence from the tower. It is easily conceivable that all concerned with the institution hold up their heads as being in their measure the functionaries of some noble edifice, some great public center. This sense of dignity and well-being cannot but react on their feelings and deepen their devotion, affect their habits and manners of thought



CARTOUCHE OF THE SEAL OF MASSACHUSETTS, ON THE WEST FRONT OF THE MAIN BUILDING

and speech. It is the majestic sign of all the spiritual influences which make over the pupils of the school from shy, depressed, often neurotic, sufferers into independent units of society, self-respecting because despite handicap, they are contributing their share to the world's work.

To one approaching this towered building, it seems alive with piano-tinkling: it is the piano-teaching, and the teaching of piano-tuning. Seventy-three pianos are the necessary equipment of the school. There is no sure livelihood for the blind boy or girl in learning an instrument of the orchestra. But there are remarkable records of blind pianists from this school, who have won triumphs in competition with the seeing, both in teaching and in tuning. The accomplished head teacher of music at Perkins now for many years, is a graduate with highest honors of the New England Conservatory of Music, E. J. Gardener. His work is primarily with the great chorus of the Institution, which performs annually the well-known oratorios and other of the best classical musical compositions; it has nothing to do with music of a lower order.

Pupils gifted with the sense of tune are taught from their entrance to read music by the raised points of the Braille system of musical notation. It is pathetically curious to see the ranks of the boys and girls standing in the stalls or benches of the beautiful choir-hall, all with their fingers on the line of dots they are to sing, and each part of the choir waiting till the forefinger following along the lines strikes the note at which tenors or altos, as the case may



IN THE MUSEUM, MAIN BUILDING

be, are to enter. The singing is done with evident enjoyment and intelligence, and the body of tone is singularly full and fresh. It is a significant fact, and one full of suggestion and psychological interest, that year after year, steadily as a law of nature, the girls who can take part in this sort of production of classical music outnumber the boys about two to one.

The Interior Beauty

This high taste and accomplishment in music has always given an atmosphere of refinement and cultivation to Perkins Institution. Now the latest administration has added that of a beautiful and dignified housing. An exquisite sense of something a little above the common-place, something of a touch of elegance within and without, in living-rooms and bed-rooms and even bath-rooms, as well as in the main building's noble halls and corridors, is everywhere in the vistas, in the air. It is even underfoot, in the red Spanish



TOTS "AT WORK" IN
THE KINDERGARTEN

the system is physical vitality and courage cultivated in out-of-door sports. After some years as assistant at old Perkins, opportunity came to translate his ideas into action in reconstructing the Pennsylvania school at Overbrook. There is no questioning the sound practical sagacity of one holding such a record of things done. Such a man does not necessarily exclude utilitarian and common sense considerations, when he fixes his mind on the ideal and philosophical and spiritual ends toward which humanitarian work aims.

We must therefore believe him speaking his conviction as an expert, as a man of life-long training and distinguished achievement, when he lays down such a principle as this: "Inheritance and environment are the two factors in life. Our pupils' inheritance we cannot change. It is often of the poorest; hence, the environment must be good enough to balance; in fact it can hardly be too good." One cannot question his deep and close personal sympathy with the objects of his care after reading this from his pen:



LIVING ROOM IN BROOKS
COTTAGE, GIRLS' CLOSE

tiling, decked with an ornamental center of blue and green tiles here and there, and at the crossing of the axes of the main building. The slight irregularity and unevenness of these tiles, as if here and there somewhat worn down by human feet, must make a direct appeal to the supersensitive touch of the blind, when even seeing people feel it. It is the type of the sort of loving thought and provision for these sensitive afflicted ones for whose benefit and encouragement the Institution exists.

Mr. Allen has proved himself sufficiently a practical and forceful man with this million-dollar plant to his credit, planned and nursed along by himself from the first selection of the site, which one day caught his eye from a railroad train on the opposite side of the Charles. He was an athletic trophy-winner in college and went directly from there to the Royal Normal College and Academy of Music for the Blind in London, founded by Dr. F. J. (now Sir Francis) Campbell, where the kernel of



DINING ROOM IN BROOKS COTTAGE, GIRLS' CLOSE



DINING-ROOM OF ELIOT COTTAGE, BOYS' CLOSE

"The tragedy of blindness is not the inability to see; it is the dread of dependence, of poverty and want and the pauper's grave. Childhood looks not so far ahead; but young blind men and women, however cheerful they may generally appear, too often yield to periods of depression. It is but natural the outlook should be dark and foreboding. The wonder is this is so often and so readily relieved. Blindness borrows trouble; its victims are overcome by self-pity. . . . I have seen the free courageous exuberant spirit of scholarship arise as the result of success on the playground and the athletic field. The work of successfully educating the blind has got to be founded upon the playground."

Just before Mr. Allen assumed his post, the board of trustees of the Perkins Institution sent him to Europe to study existing establishments of the same class. In Germany he found that we have much to learn from the Germans, but he also saw much that revolted his American soul. It hurt his feelings to see blind pupils left unkempt in personal appearance, in the coarsest, clumsiest cast-off clothes and prohibited from wearing linen collars. Hence he wrote:

"The American sees abroad survivals with which he is happily far less encumbered. He rejects the settled dictum that all the blind must be brought to the common level of the handicraft trade, and that practically all are bound to be always objects of charity, and hence must be treated as subjects of it while still school children—brought to an institution and reared there in an atmosphere of blindness, with not only no

probability of release, but rather the sure prospect of living and dying there. Where I found this thing it made me sad and resentful. Perhaps it was good business, but I could not reconcile myself to the inevitableness of it."

It is pleasant to contemplate a man with such breadth and depth of idea and faith and aspiration at the head of a great and growing institution, now completely covering its field and ready to meet the expansion of it as New England grows. He knows the detailed cost of every meal of the pupils per capita. He can tell you what the rushes cost for the bottoming of chairs, as well as how the majesty and dignity of the



DOUBLE ROOM IN THE BOYS' DEPARTMENT

Gothic tower that he watched building in concrete inch by inch, gets down into the consciousness of the sightless youths and maidens as a real presence and an uplifting influence. It is good to see, too, that his step is springy, his eye bright,—and that he carries no superfluous weight, his shoulders being as broad again as his waist-girth,—the build of a champion, in fact. His spirit is still that which produced at Overbrook what might have been called a sunburst on the future education of the blind.

"We, at Overbrook," he said at that time, "are charged with being optimists. We are optimists and most fortunately are we so. Were we otherwise our work would languish, and there would be little outcome. Our working theory does not attempt to minimize blindness, but rather regards it as a heavy affliction and handicap, the effects of which can be overcome only by bringing to bear every favorable means and influence that ingenuity can find or devise. The blind themselves must be strong and brave and fully alive to the difficulties of the task before them. Their leaders must be optimists with the resiliency of youth."

Thus is completed the chain of spiritual influences,—first the healthy body and the daring use of it, then the culture of the mind, and all the while the daily, hourly, constant, influence of the home-life of refinement, of education, good manners, kindness, mutual helpfulness.

In short, to sum up the spiritual influence of Perkins in the words of Director Allen:

"The principle which the Perkins Institution is now able to emphasize throughout is that the test of education lies less in what one knows than in how one can adjust oneself to society; that, while it is easy to instruct the young blind, it is difficult to train them so as to hold their own in the world. A reason for this difficulty lies in the tendency of the seeing to underrate the capabilities of the blind; another, in the natural proneness of the blind to magnify this 'prejudice of the seeing' and to minimize the influence of their own exertions in overcoming it. The Perkins Institution must be a living, working demonstration of the power of the young blind not only to do this but also to appear and act like other people,—really a continuous exhibition. To this end the best interdependent family living under reasonably ideal conditions is fundamental. . . . Perkins truly represents the best type of congregate-segregate institution for the blind that there is, and I have personally visited forty of these residential schools here in Europe."

The Four Gunmen

Is their part in the Rosenthal murder society's only interest in them?

By Winthrop D. Lane

UNLESS Governor Glynn intervenes, the four gunmen convicted of killing Herman Rosenthal, New York gambler and alleged "squealer," in July, 1912, will be electrocuted during the week of April 13. When the last of their bodies is lifted out of the chair, society will rest content in the belief that it has done its utmost to make their cases serve as deterrents from crime.

Yet the only thing about these youths in which society has shown any curiosity is whether or not they killed Herman Rosenthal. If they had been found innocent of that act, they would have been freed; since they were found guilty, they are to die. All investigation which did not ultimately shed light on the early morning scene when Rosenthal stood in front of the Hotel Metropole and was shot down without warning by unknown assailants, was of no interest or value to those who were carrying out society's desires.

Doubtless that was the first thing to be attended to. A murder had been committed in cold blood and until its perpetrators were in custody the state's attempts to protect its citizens would be a mockery. And when the details of the crime had been pieced together and it was found that four youths of responsible age had shown that they could be hired assassins, it became necessary to prevent them from repeating the offense.

But is it necessary to stop there? Is the gunmen's responsibility for the murder of Rosenthal the only thing of interest about them? Where did they come from? Who are their parents? How was their childhood spent? What schooling have they had? Did they become murderers in a day? If society is genuinely interested in deterrence from crime, ought it not to study the lives of criminals, as well as provide for their trial and punishment? How else can it know the processes by which they are made?

The following facts about "Gyp the Blood," "Lefty Louie," "Whitey Lewis," and "Dago Frank" do not make up complete biographies. Information about them is still guarded tenaciously by those who have it. The stories are presented now for the purpose of giving point to the question, Has society used the gunmen to its own fullest advantage?

To begin with Lefty Louie, who was twenty-one years old at the time of the Rosenthal murder. His father is a member of the New York Produce Ex-

change, and is financially well-to-do. Both parents were born in Austria, coming to this country before their marriage. The family, now living in the Bronx, is one of respectable, orthodox Jews. The father is trustee of a synagogue. Against Louis's four brothers, now grown to manhood, no suspicion of crime, so far as is recorded, has ever been lodged.

Louis was born at 17 Suffolk street, in the heart of New York's congested lower East Side. At that time his father kept a bakery and grocery at 13 Suffolk street and the family had to live carefully to make both ends meet. The father, with strict views on religion, was a stern disciplinarian.

"I do not know," he said to me after his son's conviction, "what you call bad. Some people say that if a boy doesn't steal or go with loose women, he isn't bad. But I call a boy bad if he isn't at table on time."

So, in the early years before they started to school, Louis and his brothers were never seen in the throngs of youngsters that played on the sidewalks and street near their home. Indoors they were given the customary moral and religious instruction of their race.

Lefty Louie's Childhood

But a crisis in Louis's life broke down the rules by which his father was seeking to protect him. At the age of six he became ill with the measles. The family physician, on the boy's recovery, insisted that he have all the fresh air he could get—an easy prescription to write, but not for a corner drug store to fill! There was no money with which to send Louis to the country where he could roll in grass and climb trees. His mother could not spare the time from her household duties and the care of the other children to supervise daily trips to nearby parks and open spaces. The best place for fresh air near home was in the street. So into the street, by edict of the doctor, Louis was pushed.

The world he found there was different from any he had known. The myriad sights, sounds and smells that he had experienced before only from windows, or on occasional trips out-of-doors with his parents, he could now investigate first-hand. New friends also were waiting to teach him the amusements of the door-step and the side-walk.

At about this time he began to attend the public school and a year or so later the Hebrew school. The former closed

at three o'clock in the afternoon and the latter, in which Louis studied the prayer book and the Pentateuch, at five. From then until seven or eight in the evening he was on the street, says his father.

A suggestion of the life he must have found there can be gathered from the following description of street amusements by the principal of one of the public schools in the very neighborhood where Louis lived. Her information comes direct from the seven and eight-year-old boys who make up the street population of the lower East Side today.

One of the earliest things they learn to do, she says, is to fleece the push-cart peddlers who line the curbs. It is quite simple. A companion grabs your hat and throws it into a cart piled with trinkets. You run up to the cart and in snatching your hat you close your hand around whatever is under it. The owner of the cart, if you have timed the exploit properly, is haggling with a buyer and does not notice you. Sometimes you get something which you can dispose of to an older boy for a few pennies or a nickel. Then you can go to the "movies."

From this game it is but a natural step to taking more valuable things from the small shopkeeper whose piled-up wares are brushed by the coats of the passers-by.

Soon you are sufficiently adept to become the useful tool of older heads. "Well, sonny, what play is on at Miner's this week?" you will be asked by a pleasant speaking man. "Like to see it? Come along and I'll show you how to make some easy money."

You receive your instructions and accompanied by the older man enter a small shop. While the man engages the proprietor or clerk in business conversation, you wander about unnoticed and at every favorable opportunity slip small articles of merchandise into a bag which the man has given you and which is hidden beneath your coat. When you are safely outside the older fellow takes the stolen goods and gives you a nickel or dime to go to the "show."

At ten or eleven years of age the pool-room begins to assert its attraction. There a boy is likely to meet practiced pick-pockets. He has only to listen to learn that there is a technique in extracting the contents of a lady's handbag. A particular kind can be boldly opened without danger; another kind is so hung that it must be cut, for to open it would be to cause a jerk that would surely be

felt by the wearer; and still another kind must be removed entirely and the contents taken out at leisure.

Louis's father says that by the time he was eight or nine years old he had become a "street fiend." Yet no complaints were received of his school work. When he reached the 3B grade and had to be transferred to another school because the one he had been attending had no facilities for boys beyond that stage, he was promoted, his father says, with a satisfactory record.

Meanwhile his religious instruction was being continued. After a year or two at the Hebrew school he was taken out and a tutor hired to come to the house. From then until Louis was thirteen private instruction in the religion of his race alternated with that of the school.

The first definite misdeed of which his family became aware happened when Louis was eleven or twelve years old. His father had lain down for a nap one afternoon when he heard some one rattle the small bank in which one of his sons kept his savings. Getting up he saw Louis and another boy going downstairs. The other boy, who the father knew was regarded in the neighborhood as "bad," was carrying the bank. The father called to them and Louis came back. He said that the other boy had suggested they take the bank. The father raised his hand to strike him, and Louis, who had appeared very much frightened, suddenly turned white and fainted.

This first piece of misconduct determined Louis's father to move away from the neighborhood in order to break up the associations his son was forming. A month or two later the family entered an apartment in Ninety-fifth street.

But for Louis, the "street fiend," this was only a change from lower "little Italy" to upper "little Italy," into the street life of which he soon plunged. It wasn't long, however, before his first associates asserted their influence and Louis was soon playing truant to slip back into the region where he had first tasted the excitement of street life.

A probation officer who has studied his record says that at twelve and thirteen years of age he was a frequenter of the pool-rooms near the corners of Clinton and Grand streets and Delancey and Grand streets, in his old neighborhood. There he was exposed to the instruction in pocket-picking already described.

At thirteen Louis was sent to a private boarding school outside of New York city. He had graduated, his father says, from the public schools, though the record of his graduation is not to be found. The private school proved distasteful and Louis was allowed to return to his home at the end of the first year.

For a while he held a job in the shipping department of an up-town depart-



"GYP THE BLOOD"

He and "Lefty Louie" were chums from childhood, and Lefty's story, barring the measles, is much like Gyp's.

ment store, but that failed to interest him and several months were spent in idleness. During this time, his father says, he showed the same old passionate desire to be upon the street. The only visible effect of his father's repeated remonstrance was to frighten him. His father is sure that at this time Louis was not engaged in law-breaking practices.

After a brief period of idleness Louis was employed in his father's office in the Produce Exchange. There he remained for nearly two years as an office attendant, errand boy, and in other capacities that called for little skill or training. His father will not say whether he knew at this time that Louis was leading a law-breaking life, but he could not have been long out of his father's employ when his first arrest occurred.

This happened in 1907, when Louis was sixteen. The charge was "disorderly conduct," and he was fined \$10 and sent to the House of Refuge. Whether a suspended sentence would have taught him the error of his ways, without adding the embittering touch of actual imprisonment, it is now too late to say. The opportunity to reclaim him then, if it existed, was not seized.

His term in the House of Refuge was short and in the same year he was again arrested, this time in Boston for larceny from the person. A sentence of one year in the House of Correction was imposed, but this was reduced to nine months.



"DAGO FRANK"

"The pity and conundrum of the four," says his attorney. Was it the reformatory that made him a criminal?

These were his arrests up to the murder of Rosenthal. From 1907 to 1912 he lived with his family in the Bronx, but followed no regular occupation and seldom worked. He occasionally served summonses for lawyers.

During the winter of 1911-12 he began to be unaccountably absent from home. In April, 1912, he married a girl about whom the detectives' terse comment was, "from accounts, a good woman." It was at this time that he ceased living with his parents. It is declared by the detectives that he and his wife occupied a flat with Whitey Lewis and Dago Frank.

"Either it is the street life of New York that made Louis bad," says his father, "or it is his own weak mind. I have had him examined by a specialist. Some time I may tell what that revealed."

From Poland to Chinatown

The early story of "Whitey Lewis" reads like that of many old-world families who throw themselves hopefully into the new-world melting pot. Both parents were born in Poland, coming to this country in 1900, when Whitey was twelve years old. Neither can now talk English in spite of their fourteen years' residence in America.

The family is Jewish, and both father and mother are members of a synagogue, though not strictly orthodox. For twenty years before their emigration the father had been foreman in a cigar factory. The



"LEFTY LOUIE"

Measles sent him at the age of six into the street for fresh air and he quickly became a "street fiend." Was he mentally defective?

loss of his position induced him to try his fortunes in this country. Having learned the book-binding trade in his youth, he entered on that occupation here and has continued at it ever since. The family is poor and two of Whitey's sisters work in a cigar factory to eke out the income.

In Poland Whitey never got into trouble, the family says. He was given the customary religious instruction there, but the parents' efforts to make a living in this country caused them to lose sight of this branch of their children's education. Whitey was entered in the public schools of the lower East Side, where the family took up residence on arrival and where they have lived ever since.

Apparently the excitement of street life in New York City offered temptations to twelve-year-old Whitey which were too strong for his rural upbringing to overcome. The police declare that during his first year here he became a frequenter of Chinatown, and made the acquaintance of professional crooks.

At fourteen, following his father's example, he entered a book-binding shop, but soon left it to learn tin-smithing with an uncle in Jersey City.

His first arrest was in 1904, when he was sixteen years old. The offense was attempted grand larceny in the second degree, and he pleaded guilty. He was sent to Elmira Reformatory, being received there December 3. Fourteen months later he was paroled in the care



"WHITEY LEWIS"

In Poland, where he lived till twelve, he never got into trouble. A year after his arrival in New York he knew the dens of Chinatown.

of the Prison Association of New York, and earned his absolute release in seven months.

"While here," says the assistant superintendent at Elmira, "his conduct was good. He worked at the book-binder's trade and made fair progress at it. His physical condition was fair, and his mental capacity poor."

In 1907 Whitey was again arrested this time for petit larceny. After a short term in the city reformatory he was convicted a third time. The offense was grand larceny in the second degree and he was sentenced to Sing Sing prison for four years. To these charges also he pleaded guilty.

All these commitments were known to his family, with whom he continued to live, when not in prison, until the year of Rosenthal's murder. He then began to divide his time between his family and a married brother. Neither his parents nor his brothers and sisters realized, they declare, that he was associating with professional "gangsters" or "gunmen."

When Whitey came out of Sing Sing he worked for four weeks for a glass manufacturer and then, at the suggestion of his family, entered the army. It was thought that in this way his associations with law-breakers might be broken up. He was sent to Fort William McKinley in the Philippines. But trouble followed him there, and in May, 1911, he was sentenced to hard labor for three

months and dishonorably discharged.

His own story of the affair is this: Being a Jew, he was constantly "picked on" by fellow recruits. His resentment went no further than words until one day, as he stood paring his nails with a knife, a fellow who had been especially obnoxious in taunting him, started in again. Whitey told him to "cut it out," whereupon the fellow got behind him and struck him in the back. Whitey swung around in self-defense and forgetting, he says, that he had a knife in his hand, accidentally cut his persecutor.

A different view of the affair was taken by the court which tried him, and he was found guilty of "feloniously stabbing a fellow recruit in the shoulder and breast with intent to do him bodily harm."

After this Whitey returned to New York and again fell in with his old associates. Like Lefty Louie and Gyp the Blood, he declared on the witness stand that he had met Jack Zelig, the notorious gang leader, about a year before the murder.

One of his brothers was sent to the House of Refuge in 1907, and another in 1908, the latter for picking a pocket.

The Conundrum of the Four

In the opinion of the attorney who defended the gunmen, Dago Frank is "the pity and the conundrum of the four."

Both his parents were born in Italy, as was Frank also. He was twenty-seven years old at the time of the Rosenthal murder. His father, who is said to have been a tailor, died years ago and his mother is a feeble old woman, whose almost constant presence at the trial of her son for murder excited much sympathy among court officials. In spite of over a dozen years' residence in this country she cannot speak English.

Frank was confirmed in the San Salvatore church (Protestant Episcopal), located at 359 Broome street, New York city, on May 22, 1901. He was then sixteen years old. The record of his confirmation is still in existence, and bears the signature of the bishop and archdeacon of the diocese. At that time the family lived across the street from the church. Frank's sisters were members of the Girls' Friendly Society of the church, and it is rumored that Frank sang in the choir. This is denied, the present rector says, by some of those who were connected with the church at that time. The family attended the church regularly.

Frank's earliest employment appears to have been with the New York News Bureau, for which he worked from 1900 to about 1904, or from the time he was fifteen to the time he was nineteen. From nine o'clock in the morning to three in the afternoon he carried printed sheets from the office of the bureau to brokers on the stock exchange. After three o'clock he helped in mailing the

Wall Street Summary, a journal published by the news bureau. He was usually through work by five o'clock. His duties required no skill and he was paid \$3.00 a week.

Frank's record with his employers during this period, it is declared by employees who knew him then, was entirely clear. No complaint was made against his character or habits of industry.

In December, 1905, Frank was convicted of carrying concealed weapons. This was the first offense charged against him, and it is the only one besides the murder of Rosenthal. His own story of this early arrest was that he was standing on the corner of Elizabeth and Bleeker streets when a man approached him and handed him a bundle, asking him to hold it for him for a few minutes. The fellow then went off and Frank discovered that he was holding a revolver and a sling shot. Fifteen minutes later he was arrested. He later learned, he said, that the man who had given him the weapons was a former prisoner.

He was found guilty and sent to Elmira Reformatory. At the end of fourteen months he was paroled in the care of the Prison Association of New York and seven months later received his absolute release. The assistant superintendent at Elmira says of him:

"His physical condition was fair; he had chromophytosis. He was considered of poor mental ability, had tuberculous glands, and other serious diseases. He was taught the plastering trade here, and his conduct was satisfactory."

Frank testified on the witness stand that after he was released from Elmira he worked for the Borgia Marble Company, but that a "touch of rheumatism" induced him to give up that job. He then worked, he said, for the Johnston Heating Company. The records of this concern show that from October, 1907, to October, 1908, he was employed by it as a steamfitter's helper, and that he was assigned to various construction jobs around the country. He was not a skilled mechanic. Employees of the company declare now that Frank's employment by it was unmarked by trouble of any sort.

Frank testified that he had subsequently been employed by several other engineering and construction companies. How steadily he worked and what he did with his spare time are questions which his family cannot answer. Neither does it seem possible to learn by what degrees he finally became a permanent acquisition to the gang led by Jack Zelig, to which his three associates in the murder of Rosenthal also belonged. His attorney is sure that Frank had led a straightforward life until his sentence to Elmira and that it was the associations which he formed there that developed his taste for "gang" comrades outside.

Frank was one of the few non-Jews who belonged to Zelig's gang. A Jew had once befriended his mother and sister, giving them employment and helping them meet their rent, and ever since Frank had had a kindly feeling for Jews. When Zelig was killed a letter from Frank was found on his body, reciting these facts and saying: "Although I'm a wop, I know you'll stick by me."

Gyp, the Pal of Lefty

One of "Lefty Louie's" early Suffolk street friends in the lower East Side was a lad named Harry, now famous as "Gyp the Blood." Gyp and Lefty have been close friends ever since. The story of Gyp's entrance into law-breaking is almost identical with Lefty's.

Both Gyp's parents, who are Hebrews, were born in New York. There is no record of law-breaking against the father, who for twenty-five years has been in the tailoring business in New York city, and makes a comfortable living for his family. Gyp was born in April, 1888, at 419 Third avenue. His father at that time kept a tailoring establishment at the corner of Third avenue and Thirty-fourth street.

At six or seven Gyp began to attend the public schools. At eight he was placed in the hands of a private Jewish tutor, with whom he studied the Talmud and the Old Testament. This instruction continued until he was thirteen. His father, like "Lefty Louie's," has an official connection with a synagogue and undertook to provide his son with the customary religious instruction of Jews.

At what time Gyp first entered upon the street life of the lower East Side cannot be told accurately. His father says that he was required to be in the house by seven o'clock every evening, and was not allowed to "run wild on the streets." He thinks Gyp's downfall was due to the evil associations formed during his first term in a penal institution.

When Gyp was twelve years old, his prospering parents joined the migration uptown, a year or two before Louis's family moved away from Suffolk street. A year or two later he worked as errand boy for a dry goods establishment in One Hundred and Twenty-fifth street, and it may be that his trips to all parts of the city in that capacity first acquainted him with the pool rooms of Delancey, Grand and Clinton streets. Certain it is that he and Lefty were at this time frequenters of those places and were rapidly being shaped by the associations which they found there.

In 1905, when Gyp was seventeen years old, he was arrested for the first time. The charge was petit larceny, but he was discharged. The next year he was arrested for a similar offense and sentenced to nine months in the city reformatory. A second term in the city reformatory was followed by a year in the state penitentiary in 1909.

Two of Gyp's younger brothers have been convicted of law-breaking. One was suspended from a public school in 1908 for "very bad" conduct. He then entered a private school. In 1912 he was sentenced to Elmira. The other was arrested for the first time during the month of the Rosenthal murder.

Such are, in part, the histories of the gunmen who killed Rosenthal. They are the histories of four young men whom the world has stamped as "hardened criminals," but beyond whose connection with a single crime the world has not cared to look.

A number of facts stand out. First, there is no record of law-breaking against the parents of any of them. Brothers of Gyp and Whitey have been convicted of offenses, but their waywardness came later, so that no one of the four can be explained on the ground that he came from a long line of criminals, or that family example and encouragement is responsible for his undoing.

The early years of each seem quite clearly to have been normal and straightforward, giving no hint of the direction later conduct was to take. One by one, through disease, going to school, or going to work, they came into contact with the abnormal street life of a crowded and heterogeneous community. Their youth demanded play and excitement and they sought these where they were easiest to find.

Gradually but with seeming inevitableness they made the acquaintance of older boys and men who had mastered the trick of turning an easy dollar. No power is as strong as that of suggestion and glittering example, and the swaggering ways and affluence of these people made heroes of them.

Their own entrances into crime were gradual, beginning, in every case but that of Dago Frank, with petty attempts while they were still in their teens to get spending money easily. Yet no attempt was made to give them the benefit of a sympathetic understanding. Whatever help there may be in probation and suspended sentence was not extended to them.

This is not a plea for leniency toward murderers. It is the mere putting of a question. No people is without its machinery of punishment. Is it not important also to know why those punished come to such a pass? Must the obtaining of that knowledge be left to the random explorations of an occasional journalist?

A deeper question is involved also. Has the philosophy of deterring crime anything to do with the causes of crime, or is it enough to go on removing the finished criminal? Shall we attack the processes of making law-breakers, or shall we be content to endow the electric chair with immortality?



FIFTY-FIVE YEARS OLD; FORTY-FIVE YEARS A WORKER; THIRTY-FIVE YEARS A WAGE-EARNING MOTHER

Mothers Who Must Earn¹

A Study in New York's West Side

By Katharine Anthony

SEGREGATED from the greater houses and the grander streets of New York city, the Middle West Side lives its own life in its own way, working when it must and snatching its pleasures where it may. Old houses, poor and costly transportation facilities, and human inertia combine to produce an isolated overgrown village. Its numerous rear tenements give it the stamp of neglect and sordidness. Living in these little rear houses

are the most conspicuously underpaid workers of the community,—irregular earners of both sexes bringing in just enough to keep soul and body together.

The neighborhood seems like the great neglected backyard of the rest of the

city. Much of the cast-off clothing and refuse food from better streets find their way thither. At the Salvation Army headquarters half-worn garments can be bought for nominal prices,—an overcoat for 25 cents, a pair of shoes for 10 cents. Under the Ninth avenue elevated on Saturday night the push-carts of "Paddy's Market" display great heaps of vegetables, fruits, and other wares rejected from better quarters. Everywhere there are "seconds"—oranges that have been frozen, nicked dishes, faulty shoes and garments—to be bought for next to nothing. During the day, the peddler carts similar wares up and down through the streets, filling the neighbor-

This article is made up of extracts from one of a series of studies which embody the results of an investigation into social and economic conditions in a Middle West Side district of New York, carried on under the direction of the Bureau of Social Research of the New York School of Philanthropy. Pauline Goldmark was in active charge of the investigation. Miss Anthony's complete study is about to be published in book form by the Russell Sage Foundation. Ed.

¹Anthony, Katharine: *Mothers Who Must Earn*. (West Side Studies.) 12 mo. Illus. 240 pages. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. New York, Survey Associates, Inc., 1914. In press.

hood with his hoarse cry and selling his load for what he can get.

In the poorest quarters are families that live almost on waste. The children forage for wood, coal, and ice along the railroad tracks and among the warehouses, and the mother brings home from work gifts of clothing and fragments of food. It is surprising how large a part of the minimum necessary to support life on the West Side can be picked up from the streets by boys and girls whose hunting instincts have been sharpened by necessity.

The basis of population is German and Irish and the social order reflects the racial characteristics of both. To the Irish comes an admixture of English and Scotch. Each group preserves to some extent its native habits and morals, the more serious German dwelling side by side with the easy-going Irishman. The characters of Gerhardt Hauptmann's sociological dramas live under the same roof with those of John Galsworthy. Teamster Henschel, with his dark rebellion, and Timson, the cab driver and drunken philosopher, meet as neighbors on the common stairs.

The lives of the families whose circumstances are reviewed in this study are peculiarly bound up with their environment. One can fancy some Jacques of the West Side reviewing the seven ages of man as they are lived by thousands around him. The infant, born and nursed in a dark tenement room; then the school boy spending a few years in some numbered "P. S." to learn for a brief season from some nameless "Teacher"; the adolescent making love on the Tenth avenue corner; the young adventurer risking his life in a gang fight or in a game of street baseball; the workingman with a growing family, who takes a drink to forget his troubles; the derelict, old at forty, finding it hard now to get a job; and then the grandfather, house-bound, minding his daughter's baby while she goes out to do a day's work,—such are perhaps the scenes in which he might shadow forth the "strange, eventful history" of the citizen of the West Side.

Not all members of the family are thrown back alike on the resources of their immediate environment. The father has glimpses of the world, even if only from the driving seat of his truck. The son or daughter may go to work downtown, and though it costs ten cents a day in carfare, the young worker has also a daily glimpse of something beyond the West Side. It is the mother of the family who least often sees beyond the neighborhood limits. Even the mothers who work away from home seldom journey far to a job. They cannot afford to spend the time in traveling back and forth, and they cannot afford to pay carfare out of their wages.

The effect of this is seen in the kind of work that they do. Unskilled, pre-

carious employment is the only thing within reach. This is especially true since the textile industry, once the resource of women of this neighborhood, has moved away. At present most middle aged women who work are employed as scrubwomen and cleaners in the theaters and office buildings on the outskirts of the district. The work of public cleaning draws its recruits principally from the class represented by the women of this study,—the mothers who must earn. Such work is largely drudgery. It belongs to the class of servile rather than of specialized labor. They have no skill to market, only untrained physical powers to sell.

The appearance of charwomen on their knees scrubbing an office floor, a public corridor, or the lobby of a theater is not one which inspires respect in the ordinary passer-by. The work of public cleaning bears, in addition to the ancient stigma attached to menial work, the ignominy of being done in public places. The dishevelled working clothes and the humble posture of the scrubbers seem to deprive them of any measure of human dignity. Some employers are inclined to feel that the kindest attitude toward these workers is to neglect and ignore them.

The irony of such considerateness is apparent when one remembers that their work was done in public corridors almost as exposed as a city thoroughfare. They are one of the most familiar sights of the business district.

BUT familiar as they are, the dingy toilers do not readily strike the attention. One may pass them again and again without stopping to think that a human life, more or less complete, is imprisoned within each of these humble figures. Least of all does one suspect what a life of heroic effort it may be, or how many of the workers, single-handed, are daily fighting a battle that takes more courage than Waterloo.

A more helpless figure than the middle-aged mother of a family starting out to look for work would be hard to imagine. Sometimes she buys a newspaper and reads the advertisements. Through the woman's exchanges, neighborhood churches, settlements, day nurseries, and charitable agencies, she may find opportunities to go out and work by the day.

But the women who do day's work derive at best a varying and uncertain income. They complain that "you never know what you'll have on a Saturday night." Those who must have "something regular" look for a factory job or an office cleaner's place. Like their sixteen-year-old daughters, their usual plan is simply to "apply on the premises." They walk about for hours, following up poor chances and, worst of all, wearing out their shoes.

With Mrs. Williamson the search became a desperate one as the months went

by. At her husband's death she had been left with two children, a boy of three years and a girl of eleven months. Williamson, who had been second officer on a ship, had left no insurance, but there were considerable savings in the bank. Consequently his wife had funds on hand to tide the family over a year and a half during which, of course, the children were growing older and less helpless. But the end of the savings inevitably came.

Mrs. Williamson began to look for work at the beginning of summer. A few odd days' cleaning and a little sewing were all that she managed to pick up. When November came she was still looking for work. Her story of how she finally got a job shows what a desperate frame of mind she was in by this time.

"There was a woman in the next house that worked at the hospital. One night she came by and said they wanted another regular cleaning woman. The next morning, as I walked up to the hospital, I kept saying to myself, if I didn't get that job I would go home and do away with my children. I don't know what might have happened if they hadn't put me to work that morning. But they gave me the job. I'm working there four months now."

The job which probably saved the lives of the Williamson children was scrubbing stairs and floors nine hours a day, six days in the week, and it pays the grateful woman who does it \$6.50 a week.

In the majority of public buildings the scrubbing is done in the most primitive fashion, for as long as the women's labor is as cheap as it is, there is little incentive for employers to adopt improved methods of work. There is also a general belief that women do this sort of work more thoroughly than men,—a fact which has served to prolong their tenure. Moreover, the scrubbing machines which have been tried so far have not been satisfactory. The superintendent of one building experimented with one in the large ground floor thoroughfare, but gave it up and returned to primitive hand-and-knee scrubbers.

It was difficult to get the superintendent to speak calmly of this scrubbing machine, or to refer to the experiment at all further than to declare he would never repeat it. However, he consented to make the following charges against it: "It took three men to run it,—one to operate it, one to carry water, and one to wipe up after it. It didn't clean the floors and it didn't touch the corners."

Most of the theaters have installed vacuum cleaners operated by male porters; but as yet they are not seriously depended on, and their daily use is said to wear out the carpets. The charwomen instinctively recognize in the vacuum cleaner a natural enemy, and none of them can be induced to say a word in its praise. They realize that as hand



A VICTIM OF THE LONG DAY



A GERMAN MOTHER AND HER YOUNGEST

cleaning in public buildings is replaced by machine cleaning their jobs will disappear.

The women suffer excessively from "cricks" in the back and neck, due to the long continued strain of stooping and kneeling. But they are not allowed to use long handled mops. The reason usually given is that it is not possible to clean so thoroughly with mops. However, it was observed in a certain hospital where most of the floors are done by women on their knees, that a few rooms, including the antiseptic operating room, were considered sufficiently clean after a porter had gone over the floors carefully with a long handled mop.

A serious feature connected with public cleaning is the thirst caused by breathing in dust. In one well-conducted theater, the eighteen scrubwomen had a cup of tea together at 10 o'clock in the morning. The manager was alive to the fact that sweeping is a dusty and fatiguing occupation, causing excessive thirst and creating one of the primary conditions for the beer-drinking habit.

The dangers to health from constantly breathing the germ-laden dust of great assemblage places need scarcely be mentioned. The public cleaning woman is the first and chief victim of the disgusting habit of spitting. Decent women were compelled to scrub floors unspeakably defiled by spitting, a condition as

dangerous as it was revolting. One woman was said to have acquired tuberculosis in her finger from scrubbing the floor of an orchestra. It is true that not all cleaning jobs were equally bad, but the worst involved hardships which were an offense against humanity and bore no relation to the numbers of women engaged.

But the ability to make the best of conditions which we can't remedy belongs to these women as well as to others more fortunate than they. Hear Mrs. Clinton, as she walks to the theater at 5 o'clock on a snowy winter afternoon. "I think I'm going to be able to keep this job," she says, "because six women have tried it before me and all of them gave it up. But I'm a steady worker, and that's what people want in New York."

AGAINST the somber background of West Side conditions, the special group of 370 women forming the basis of this study stand out in distinct relief. It is not only because we have focused attention on the simple realities of their lives that these women seem better than their environment would lead us to expect. The fact that the women were working qualified them at once for respect. They had had the enterprise to find work and the industry to keep it. They had not "put their children away" but were

making every effort to keep up a home. Their determination to shoulder their obligations and meet the responsibilities was nothing short of heroic. To a large extent, they represent the best standards and the best elements of West Side life.

The reason why these mothers were at work is to be sought primarily in the condition of the principal breadwinner. According to whether the father is dead or absent, whether he is living at home, and is unemployed or at work, the economic circumstances of the family may be roughly determined. The 370 women studied are here divided into six groups,—those whose husbands were withdrawn from the family through death, desertion, or separation forming three of them, and those whose husbands were living at home in a state of incapacitation, idleness, or employment forming the remaining three. The following table shows the number and percentage of mothers in each group:

CONJUGAL CONDITION OF 370 WAGE-EARNING MOTHERS		
Conjugal condition	Number	Per cent
Widows	125	33.8
Deserted wives.....	40	10.8
Separated wives.....	9	2.4
Wives with incapacitated husbands	21	5.7
Wives with idle husbands.	12	3.2
Wives with husbands at work	163	44.1
Total.....	370	100.0



MRS. LORINSKY AND HER FIVE REASONS FOR WORKING

It must be noted that the distribution of women according to family status, shown by the foregoing table, is not representative of family conditions in the district. Naturally, the proportion of widows, deserted wives, and separated wives would be much higher among wage-earning women than in the general population of the locality. It must be noted also that "incapacitated" in the above table means invalidity through specific disease and not old age alone. Husbands were counted "idle" only when they had been out of work for at least a year. Among those "at work," many intermittent or irregular workers were therefore included.

Briefly, the conditions within the family for our 370 mothers were as follows: The largest group of families was that in which the fathers were living at home and were "at work." The next largest was the group of widows' families. Of the latter, more than one-third, as further study showed, had been deprived of the breadwinner by tuberculosis—the disease which, most of all, exhausts the economic resources of the survivors.

Tuberculosis, pneumonia, work-accidents, and industrial disease were responsible for fully 60 per cent of the total number of dead or disabled wage-earners.

Of the living husbands, more than 60 per cent were under forty-five and should still have been earning regularly. An examination of their occupations, however, showed that they were engaged in low-paid work and that more than half of them were in occupations where unemployment is characteristic. Less than half the families had children who had reached working years. As to nationality, the families were principally

Americans and Americanized German and Irish, with homogeneous social ideals. All these circumstances emphasize the fact that the primary reason why the women worked was not moral or racial, but economic. They were the wives and widows of under-employed and under-paid men and were compelled to contribute to the family whatever earning value their labor possessed.

A very small number of the living husbands had been at work regularly during the year. Some had been out of work a month, some two months, some four months—not sick or ailing in body, but just *out of work*, that dreadful West Side affliction which is feared more than the direst sickness. For these men, a vacation of one-fifth of the year taken piecemeal or all at once, meant that the wife went to work to pay the rent and the family went hungry, "Up to the mark all day and every day," as Mr. Galsworthy points out, is the only successful formula for the work-ingman's existence.

Sometimes the disaster strikes a man without a word of warning, just when the family have begun to entertain hopes and to make plans. The Gurneys had just moved into a four-room flat with rent at \$16. They had formerly lived in a rear tenement, but Mr. Gurney, who was a cab driver, thought he was "in steady" for a while. Then one day, Mrs. Gurney, coming home in the afternoon, "saw his boots and his band-box with his hat in the middle of the room." Mr. Gurney was nowhere about. He had gone out again after leaving these silent witnesses of misfortune. Mrs. Gurney threw herself on the bed and wept despairingly. The Gurneys were soon living in a basement.

"Laid off" and "fired" are familiar

words in the family vocabulary. They are among the first Americanisms acquired by the immigrant workman and he can pronounce them with dreadful distinctness. A young Danish woman with gentle manners and refined habits had recently moved to the West Side and was learning English very slowly. In due course of time, her husband lost his place, or, as she put it when I happened in on the very day of the disaster, "Me hoosband bin fired." In this grotesque and sad little statement lay the gist of all the dark possibilities now confronting the Carlsen family. Fortunately, however, these possibilities never arrived, for Carlsen was out only six weeks. In the meantime, his wife took her children to the day nursery and did day's work.

In the group of 370 families there were 283 working children, and of these 28 per cent were under sixteen years of age. In homes where circumstances are poor enough to force the mother into employment, the children naturally go to work as soon as the law permits. There were very few cases where the mother was trying to keep children in school after they were able to qualify for work. For the majority of the women it required heroic efforts merely "to keep the family together." When shelter, food, and clothing are matters of insecurity, education is beyond the possible.

ONE-THIRD of the women visited were widows. There were 125 of these fatherless families where the mother was compelled to perform the duties of both parents and to support a family of several persons on an income scantily adapted to the needs of one. To all these homes disease or accident had dealt a blow which had permanently altered the family structure. The deserting husband may return and take up his responsibilities once more; the loafer may reform and go to work; the man who has lost his job may find another next week or tomorrow—vague hopes like these play their part in the lives of the women whose husbands are still whole and sound. But where disease and accident have done their work the situation of the family is comparatively static. It is true that the widow's children are growing on toward the day when they also will become wage-earners. The precariousness of the family's position is proportioned exactly according to whether that day is near or distant.

Seventy per cent of the total group of 370 wage-earning mothers were employed in some form of domestic and personal service, chiefly outside the home. This included besides public cleaning, which has already been described, work in hotels, restaurants (as waitresses), janitress' work, and kindred occupations.

A lesser group of the women were working in West Side factories. Here

the daily hours are longer but the work is nearer home than the office cleaning jobs. The laundry on the block or the candy factory in the next street,—almost automatically the women apply at these places for work. They may know conditions in the neighboring factory to be especially hard and conditions in a more distant factory to be more endurable, yet they will prefer the job in the nearer place.

The windows of Mrs. Ray's flat faced the rear of the Diamond Laundry. The "Diamond" was well-known for its offenses in overtime. Mrs. Ray could see the women at work there evening after evening and noticed the hour when they went home. In November she remarked, "Them poor souls haven't gone home a night this week till 9 o'clock." But later, when her husband lost his job as driver, she went straight to the "Diamond" to get work. For, notwithstanding the long hours, the laundry windows overlooked her own apartment and its front door was one short block from her own.

THE West Side laundries, in particular—14 in number—are described in a recent report of the state factory investigating commission. According to this report, "Machine washing and ironing, as it is carried on in the motor laundries visited, retains all the worst features of domestic drudgery and adds the further evils of long hours, speeding, and dangerously unhealthful condition."

Here is an extract from an investigator's notebook which describes the home-coming of one laundry worker:

The visitor called at 9 p. m. on Mrs. Sanford, a shaker in a steam laundry. Mrs. Sanford was found sleeping on a sofa near the door, where she had apparently dropped down on coming in from the laundry a half hour before. Her hat lay on the sofa beside her. An old woman was moving about the room and preparing to feed Mrs. Sanford's four-months-old baby which lay in the rocking chair wrapped in a blanket. Neither the operations of the old nurse nor the arrival of the visitor disturbed the laundry worker, who lay across the sofa like a dead person and awakened only when the old woman shook her violently by the arm.

Another extract reads:

Mrs. Ambrosiano came across the street from the laundry at 8 o'clock. She took the baby from Marie and sat down in a chair with the child in her arms. She kept crying as she fondled the baby, "Oh, my back! Oh, my arms!"

A comparison between the work of the women and the work of their daughters points to the changing nature of women's work.

The 370 mothers had 111 daughters who were wage-earners. Needless to say, all of the daughters in these fami-

lies had obtained their working papers at the earliest possible moment. From the list of the girls' occupations, it was found that the percentage in domestic service was a negligible one. Forty-one per cent of them worked in stores and offices and 51 per cent in shops and factories.

Seventy per cent of the working boys were engaged in trade and transportation. They were drivers and helpers on wagons, errand boys, office boys, etc.—that is to say, "runners" of various kinds. Their jobs do not lead to promotions. Only 24 per cent of the boys were engaged in manufacturing occupations.

There are two reasons why so large a number of the youths were found in unskilled and futureless work. The same conditions that cause the mother to work make it difficult for her to stand out for advantageous employment for her children. They must take the first job that presents itself and consider themselves lucky if anything offers. A second reason is simply that trade training is not available.

When we speak of the hours of work of laboring people, we presuppose some hours of leisure. The workingman has an hour at the end of the day when he stretches his legs by the kitchen stove and lights his pipe. Or, instead, he turns into the corner saloon for the miraculous draught which pours the sense of freedom through his veins and wipes out the memory of heavy toil.

But the wife of the workingman who goes out daily to earn has not even this brief hour of freedom. To speak of her "hours of work" is misleading. There is no hour of her day but has its duty, there is no day of her week but has its labors.

Among this comparatively small group of 370 women, almost every variety and

arrangement of working hours known in industry was found. Only a minor group of them, the 23 per cent employed in factories, were in occupations in which the state regulates the hours of labor. The result was that many of them, in occupations ignored by the statutory provisions, worked hours that were excessively long, while for others the working time was unnecessarily interrupted and broken up and irregularly distributed.

THE significance of the length of the working hours in a study of wage-earning women lies in their relation to the home life of the women. Their influence is to be traced in the physical condition of the women and in the condition of their homes. The influence of the hours of work on the wages paid is, as we shall see, less important than might be expected. The women who work by the day, unless in great necessity, do not go out more than five days in the week. They consider that Saturday belongs to their own homes. Some of them who do not need to work more than half time, find they can keep up their homes better by working out three whole days in the week than by taking a regular half-time job that requires attendance on six days.

Many of the short-day workers were public cleaners in offices and theaters, and some of these worked a half day or whole day on Sunday. The working day, which is standardized in some buildings to occupy not more than five and one-half hours, is divided into two "tricks" of three hours and two and one-half hours each. The first is from 6 a. m. to 9 a. m. and the second from 5 p. m. to 7:30 p. m. In some buildings, however, the women work "till they get through."

The hours of the laundry workers, candy factory workers, and other factory employees are regulated by law and limit-



9:15 A. M.—OFFICE CLEANERS GOING HOME.

ed to sixty hours a week.¹ The normal working day for them is from 7:30 a. m. to 6 p. m. with half an hour off for dinner. But overtime is common and I have more than once seen women come into their homes at 9 o'clock in the evening in a shocking state of exhaustion.

Here is an extract from a note book:

Monday evening, March 14. Visitor was present when Mrs. Regan returned from her work at the shirtwaist factory where she operates a buttonhole machine. It was 10 p. m. when Mrs. Regan reached home, having left the workroom at 9:30. Her lips were dry and parched; her voice sounded thick and hoarse, and she swallowed frequently. "You look as if your tonsils might be swollen, Mrs. Regan," said the visitor. "Oh, no," she said, "I'm only tired." Her eyes had a peculiar fixed stare. She was very talkative and began telling a lengthy circumstantial story about one of the day's happenings in the shop. A few moments later she repeated the same story, detail for detail, having apparently wholly forgotten in the meantime that she had told it. In the course of further conversation, she retold two other stories each as detailed as the first. She was in an extreme state of fatigue.

Yet another extract:

Called at Mrs. Murtha's, a costume worker's, at 9 p. m.

Found the kitchen door standing open. The three children were alone and were still waiting for their mother, as they were afraid to go to bed without her. Annie, the oldest, said her mother was working Sundays, too, as it was rush season at the shop.

THE hotel workers, as well as the factory employes, furnished instances of excessive hours. That the women are submissive to these conditions is undoubtedly due, at least in part, to the complete stultification of spirit to which a life of monotonous toil has reduced them.

The hours of full-time waitresses in restaurants are excessively long. In most restaurants they must be present from 8 a. m. to 8 p. m. Scarcely any woman who is keeping up even the pretense of a home can undertake to work as a full-time waitress. Yet there was one woman on my list who was doing it,—working seventy-two hours a week. During the twelve hours of her daily absence, her little boy was cared for in the public school just six hours. For the remaining six, he lived in doorways and on the street. There is, however, considerable opportunity for half-time and part-time work in restaurants. The heavy rush of patronage during the luncheon hour makes it necessary to employ extra waitresses for the midday meals. The hours of this work make it attractive to the mar-

¹This investigation was made before the amendment to the labor law was passed reducing the legal limit of working hours for women from sixty to fifty-four hours a week, which went into effect October 1, 1912. A law prohibiting the employment of women in factories before 6 a. m. or after 10 p. m. went into effect July 1, 1913.

ried woman who finds it necessary to earn.

A considerable amount of Sunday work was discovered. In fact, 10 per cent of the 370 women were working a half day or whole day on Sundays. There is something scarcely less than monstrous in the situation which requires the mother of a family to go to work seven days in the week. Mrs. Mary Carter, who had been a cleaner at the same concert hall for the last six years "off and on," had two children, one daughter of five and another of eight months. Mrs. Carter said she was "even more foolish about this second baby than about the first." When the visitor called one evening, the mother was admiring the baby as it "sat up." "It's the first time I've seen her do it," she explained. "You see I work Sundays, and she's generally too sleepy to play when I get home nights."

There is some night work as well as Sunday work among theater charwomen. Each time a new play is put on, the stage is thoroughly scrubbed. As this is a very special chore outside the usual day's work, it always means night duty or overtime. Some moving picture shows which are open all day and every evening are scrubbed at night. The women go to work at 11 p. m. and return home at 7 a. m., seven nights in the week. One woman had a four years' record of work in such a place.

Seasonal variation in their work is another difficulty with which the women who must have regular work are compelled to contend. Many of the theaters close for the summer; the laundries and candy factories and garment factories are slack in that season. A few of the women manage to dovetail two fairly regular occupations. However, combinations of employment mean a change from one dwelling to another or other changes to which a woman with a family finds it difficult to adjust herself. She has not the mobility of an unmarried worker. Moreover, the finding of two occupations to fill out the year requires more ingenuity than the average working woman can be assumed to possess.

THERE is no free municipal or state employment agency at which these women may apply, as they might if they were, for instance, in the state of Massachusetts or of Wisconsin. The National Employment Exchange of New York, maintained by public spirited citizens, is an agency which aims to bring together the job and the man, with the least possible waste and expense to both sides. But the field of the exchange is limited to manual labor for men, and office work for men and women. It does not handle the manual work of women.

In the meantime, the women of the tenements roughly co-operate to help each other get work. Over half of the West Side women, when asked how they had secured their position, replied that

they had got it "through a friend." The women feel a strong sense of mutual responsibility. It does not occur to them to seek any immediate reward for their services from either side. It is enough for them if they can thus "square themselves with the boss" and secure a friendly fellow worker.

In the following table the weekly earning of the mothers, including part-time and full-time workers, are given. For the sake of establishing a standard, it is assumed that the current earnings of the workers were continuous through the year:

WEEKLY EARNINGS OF 370 WAGE-EARNING MOTHERS

Weekly Earnings	Num-ber	Mothers Per cent
Less than \$1.00.....	3	.8
\$1.00 and less than \$2.00....	16	4.3
\$2.00 and less than \$3.00....	34	9.2
\$3.00 and less than \$4.00....	47	12.7
\$4.00 and less than \$5.00....	48	13.0
\$5.00 and less than \$6.00....	43	11.6
\$6.00 and less than \$7.00....	77	20.9
\$7.00 and less than \$8.00....	39	10.6
\$8.00 and less than \$9.00....	19	5.1
\$9.00 and less than \$10.00..	19	5.1
\$10.00 and less than \$11.00..	9	2.4
\$11.00 and less than \$12.00..	2	.5
\$12.00 and over.....	14	3.8
Total	370	100.0

There seems to be something approaching a standard amount paid which has small relation to the sort of work done or the number of hours worked. This approximates a dollar a day for each working day of the week.

SUNDAY work is the only thing which is almost certain to increase wages. The seven-day workers are likely to earn more than the standard wage of \$6.00 a week. One-third of the women working Sundays were being paid \$9.00 a week and the average for the whole group (37 in number) was \$7.50. The reason for the better rate is apparent. No woman, even when pressed back to her last bulwarks, will leave her home and children to go to work on Sundays—except for a premium. Mrs. Manley, who cleans the office in which this report is being written, works six days in the week for \$6.00. Just after her husband's death, she used to clean in a nearby theater seven days in the week for \$9.00. "But I couldn't keep that up at no price," she said. "My Annie used to cry so about my going off on Sundays. 'It's just as if I didn't have no father nor mother either,' she'd say." So Mrs. Manley sacrificed a third of her income to stay at home with Annie on Sundays.

But short of Sunday work, it did not appear that long hours made for higher wages. In fact, many of the lowest paid workers were laundry employes toiling sixty hours a week. Some of these women were receiving but \$4.50 for the week's work. I asked one of them, an

(Continued on page 38.)

Widows' Needs

By Edward T. Devine

TO assemble and interpret the experience of philanthropic and other social agencies in New York city in relation to the relief of widows with young children was the purpose of the report from which this article is condensed. The aim is to present an impartial description of the actual situation in New York city; and, to discuss some of the elements involved in the social problem, not of widows' pensions but of widows' needs.

From the nature of the study, i. e., of widows with small dependent children, it is obvious that we are considering families in which there has been a premature death of the father. That is to say, the ages of the mothers and of the children testify that it is in the prime of life that the husbands have gone to their graves. This is perhaps almost the only respect in which these families may be said to present a uniform likeness to one another.

Everyone has in mind a typical mother of fatherless children, but the most striking generalization to be made from this study is that there is in fact no such type. There is no widow about whom statements of universal applicability can confidently be made. There are Jewish widows, Italian widows, Irish widows, and widows who were born and raised in New York. There are capable and incapable, strong and delicate widows. There are widows resourceful as the sturdy oak and others dependent as the clinging vine. There are sober widows and drunken widows; angelic widows and demons in widows' form; good mothers and indifferent mothers; widows who are infinitely better off than they were before they become widows, and widows whose widowhood is tragedy and pathos beyond telling.

For the most part the families of the widows who ask for aid have been living at a very low standard before the husband's death. In many instances they have had charitable assistance in his last illness, and such assistance has frequently also been sought in previous emergencies. The wife has more often than not earned a part of the income during her married life.

In exceptional instances the family had maintained a high standard during the father's life time, and these exceptional instances are apt to be remembered and regarded as typical. A critical examination of the records discloses that before his death as well as afterwards the income had usually been small and irregular; sickness and misfortune had been all too common visitors in these families, children had been anæmic and abnormal, the tenement small and unsanitary, and savings conspicuous by their absence.

The occupations and wages of deceased husbands were ascertained in 488 cases. Of these men, 28 had been earning less than \$8 a week—four of these because of physical incapacity and eight because of some mental or moral weakness concerning which definite knowledge was obtainable; 238 had been earning from \$8 to \$12 a week.

These figures, although fragmentary, indicate that the wages as a whole were low, and that the representatives of the skilled and semi-skilled trades were among the least efficient, or at least the lowest paid, in their trades.* This would also indicate that even the death of the chief breadwinner does not ordinarily force families in the higher wage groups to resort to relief societies. Apparently the better paid wage earners do to a large extent provide for their families by insurance or otherwise.

From the families included in this study the cause of the death of the father was ascertained in 1,225 cases. Of these the leading cause of death was tuberculosis, which claimed 480, or nearly forty per cent. Pneumonia is held responsible for 126 deaths, heart disease for 109, industrial accidents for

59, other accidents 72, cancer 46, violence 35, suicide 23, typhoid 22, insanity 25, alcoholism 10.

In the 480 families in which the father died of tuberculosis, there were 1,287 children under fourteen. In the 59 cases of fatal industrial injuries, there was a record of a satisfactory settlement in only four cases. In more than three-fourths of the deaths which occurred in the course of employment the family, so far as the records indicate, received no compensation whatever. Most of the others would apparently have come under the new compensation law of New York State, insuring to the widow from 30 to 66 2/3 per cent of her husband's wages during the whole of her widowhood, and in case of re-marriage for two years additional.

Between the exhaustion of the meagre insurance and application to a charitable society there is often a period of uncertain duration in which the church and relatives display their maximum generosity. This is a period of anxious experiment in various directions, of readjustment and important decisions. If an opportunity for sound advice could be given at this stage, instead of weeks or months later after such personal resources are exhausted, there would be a better chance of a successful issue.

When application is actually made the mother is apt to be more or less demoralized by uncertainty of income and other circumstances which she is ill prepared to meet. If she is ambitious and has a mother's normal devotion to her children, she may be quite worn out by her unguided or misdirected efforts at self-support. If of a hopeless and helpless disposition, she may have yielded to the first suggestion that her children be sent to a home, but may none the less be yearning to have them with her again. She is almost certainly living under intolerable conditions, in miserable, dirty, overcrowded, underlighted, and underfurnished or badly furnished rooms.

Widows in New York City

The total number of widows under the care of the six charitable societies in New York whose records were studied in the fiscal year 1911-12, was 5177. This is less than three per cent of the total number of widows in the city and a little over ten per cent of the number of those gainfully employed. A few of the other ninety odd per cent may apply to other charitable societies or to the Department of Public Charities, but it is evident that an overwhelming majority were taking care of themselves, with such assistance as they may have had from insurance, savings, or other personal resources.

From the census it would appear that

THE REPORT.

This report was drafted for a voluntary committee, which for a year past has been investigating matters relating to the care, treatment, and relief of dependent widows with dependent children in the city of New York. [See Common Welfare pages.]

It is based upon material gathered by Francis H. McLean, executive secretary of the committee, and a staff of trained social workers.

An examination was originally made of 1,556 case records, of which 391 were supplied by the Charity Organization Society; 379 by the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; 278 by the United Hebrew Charities; 300 by the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities; 168 by the Brooklyn Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor; and 40 by the United Jewish Aid Society of Brooklyn.

Later complete summaries were prepared for the writer of 300 records 50 from each of the 6 societies, taken consecutively as they happened to come, in such a way as to preclude the possibility of any attempt to make a favorable or an unfavorable showing of the work of any particular society.

An examination was made also of the applications for the commitment of the children of widows at the Department of Public Charities, both in Manhattan and Brooklyn in the calendar year 1912. It was found that there were 460 such families from whom children were received because of the "death of the father."—Ed.

Three questions may be formulated clearly from the many which presented themselves at the threshold of the inquiry

I

THE QUESTION: *Are children in any considerable number separated from their widowed mothers, to become public charges in institutions or foster homes, who should instead be kept at home with their mothers, whatever financial assistance is necessary to make this possible being supplied?*

THE ANSWER: That the separation of children from good mothers, well qualified to care for them at home, and unable to do so only because of poverty caused by the father's death, is not of frequent occurrence. In four-fifths of the four hundred and sixty families from which children were received as public charges in the calendar year 1912 because of the father's death, there were demonstrable conditions, such as serious illness, improper guardianship, mental deficiency or insanity, which made it appear inadvisable for the children to remain with the mother. In nearly or quite all of the cases in which the children should have remained at home, concerted action by public officials and voluntary agencies, such as actually occurs daily in many cases, could probably have prevented commitment.

II

THE QUESTION: *Are widows who apply to one of the charitable societies or to their church for aid receiving proper consideration and care? Are reasonable plans made for them, and are there sufficient resources to carry such plans into effect?*

THE ANSWER: That the charitable societies do give admirable care in many cases to those who apply to them for assistance; that they have a high and constantly improving standard of work and are realizing their ideal in an increasing proportion of the families whom they attempt to aid; but that, if the actual improvement of conditions in the families be the test, then the results leave much to be desired. In a large number of cases, in spite of whatever aid is given, the health of the mother or of the children is impaired, and progress towards genuine family rehabilitation does not take place.

III

THE QUESTION: *Are widows who are obliged to earn their own support and that of their children, in whole or in part, working under reasonable conditions? Or are they, by any reasonable standards, overworked and underpaid?*

THE ANSWER: That, as far as the self-support of widows known to the charitable societies is concerned, the conditions of their employment, largely because of their limited efficiency, and the resulting limited opportunities open to them, can be described only as unsatisfactory in the extreme. These women are engaged mainly in unskilled occupations in which the wages are low, the hours long, the physical strain severe, and the inducements to exceptional skill or efficiency conspicuously lacking.

working women engage in a great variety of occupations. In some of these the wages of women are sufficient to maintain a decent standard of living for a family and the hours and conditions of labor are reasonable. The case records of the charitable societies disclose no such variety, and in the employments in which the working widows known to them are mainly employed, the hours and conditions of labor are for the most part unreasonable. This is clearly one of the most important and, except among those who have attempted to find suitable employment for working mothers, one of the least understood factors of the whole problem.

The situation which exists in this respect may be of little or no interest to those who take the extreme view that widows with children should not be expected to work at all. They may consistently be indifferent to the details of the employments open to working women. No such indifference, however, exists among working women or among those who are daily engaged in helping them, now with money relief and now in finding work, according to their needs and strength. To the mothers themselves

it seems natural, inevitable, and appropriate that they should work. Most of them have worked before marriage, many of them have worked during their married life, and that as widows they should earn a living for themselves and children is simply in the course of nature, an obvious and unquestioned obligation. What they feel is that the mother should work—not of course if she is nursing an infant in arms, or about to be confined, or if she is seriously ill, or if there is some extraordinary demand upon her in the home, such as an invalid child demanding constant attention, or a large number of very young children, and no older person in the family to look after them.

Looking more closely at the occupations in which the working widows in these families are engaged we find that they are mainly characterized by long hours, severe physical strain, and either low wages or exceeding irregularity and uncertainty of employment. The Italian widow, finishing pants, working excessively long hours, often with the help of children, may clear three or four dollars a week. If she goes out to day's work in some family in the tenements

but little better off than herself she may get fifty cents for a day's washing. The Russian Jewish widow may finish garments at home for about the same wages as those of the Italian; or go out peddling, at which for a shorter day the earnings may be four or five dollars a week; or keep roomers, with the inevitable results of an overcrowded apartment. The Bohemian widow is apt to work, as before her marriage, in cigar factories, earning when skilled eight or ten dollars a week, or more in exceptional cases. The Greek widow is more likely to be found in a candy shop, again at factory wages. Irish and German widows are more generally inclined to do office cleaning or day's work,—washing, ironing, and cleaning—for which the usual pay is now a dollar and a half a day, sometimes with carfare, usually with food in addition; but this work at such pay for the women of whom we speak is scarce, and for the maximum pay women who come in for the day are often expected to do a heavy washing and ironing, sometimes with scrubbing of floors and cleaning of windows between.

Thus widows who ask for aid are ap-

parently restricted in their occupations mainly to finishing work in the needle trades; office cleaning and similar work in the theaters, stores, and other public buildings; and days' work, consisting either of washing and ironing done at home or washing and ironing and cleaning in the home of the employer. The restriction to these occupations is clearly for two main reasons. They demand only a low grade of efficiency, and they do not demand the regular hours of an ordinary office or factory working day. They are unorganized and unsupervised employments. Neither trade union nor factory inspector controls them. There is no standard public opinion in regard to them. In return for the privilege of having some free time each day, or some free days each week, the working mother pays a price which is exorbitant, partly because there is no available means of measuring it.

The fundamental objections to home work, when a "home" means a New York flat of two or three rooms full of lodgers and children, are so serious as to have led to the demand for its total abolition on grounds of health and morals. The police power of the state has already been invoked to this end, and the transfer of all factory work to factories, which can be properly supervised, in which rational sanitary standards can be maintained and in which wages can be determined at least under public scrutiny, is now only a matter of time. Washing and ironing which is taken away from the home will probably eventually be treated as factory work.

This is not at all inconsistent with a movement in the contrary direction which may eventually increase the amount of remunerative domestic occupations,—for example, through the development of co-operative house keeping, or through the organization of specialized service by the hour, including all types of workers from cleaners (with work transformed by science) to efficiency engineers.

The bearing of this on our present subject is that it is precisely in the families of the widows who need help that the severest pressure is felt from the present unregulated, irregular, and underpaid employment.

The Three Occupations

The finishing work done at home is hard because of the excessively long hours necessary to earn anything at all. It is dangerous because of the opportunity which it gives to work and overwork young children. It has all the disadvantages of isolation on the part of the operative and utter lack of knowledge as to the conditions of the employment on the part of the public.

Office cleaning and some other work of charwomen is hard because of the back-breaking, knee-destroying positions which it demands; because of the

indecent of requiring women on hands and knees to clean up the expectorations, the cigar stubs, the tracked-in-mud and other refuse of those who come and go in public halls and stairways, because of the often exceedingly inconvenient division of the working day into two parts; and finally, because women employed in this work are paid less than men cleaners. The wages paid vary considerably, and there are some large office buildings in which every consideration is given to the home demands upon the women, not only in adjusting their hours, but in determining wages.

It is true also that numerous unsuccessful attempts have been made to devise mechanical means of doing this cleaning, and that, temporarily at least, it would be a great hardship to many earning mothers if, by the success of such attempts, this kind of employment should be eliminated. But it is not unlikely that the substitution of mechanical cleaners would be greatly expedited if superintendents of buildings were no longer able to employ six women for the price of three men.

Going out for day's work in families that can afford to pay a dollar and a half a day is, on the whole, the most popular occupation open to these women. Such opportunities exist largely because of the transitional and unsatisfactory conditions of domestic service as a whole. But they are constantly interrupted by the migration of employers in the summer and by their desire for economy, as shown by having the washing done only once in two weeks in the winter, or by asking the employe unexpectedly to leave in the middle of the afternoon, perhaps after finishing the washing and ironing, to save one-third of the day's wages.

Taking these occupations, however, as a whole, the worst thing about them is that they are the occupations of relatively unskilled and inefficient workers, and the worst thing to be said about the workers is that they are for the most part fit for no other kind of employment. They are untrained, inefficient, industrially unfit. No employment agency would be justified in putting them in skilled occupations, even if these were to be had. No employer who demands and is ready to pay for competent work would keep them even if they came. This general lack of competency is not confined to the widows, but was shared, as we have shown, by their deceased husbands. Probably it cannot be very much modified in the adult generation, but it is a very serious question whether it is to be perpetuated in the next generation.

The charitable societies are dealing with persons whose labor in the open market has very little productiveness, who not only have not had specific training in particular trades, but have not learned how to work or to protect their interests as workers. To change these conditions is not within the function or

the power of the charitable societies. Education and industry must bear that responsibility.

Vocations for Widows' Children

The records of the societies do not show sufficient evidence of serious and practical interest in the choice of an occupation as the children come of working age or in securing specific preparation for a suitable occupation. If the boys and girls are not to repeat the experience of their parents or even to fall short of their level, they must obviously be encouraged, and if necessary aided, to get into occupations in which there is apprenticeship, opportunity for learning how to work, personal interest on the part of employers or foremen or fellow workers, that will lead to the steady development of ability and increasingly satisfactory adjustment between the worker and his employment. The safeguarding of vocational interests of individual members of the family is the most important single service which can be given them.

Vocational guidance may ultimately be expected from the public school system. Even the actual teaching of a trade or preparation for commercial positions may become the rule. So long, however, as such facilities are as rare as they are at present and limited mainly to high school grades, there will be urgent need of giving increased attention to the exceptional danger that in these families of working widows the interests of the children will be completely sacrificed, that they will go into occupations in which the only inducements are an immediate wage to replace or supplement the mother's earnings.

The old apprenticeship system is gone, and it is for education or industry to discover a substitute. Practical vocational and half time schools through which children as they reach working age can be adjusted to industry and trade may prove to be such a substitute. Public pensions and voluntary relief are alike impotent to solve the problems of industry and education.

Health

Most of the societies in question have themselves, through their tenement house committees, tuberculosis committees, fresh air activities, and in other ways, distinctly taken the lead in that educational campaign for the prevention of disease to which increased interest on the part of the public is so largely due.

The question naturally arises as to whether this interest in the public health is translated in practice into an effective interest in the health of widows and their children as shown by the case records examined. Such effective interest is frequently, although not by any means uniformly, shown. In many cases excellent work is done to secure proper diagnosis, and appropriate treatment. Some-

times persistent attention is given to a health problem over a period of several years. Often large sums of money are expended to provide necessary convalescent or sanatorium care.

One society has a physician in constant attendance at its own offices to make a diagnosis on the spot of all cases in which disease is suspected. Another has a home hospital in which a few of the families threatened by tuberculosis are taken completely in charge at an average expense of \$1,000 a year for each family, all of which is provided if necessary from charitable sources, in addition to the expert and professional service required. Others command a large amount of volunteer medical service from members of district committees and other physicians, and all of them make daily use of dispensaries and other health services. One society maintains a corps of thirty trained nurses who visit and nurse the sick poor.

The idea may be said to be generally accepted that inquiries about health should be made, that those who seem to require medical attention and are not receiving it shall be examined and advised, that obviously suitable candidates for hospital and dispensary care shall be taken or urged to go for such treatment, and that the relief policy adopted shall be influenced by health considerations. In other words, immediate and obvious health needs usually—though not always—receive attention.

More fundamental health needs are however, it must be said, often neglected. Vigorous action is not always taken to carry out competent advice after it is obtained. Mothers are allowed to work when it would be quite appropriate to provide such an amount of relief as would make employment unnecessary.

Of course, the charitable societies cannot be held responsible for all the serious or petty illnesses in the families under their care. Tuberculosis and typhoid fever appear in well-to-do homes also, and conditions inimical to health, such as too frequent pregnancies and overwork, have been present long before the husband's death or other special misfortune brought them to the notice of the societies.

Nevertheless, when instances are found in which the records themselves bear evidence that anaemic, undernourished children fail to receive special care, that no attempt is made to follow up and remedy some well recognized dangerous condition, that eyes, or teeth, or adenoids are neglected, that prevention of disease and the upbuilding of physical vigor and resisting power is left almost wholly out of the plan for the family, there is certainly room for drastic criticism.

It is pertinent to call attention in this connection to the extraordinary change

in public appreciation of health needs. Perhaps it is hardly an exaggeration to say that the health of the children in the tenements, including the children of the families here under consideration, does actually receive more effective attention than was ordinarily given to the health of the children of well-to-do families a generation ago. In this advance the charitable societies have played a distinguished part; but these ideals have outrun the best efforts of the best societies.

Judged by this new standard of public opinion, and by the highest standards of organized charity itself, there is no one of the six societies whose records do not show instances of failure to anticipate the inevitable results of unduly severe physical strain on the mother and an inadequate income. In every society there are cases in which knowledge of what is needed failed to issue in doing what is needed. While they share the responsibility with others, including the families immediately concerned, they cannot escape the responsibility for having failed, as shown by their own case records, to go as far as they should have gone in many instances.

It is true that there is often a lamentable failure on the part of the patient to realize the need of treatment, reluctance to accept advice, and even stubborn opposition to the most necessary and urgent action. Another difficulty is that when forcible removal would be desirable, the city authorities may refuse to act or to carry out consistently even their own decision that removal is justified. Preventorium care for the young children in close connection with sanatoria for mothers might in many instances overcome the reluctance of the latter to leaving home. To give a pension or relief at home is to accept a measure of responsibility for a recognized dangerous condition, and to withhold relief in the absence of reasonable institutional provision seems uncharitable.

Lack of Institutional Facilities

In justice to the societies and to the families it must be recorded that neither the state nor private philanthropy has by any means as yet provided adequately for the institutions and agencies of various kinds which are imperatively demanded if health needs are to be met.

For the feeble-minded, the crippled, the infirm, and the convalescent there is not sufficient provision. We have not enough hospitals for those who have contagious diseases or even for those who are afflicted by tuberculosis, notwithstanding all the efforts which have been put forth in recent years to supply the latter deficiency. Again and again special treatment of one kind or another is prescribed or quickly discovered by the visitor to be needed, but because of the lack of any provision for the treatment it cannot be secured. Almost every

type of institution is indeed represented; but that is not enough.

So far as the individual needing care is concerned, an institution without vacancies is of course precisely as good as no institution at all. The pressing problem is quantitative.

It is not easy to get intelligent, conscientious medical treatment. Some dispensaries on which reliance must be placed make the most superficial examination of patients and provide no method of following up their diagnosis or prescription. It is impossible to arrive at an accurate understanding of the health needs of a family through such facilities for diagnosis as are provided by many of the medical agencies. When a careful examination has been secured from a physician in private practice, or from a medical member of the staff, or even from the dispensary itself, it is rarely that such a diagnosis can be followed by effective treatment. In many records it is definitely stated that there is need for convalescent care which cannot be secured because there is no vacancy in an appropriate convalescent home, and a visit to the country or seashore would not meet the need. Even more serious is the lack of co-ordination between medical agencies which are simultaneously or successively treating a particular patient. The excellent plan devised for the tuberculosis clinics is obviously needed in every other department.

Housing

Fundamental as a community health need is that for good homes, with real light, fresh air, accessibility, and a reasonable rental. Through their tenement house committees, tuberculosis committees, and otherwise, the societies have constantly emphasized this fact. They have secured the passage of tenement house laws which make the evil conditions of even ten years ago impossible. These splendid educational campaigns impose a new responsibility on the societies themselves as relief agencies, a responsibility which they do not fully meet. Many of the families studied are living in wholly unsuitable tenements, plainly described in the records as such, but for lack of better accommodations at a possible price, or for lack of funds to pay higher rents, serious attempt at improvement is out of the question.

Notwithstanding the difficulties, it is likely that a more clearly defined policy, including a readiness to move families some distance from their present location when there are no strong local ties binding them to it, might result in a considerable improvement. Rents have increased, and the societies, if they are to provide adequate relief in this respect, must take this fact even more fully into account. Paying rent in congested quarters or unsanitary rooms tends to lower instead of raising the standard of living. Serious attempts have been made

to substitute a contrary policy—one society having obtained funds for this purpose—but this requires larger financial resources than have ordinarily been available.

Emergent Relief

Emergent, temporary, and what is sometimes called interim relief, *i. e.*, relief given to meet immediate needs while an investigation is in progress upon which more permanent plans can be based, is supplied by all of the six charitable societies, sometimes in a rather erratic way and in not very appropriate form, but as a rule in such an amount and kind as to prevent suffering from lack of food, clothing, fuel, or shelter.

From the point of view of the community more than this is desirable. It is desirable that similar needs in different families shall be met with some approach to consistency; that there should be some degree of uniformity and standardized relief among the general relief societies.

If the inquiry had extended to the numerous religious, national, and special relief agencies of various kinds, the diversity of methods and of standards would have been found vastly greater and the evidence of the resulting confusion and uncertainty as to what would happen in any given case of need correspondingly increased.

It is not true that those who ask for aid are left to starve, or to suffer other preventable hardships, while long drawn inquiries are made about them. Investigations in fact in some societies are less thorough and careful than is desirable, their apparent purpose being to detect fraud rather than to lay the basis for a sound decision as to what action should be taken. The pioneer agencies in developing a technique of more thorough investigation and a course of treatment logically based upon it are the charity organization agencies, whose methods in this respect are now in use in all of these societies in varying degrees of efficiency. Even greater thoroughness and a more careful and painstaking plan of action at the time of first application than now generally prevail would be desirable and would save a vast amount of subsequent work, after the best opportunity has passed. This applies pre-eminently to the families of widows with small children, for whom continued aid is the rule rather than the exception.

Permanent Relief

We now come to the subject which many will perhaps regard as the crux of the problem, the continued relief supplied to those families of widows who because of illness, or the number of their children, or any other reason, require regular and substantial assistance.

Perhaps the most striking impression made on the credit side, taking them all together, is their patience, courage,

and persistence in dealing with the individual family problems in the face of the difficult task imposed upon them by such conditions as we have already discussed and those to which we have still to call attention.

The relief which the societies supply is sometimes inadequate in amount and sometimes the basic plan upon which it is given is inadequate and ill-considered, but the instances of failure with respect to suitability of employment, fundamental health needs, attention to the individuality of children, the securing of an attractive and sanitary home, and other essentials of family life, are more numerous and more serious than the inadequacy in the amount of relief.

The giving of special diet, attention to decayed teeth, not only as a cause of needless suffering and disfigurement, but as a channel of infection, a lookout for mental deficiency or backwardness requiring special attention, and the general examination for tuberculosis and similar infections are striking illustrations of the advancing standard of family service set for themselves by the societies.

Good work is done in many cases with good results. Good work is done in many other cases with no manifest results. In still other cases improvements on the one hand or deteriorations on the other, may take place independently of any particular relief or service rendered by the society, and in still other cases things drift along with no evidences of any particular change for either better or worse, whether relief is given or withheld.

The results, as we have said earlier in this report, leave much to be desired. A large proportion of all the records bear witness to a very limited success in securing normal conditions for growing children or to any decided improvement in the conditions of family life. We have next to ask for the reasons for this limited success.

One possible explanation, which should have candid consideration, is that the physical, mental, and moral constitution of the individuals in the families in question is inferior.

We have seen that the charitable societies come in contact with from three to ten percent of the widows in New York city who have small children dependent upon them. What might be said is that this small percentage includes nearly all of the least efficient, the least capable, the degenerate, the unfit.

No wonder then that the conditions of their family life do not improve; that the health of the mother breaks down whether she is at work or idle; that tuberculosis and alcoholism find congenial soil; that children inevitably show on the whole the same weaknesses as their parents; that most of the high hopes based upon their coming of work-

ing age result in disillusionment as they arrive at an age when their inherent lack of energy, of ambition, of responsibility, become apparent.

If it is only a question of degree, there is undoubtedly some truth in this explanation. To meet these needs, the societies are pressing vigorously for suitable institutional care for the demonstrably feeble-minded; for reformatory correctional care of those who need institutional discipline; and for surgical or medical attention to those for whom operations, hospital or dispensary treatment, or professional advice would be beneficial.

Visiting nurses, visiting school teachers, church visitors, and conspicuously the agents and visitors of charitable societies, may justly claim to have been the first, as they are still the most active, allies of those physicians, perhaps a minority in their own profession, who are trying to promote conservative eugenic policies, to segregate the feeble-minded and unsound, to remedy physical defects when possible, and to secure for abused and neglected children the protection which society owes them. This is what they are doing in their daily rounds. To assume that social workers in the charitable societies are almoners, or are merely investigating the need for relief, is to betray gross and inexcusable ignorance of their work.

Social Causes of Poverty

The second explanation to be considered for the lack of improvement in some families—and here we are upon surer ground—is that the overwhelming mass of human misery, of which the suffering and dependence in these few thousand families of widows is but a part, is the result of causes and conditions with which both voluntary charity and public relief as such are powerless to deal.

Tuberculosis, typhoid, fatal industrial injuries, insufficient pay, economic inefficiency, the physical strain of overwork, the exploitation of the vices and weaknesses of men and women for commercial profit, are all subjects with which social workers in the charitable societies are deeply concerned, but for which the remedies lie in other and more powerful hands.

Concerning the great creative forces of the misery which they are called upon to investigate and relieve in individual instances they can only lift up their voices in eloquent testimony. They may testify also, as has been intimated, to human weaknesses, to lack of energy and resistance, to the fact that some human beings are apparently from their birth doomed to failure in any severe life struggle. But they may well be appalled when they see such weaker persons, and others not by any means unfit for any reasonable struggle, subjected to uncontrolled infection, to overcrowding, to overwork and injurious strain, to in-

geniously fiendish temptations such as the strongest would not resist under similar circumstances, to a necessity of paying the highest prices for inferior, diluted and polluted commodities and services, and to the further necessity of providing from their own insufficient resources, and by their own inadequate efforts, for such contingencies as sickness and death in the family, for child-birth, for infirmity and old age, for unemployment whether due to personal fault and inefficiency or to industrial causes affecting an entire group or an entire community of workers.

The Need for Workers

In the third place consideration must be given to the causes for unsatisfactory results which lie within the societies or in their financial resources. The most glaring need, as shown by the case records, is one to which their officers and directors have long been alive, but which for various reasons still remains serious. This is the lack of a sufficient number of capable trained visitors to do the work of their relief departments. There is not merely a lack of training and of special ability for this work; there is a lack of a sufficient number of workers of any kind. To each visitor is given responsibility for far too many families. Districts are too large. The pressure of emergent work is so severe that there is little opportunity for quiet, deliberate consideration about difficult situations. There is of necessity too much of perpetual emergency rush and too little time and insistence upon thorough and constructive plans.

Even however if there were enough visitors and supervisors to do the work, it would not be satisfactorily done without a higher standard of selection, of professional preparation, and of compensation. This is a very distinct kind of service calling for altogether exceptional qualities. Mere physical endurance is severely taxed by it. The power to think—to observe, and to form sound judgments—is essential. No superior spiritual quality comes amiss in the complex human relationships which an investigation and the resulting care of a family involve.

Professional training schools are now available for the more direct and complete preparation of those who have the general education and personal equipment required for this exacting work. By a preliminary study of methods and technique, and by supervised field work in connection with such study, a qualified candidate for social work will not only save the time and money of the society, but will lay the foundation for a kind and amount of genuinely helpful service that can scarcely be gained even by the most competent person who has had no such preliminary training.

In at least four of the six societies

it will be necessary to increase salaries substantially if such qualified and prepared visitors are to be secured and retained against the competition of other kinds of social work and other outside vocations which appeal to the same kind of workers, or if, quite aside from such competition, visitors are to keep themselves physically and mentally fit for their work.

Danger of Routine

The impression made by the examination of a large number of records in rapid succession is that the societies are in danger of falling into a narrow routine, covering only a comparatively small number of the items necessary to successful relief work. In most instances attention is paid to relief, even though the amount given may not be adequate; to appropriate relief responsibility, whether it should come for example from church, employer, lodge, or relatives; to keeping wage earners at work; to emergency health needs; and to school attendance.

Less often is serious attention given to fundamental health needs, to vocational interests of children, to discrimination between possible places of employment for wage earners, to recreation, or to moral and spiritual influences. Grave suspicion of the immorality of the mothers has in some instances served as a reason for withdrawing relief, regardless of the children. Such a suspicion in the mind of a competent visitor is only ground for more careful and effective work. There is too little individualizing of children, and in many cases no satisfactory account of the care which they receive while the mother is at work.

No one can tell to what extent the amount available for relief is insufficient until competent service is the rule rather than the exception; but that in cases of need for continued relief the amount actually given is often inadequate, is certain.

In fairness to the societies it must be recognized that no case records can fully disclose the quality or amount of work done or the actual relations which often exist between a district secretary or a visitor and her families. These personal relations may become a vital factor in securing most gratifying results which are not disclosed, because visitors are naturally reluctant to describe them. Records are not kept for the purpose of presenting the societies and their workers in a favorable light. They are kept mainly for a very practical purpose,—to enable the societies when action is necessary on behalf of the family to act intelligently, on the basis of previous experience, and without the necessity of repeating an investigation once thoroughly made.

We may now return to the first of our three original questions; as to whether children are committed who should re-

main with their mothers, the only reason for such commitment being the poverty of a widowed mother.

The consensus of opinion from every group of social workers whom we have been able to consult, and the evidence of the records in the bureaus of dependent children in the Department of Public Charities, is that this is very exceptional, and in so far as it does occur, wholly unnecessary.

In 335 of the 460 families of widows from which children were committed in 1912 for the assigned cause "death of the father," there were conditions present other than poverty which seem to justify the commitment.

Neither Help nor Commitment

In 25 cases neither commitment nor help at home was really necessary, as the later records show in each case either that the child did not actually go to the institution although commitment was formally approved, or that the child has since been discharged to the mother or relatives and is being properly cared for under circumstances substantially identical with those which existed at the time of application for commitment.

In 100 cases, a little over twenty per cent of the 460 (involving less than four per cent of the total number of children committed in the year for all causes) a sympathetic examination of the records in the department of charities and in the societies, supplemented by a visit to the families when there was no society record, indicates that commitment might have been prevented by assistance at home.

The examination of the records of these families from which children are committed leads to certain distinct impressions.

Most fundamental is the abiding impression of the futility of any or all efforts combined to make good to a family the loss of a husband and father who has played his full part in the family previous to his fatal illness. Coupled with this is a sense of the complexity of need presented by these families.

In the families from which applications for commitment are made, there is an impression of terrible struggle to make the few dollars remaining from insurance or savings after the husband's death, stretch over as long a period as possible—a period, however, of increasing poverty, decreasing strength, and multiplying dangers to the family. The high cost of funerals and the close approximation of this funeral expense to the amount of the insurance constantly force themselves upon the attention.

Some at least of the cases of immorality of the mother seem to have been fairly attributable to the presence of a male lodger, or to the fact that the mother keeps house for a widower, typical means of income to which some widows are almost forced by necessity.

Similarly the incorrigibility and truancy of children from seven to ten years of age, mention of which frequently occurs in these records, seems to be to some degree occasioned by the fact that an aged grandmother or other female relative has been suddenly charged with the unfamiliar and difficult task of disciplining boys of the "big Injun" age. On the other hand a young grandmother is often the most steadying influence in the Italian family. Except for her presence the attempt to keep the children with their mother would be much like turning loose a lot of children to bring up one another.

In this connection the question fairly arises whether mothers who support themselves and their children entirely without assistance are doing so only at an ultimate sacrifice of health and of maternal home care, and thus of permanent welfare, which society cannot afford. Naturally this study throws only indirect light on this question, since there has been no direct study of such families.

It is however a fair inference from the facts and impressions made by the records of the families known to the charitable societies and to the bureaus of dependent children, that the real hardships and handicaps encountered by independent working mothers, like those to which we have called attention as arising in the families under consideration, are for the most part such as can be removed only by industrial and social changes, by radical changes in the conditions affecting women's work.

Their hours of work should be shortened; their efficiency increased by training and better organization; their wages correspondingly increased and standardized; their employment adjusted to the physiological needs of women; the supply of labor adjusted to the demands by employment exchanges, intelligently planned and conducted; co-operative arrangements effected for securing proper care for children, chronic invalids or aged persons in the mother's temporary absence, so that a woman capable of doing more productive work shall not be debarred from undertaking it by less important demands.

These reforms are not in the least inconsistent with the superior claims of

home and children when they are superior, but they are in the direction of enabling working women to decide for themselves, as working men decide for themselves, in what way they can most economically and most completely meet their natural obligations. Industrial justice clearly involves such changes in public opinion, such protection and enlargement of opportunity, as have been suggested.

Difficulties arise and hardships occur primarily because women are not trained for skilled occupations, are worn out by long hours and injurious occupations, and are paid far less than a living wage. Relief to the individual victims of industry cannot change industry. The only cure for industrial abuses is industrial betterment; and the state should spend its money in industrial betterment if that is necessary rather than establish a system of relief to meet the exigencies of a situation which must give way with the coming of reforms that are needed and needed now.

Results of the Inquiry

The main results of this inquiry may be recapitulated as follows:

That of all the factors involved in the support of widows and the care of their children, the main responsibility is upon the widows themselves; that they are entitled to the credit for the greater part of whatever has been accomplished in the families studied; and that all measures intended for their benefit should be judged primarily from the standpoint of their probable effect on the ability of the widows to solve their own problems and those of their children;

That widows are usually capable of supporting themselves and their children when necessary, but that in doing so they encounter great obstacles and hardships, which can be removed only by radical changes in the conditions of women's work;

That the occupations in which widows who apply for relief are engaged are characterized by inefficiency of workers, low wages, and irregularity of employment;

That these evils can be met only by early training, a better distribution of workers through efficient employment

exchanges, and higher standards of compensation;

That vocational training and guidance for children as they come of working age, and sound advice as to occupations, are urgently needed;

That more hospital and sanatorium facilities are required for the sick, the disabled, the infirm, the convalescent, and the mentally deficient, facilities both for diagnosis and for treatment;

That although great improvements have been made in the standards, methods, and policies of the charitable societies, there is much room for further improvement;

That, in particular, more trained workers, with higher salaries, or more trained volunteer workers, or both, and larger resources for relief, are indispensable for the preservation of the health and well being of the families now under the care of the societies;

That the case records of the charitable societies indicate that conditions in the families under care do not always improve, but sometimes grow worse, these unsatisfactory results being due partly to the causes just named, but in large part to personal and social causes which neither public relief nor voluntary charity can reach; but upon which those who have to do with the relief of the poor should constantly insist;

That mothers who are suitable guardians for their children, physically and morally able to care for them properly, are not seeking in any large number because of poverty alone to have their children committed as public charges;

That the charitable societies have shown both the desire and the financial ability to provide relief in such cases when called to their attention, although in these as in other cases the relief is sometimes inadequate;

That there should however be a still better co-ordination between the bureaus of dependent children and the voluntary agencies to prevent the relatively few unnecessary commitments of this kind which still occur;

That the ideal solution of the widows' problem is a longer and more productive life for working fathers, and provision for widowhood and orphanage through a liberal, inexpensive, and safe system of social insurance.

"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"

Sixth Article

The Poor and Their Poverty

THIS chapter is not about those of whose "short and simple annals" Gray wrote. It is not of those to whose "honest poverty" Burns referred. Nor does it treat of any who can sing, "Be it ever so humble." All of these may have been poor, but they were not "The Poor." There is fresh air blowing through every one of those poems. They breathe of all that is wholesome, tender, sacred, the real riches of life.

But one cannot write a pastoral poem about the poor. There is no song of the lark over their heads, to weave into the verse, no "lowing herds," no fireside circle, with its "peace of heart." Instead, there is the Wolf outside the door, howling to the dark. And those who hide and cower inside are the ones we call "the submerged," the Children of the Shadow. For the most part, in our country, they are the children of the city and the town.

Distance, perspective, "chiaro-oscuro," may be to blame, rather than our eyes, that we see the poor as a mass of shadow, painted in one flat gray wash, at the remote edges of our sunshine. In fact, they are generally spoken of in that way, as if that one drab word named, defined and classified all who were over the line, on the shadow side. And there is so often reproach in the word, and abhorrence in the tone with which it is spoken, that I am fain to plead for them a better acquaintance and a fairer judgment. That is why I am writing this chapter, to bring the poor nearer, as with a sort of field glass, to those who have never really known them.

It cannot be gainsaid that the majority of people in any city know nothing about the poor. I have found by investigations in many cities and towns that, outside of a limited circle of charitable people, and a number of ministers, doctors and policemen, no one could give any trustworthy information about the number or condition of the poor. While there may even be large societies with many committees, whose members give much time to planning charity work (much of which must consist in raising funds) and while these members even "bestow their goods to feed the poor," so often the actual visiting of the poor is done by the secretary, and a few committee members.

The same is true of the churches, where only a limited percentage of those



PITY

By A. Cordonnier, Musée de Luxembourg, Paris

THE WRECK¹

We found a wreck cast up on the shore,
Battered and bruised, and scarred and rent,
And I spoke aloud, "Here was worthless work,
And a barque unfit to the sea was sent."

But he said, my friend, in his gentler mood,
"Nay, none may say but the work was good,
For who can tell of the seas it sailed,
Of the waves it braved, and the storms withstood?"

Then we spoke no more, but I mutely mused,
And I thought, "Oh, heart and oh, life of man,
That we find wrecked, we may never know
How brave you were when your course began!"

who give ever get inside of the homes of the poor. By those who go the tale is brought back to the meeting, and passed on, second-hand and so on; so that "the quality of mercy" is "strained," through a great many sieves. The smell, the dirt, the misery, are mostly filtered out through the first medium through which the tale passes, and the colorless, sterilized material which flows on cannot make any one feel badly enough to be a missionary.

¹Published originally in 1888 in Mrs. Bacon's Collection of Verse Songs Ysame, L. C. Page & Co.

By

ALBION
FELLOWS
BACON

It is noticeable that we can bear with great philosophy the sufferings of others, especially if we do not actually see them. But, to be truly and consistently charitable, we must believe that those who speak most harshly of the poor are like the little girl who could not be cured of biting other children until some one bit her. Up to that time she had no idea that it really hurt. It is those who have never been bitten by the things that hurt the poor who criticize them. One of those who "stood afar off" sat by me one day, at an elegant luncheon, and divided her time between polite inquiries about my work, and impolite remarks about the poor. After worming out of me what the tenement law would give to the latter, in the way of water, plumbing, etc., she expressed herself strongly as to the waste of such things on the poor, who were "filthy," and "would put coal or vegetables in the bath tubs," who "didn't appreciate anything done for them," were "destructive to property," etc.

"But the law *doesn't* give them bath tubs," I tried to say, with no chance to enlarge on the fitness of providing them for those who were "filthy." When her tirade abated I ventured,

"May I ask whether you have gone much among the poor?" "Oh, mercy, no," she answered, in a tone of horror and disgust. "I couldn't bear to mix with that kind of creatures."

And then I couldn't refrain, "I judged so, for I never heard any one speak of them that way, who really knew them."

"Why do you spend your time and strength for that kind of trash?" a friend asked me. "If they were deserving, or appreciate what you do, even, it wouldn't be so bad."

Even those who work among them often fail to measure them by fair standards. "You can't believe anything one of them says," complained a girl who taught a mission class. If we must make people see that it is those who are sick, and not the well, who need a physician, may we not also call in an optician? "The poor are so miserable, and they make every one about them so miserable, isn't it a pity they can't all die off, like flies, in the winter?"

The girl who asked that, in unsmiling jest, was working then to the point of exhaustion, out of sympathy for the poor. The protest I want to make is against the two commonest but greatest errors.

One is, the unfairness of speaking of the poor, in one contemptuous breath, as if they were all of one class, and all degraded. The other is, the assumption that the poor have peculiar faults and vices which make them odious, and differentiate them from all the rest of society.

For the first, let me say, that when we come close enough to the Shadow so that we can distinguish tones and values,



THE RIGHT BACKGROUND FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDEDNESS AND TUBERCULOSIS IN THIS FAMILY



MAKING A BACKYARD GARDEN UNDER DIFFICULTIES

we see that there are different types and groups, and that some are plunged much deeper than others. Then we notice individuals standing out clearly, and we are struck by the marks of their unlikeness to the rest, as if they belonged to a higher plane. There are so many among them who have been well born, well educated, reared in comfort, often in luxury. Some have but lately fallen, and are still dazed by the shock. Having lost only fortune, and retaining still their habits of culture, they are no more of the underworld than the spirit of Dante was of the Inferno. In a study of poverty there is little more to say of them than could be said of any victim of a wreck or explosion. But in a study of the poor our first care must be to save these victims from the common scorn, and to ask for them the sympathy that is their due.

Survivors from "Better Days"

Even more pitiful are those who have come, by a slow and hard descent from wealth to want. Decay is sadder than wreckage. "A decayed gentlewoman" is a product of pinched, painful years. We have found, in our slums, some old couples, once prosperous and happy, who had gradually lost all they had, and were now fighting, with their last feeble effort, against going to the alms-house,

and had planned suicide together if the last resort failed.

In stifling garrets, in dark tenements of our cities, are hidden away many tragedies, as sad as any Dickens ever wrote, that will remain sealed until the Day of Judgment unless some friendly hand unclasp the volume. When the story ends with the death of the aged, the end is a happy event. But if there be a sequel through succeeding generations, it may grow more and more tragic. The outcome of the story will depend largely upon where the scene is laid. In other words, the matter of environment will be an enormous factor in the rise or decline of the family.

All the way down, through lessening degrees of original culture and wealth, to the very lowest strata, we find people who have been thrown under by a sudden turn of the wheel of fortune. Many of them can be helped on to their feet once more. Many are so broken in health or in spirit that they will never rise again.

One can tell, by a certain air, or frost in the air, those who have "seen better days." Often there will be some heirloom left, some picture, or a piece of furniture that tells the tale. The next generation may still retain the furniture, and a trace of the culture, like the worn gilding on a tarnished mirror, but if

the children stay in the slums, they will be of a different type.

A woman of the second generation of slum dwellers, and of common-place origin, came once to iron for me. There was a thrifty strain in her, from some antecedent, that made a puzzling mixture with her "poor-folksy" air. Thinking to encourage her, I praised her ironing.

"Yes," she said, airily, "I think I do arn pretty well, considerin' I haint arned fer so long. We used to hev a' arn, but now it's gone."

"How do you manage"? I asked, quite puzzled.

"W'y, we jest fold th' clo'es, an' put 'em in th' trunk. But I *do* think they look better arned," she added.

The next generation will probably wear their clothes both unwashed and unironed.

The Next Generation

One of the points I want to emphasize is that several generations of slum environment will produce a slum heredity, and the children will have that to contend with, as well as the slum environment. In our slums are girls who never saw a room properly cleaned, or ate a meal properly cooked, and neither did their mothers or their grandmothers. There was "nothing to do with," of course. They had no proper utensils or materials. There may have been wealth, even nobility, away back in that family, but it "buttered no parsnips," and provided no soap. The use of the right forks comes only by using forks. No matter how many Greek professors grace one's ancestry, or how many clergymen bless



A CLOSING SCENE IN THE TRAGEDY

it, the descendant will lisp in Billingsgate, if he hears nothing else.

The daily lesson of slum life, visualized, reiterated, of low standards, vile living, obscenity, profanity, impurity, is bound to be dwarfing and debasing to the children who are in the midst of it. Even in the second generation these influences are blackening and corroding enough to destroy the faint impression of "where mother used to live," and "what father used to do." By the third generation, even that background is lacking.

I cannot enlarge upon the deterioration of families, through successive generations of slum life, without considering the effect of the sub-normal environment upon the normal family, in the case of our working classes. And this makes me boil over again.

The outrage of our American cities is the way we bid for home-seekers, when we have no homes to offer them, after we lure them to come. Our factories scour the country for workers, bring them in, and turn them loose, to find shelter wherever they can. Our business organizations offer bonuses for new factories, bidding for these which bring in the largest number of families. "Another factory! 100 families! More prosperity!" they announce, in big headlines.

And the families? As lightly as a chemist pours drugs from one vial into another, these human beings are transferred from one environment to another. The fact that a city has not already enough decent houses for all its population, and that its poor are living in sties, causes no one any concern. When the workmen come with their families, many of them have to crowd into filthy, unsanitary tenements with the poor, and subject their children to the companion-



CITIZENS-IN-MAKING, OR GANGSTERS-ELECT?

ship of the vicious and degraded. The fact that the working-man could afford more rent, and would gladly pay more for a better house, makes no difference. His family must have shelter. He shelters them where he can.

"The workmen have all found homes," we are told.

"Homes"? Where?

One of the saddest sights of the slums is to see the thrifty wife of the working man, with her rosy brood of children, used to country air and sunshine, used to space, privacy, good surroundings, cleanliness, quiet, shut up amid the noise and dirt and confusion, in the gloom of the slum. That is an unusual family that can maintain the sanctity of its home life, in the tenements of a bad neighborhood, where there is no privacy, that can hold the children under strict discipline,

if they are too large to shut inside the rooms, and must go to school or to work. If the father be not drawn to the saloon, and the boys and girls to the street, they must be both Spartan and Puritan. The brave fight may be made if the father and mother are spared, to hold control, and provide the bread. But how many working men in our cities, the records show, fall a prey to tuberculosis, typhoid, pneumonia, and other "house diseases!" How many mothers are beckoned from their little families by the same ghastly finger! Any one who will search the records will find that a startling number of dependent families become so on account of death or prolonged illness of the bread-winner.

And the children?

The ranks of the dependent and delinquent are recruited—in what percent-

age we ought to know, but any percentage is too large—from the families of the working-men that are brought into our cities and dumped into our dilapidated old death-traps.

And so I say that the responsibility is upon those who import working-men to see that there are decent homes for them when they come, and not to set snares to destroy them and their children.

When we come to consider the lowest strata of the poor, we find defectives, degenerates and their brothers, those who feed our institutions over which the state has care, and who are in turn recruited by the classes just above, as well as by their own offspring. It is these who give to all the poor the stigma of being "filthy," "shiftless," and all the other odious epithets. Here, "at the bottom," we find we are dealing with quan-

ties less variable. We often say that riches and poverty are only comparative. In its lowest deeps poverty is almost absolute.

"He that is low need fear no fall." How much less need he fear who is already on the ground, except to fall into a pit? Sickness, injury, accident, are the pits the poor dread, and well they may, as our Nurse's Circle found. Now I am reminded that the poor have their own pleasures and enjoyments, and I know that many funny stories are written about certain types. But these are the child-like, irresponsible ones, with natures of cork, who have never grown up, and never will. They can lock the Wolf in the closet, with the Skeleton, for the day, any time, and, following the hurdy-gurdy whither it whines, set off for a merry vagabondage. It is true, there are always humorous things coming up in the discussion of charity cases, odd mistakes and droll conversations. But, thinking them over, with their setting, one finds that they are much like the relief scenes in Macbeth.

The Faults of the Poor

Whatever any one may say of the lowest types of the poor, I hold that all of the faults ascribed to them are due to their being either undeveloped or defective, and the worse the fault the more defectiveness it shows. This is my one plea for those who cannot employ their own advocate, and who need one most. The bold and bad can make their own defence. The sharp and shrewd may find their own excuses. But for these, who are always absent when they are maligned, let this plea prevail.

It hurts me to hear the tone in which the poor are condemned, as "shiftless," or "having a pauper spirit," just as it would if a crowd mocked at a child for its weakness, or laughed at a lame man because he could not run, or a blind man because he stumbled.

The poor are lame, maimed, halt, blind, in a way. They may not be defective enough to admit them to an asylum, but they are too defective, mentally and physically, to keep up in the race. They cannot see as we do, and have inhibitions that hold them back even from the good they see.

"Lazy"! Some of them are "born tired," and enter into life without their share of vigor or vitality. Some of their mothers were overworked and under-nourished, perhaps scrofulous. Some of them, themselves, are over-worked and under-fed, or have lost their efficiency through illness or exposure. And they breathe poisonous air, sleeping in unventilated quarters, six or twelve in a room. They drink sewage-poisoned water, that makes people lethargic and dull.

As to the poor—many, not all of them



"CHUMS"

—being "filthy," we must admit the fact, but we insist on the reason. As to their "preferring to be filthy," I have said enough in other chapters of the heroic efforts some of them make to be clean. I wonder, as I see them carrying water so far, and up and down stairs, how they have the heart to do it. I wonder how many of us would try as hard to be clean. One marvels at the persistence of the conception of purity, in our slums, and marvels, too, that the seven plagues have not swept the poor, and us along with them, off the earth.

The Virtues of the Poor

It is so easy to account for the faults of the poor. It is their virtues that are unaccountable. We find many cases of heroism, in their struggle against desperate odds. The generosity of the poor is proverbial, and seems to be in inverse proportion to their possessions. It is a common thing to find a family giving up one of their rooms to another family. We knew of a family in two rooms giving one to a woman who was dying with tuberculosis. It is not unusual for one or more waifs to be taken into a family, even though the meagre supply of food and clothing is already insufficient.

A most remarkable case was that of a woman who adopted the deformed idiot boy I spoke of seeing on my first round of the slums. He died some months ago, and we heard then the strange story of his life. His mother died when he was a little child and he was adopted by a friend of hers who was no relation, or, at least, only the half aunt of his step father. The boy grew to be a terrible burden, being large and heavy, and unable to walk, or to do anything for himself, and had to be cared for and wheeled about like a baby, even in his teens. Yet the woman clung to him, and gave him the most devoted care, refusing to go to her family, with marvelous self-denial. By the time he died she was a physical wreck, completely worn out.

As I write these things there comes over me again that feeling that always overwhelms me when I look out upon an

audience, of well-dressed, well-fed, well-housed people, and note the sheen of silk and the glisten of jewels. How can we put the story of Poverty's Children into the vocabulary of these Children of the Sunshine? How can we explain to those who have to diet, as a penalty for high living, or who have to take tonics to create an appetite, what real hunger means? So with fears and anxieties, and all the rest of the troubles of the poor.

The Fears of the Poor

The same words do not mean the same thing to them and to us. "Safety"—that is a thing we rarely think of, except when we travel. In our homes we tuck our children into soft white beds, bolt doors and windows, and with a comfortable thought in the background of Providence, our good man, and the police, sleep with no thought of fear.

I know of mothers who have to lock their little children into their tenement rooms when they go to work for the day. Others have told me that they have to hurry home, after washing, for fear their little girls will get home first, from school, in terror lest they fall into the hands of one of the low drunken lodgers in the place. There are mothers who tremble when an ambulance or a patrol wagon rumbles by, and who hide their little ones under the ragged coverlet when the noise of heavy feet on the stair tells that a carousal is over or a fight is on. And if the daughter steals in later, off the street, they are thankful that she comes in at all.

"But the lowest types, not having our sensibilities, cannot suffer so keenly," people say.

If they have not our refined anguish, neither have they our higher consolations. Superstition shadows the poor with countless fears, as we find at every turn. Some writers dwell strongly on the paralyzing terror of want, the fear that the Wolf will actually end them. Do they fear it so, those half brothers of Romulus, who have known only that same shaggy foster mother? Or do they think of her as Hood's seamstress thought of Death—"I hardly fear his terrible shape, it seems so like my own." The higher types do show this fear, with an equal dread of the almshouse. The thought of a pauper burial preys upon them too. Some of them will take us to a little battered trunk, and show us, folded away, the clean sheets, the coarse shroud, and the small sum of money, saved, though they starve, so they "can be put away right."

The question of "sensibilities" is made so much of that one would be led to believe, almost, that the question of the shabbiness of the poor was a question of poor taste, and not of a poor purse. "Pore folks has pore ways," of necessity. But the discussion of the ragged children over the dress in the shop window was



TWO NEVER-FAILING SLUM HARVESTS

significant. "If it's pretty, it costs, and if it costs, we caint git it."

Our Flower Mission girls had many tales to tell of the craving of the poor for beauty, for finer things, often for higher things. One of them made a conquest of a group of girls in a tenement neighborhood. Their admiration reached the point of wanting to copy her dress, her hat, and her coiffure, and she actually took down her beautiful hair to show them how she arranged it.

Girls who live in the dismal slum and work in the dingy factory, going to and fro past the brilliant shops, seem to have a special hunger for the bright pretty things they cannot afford. Some feed their souls on beads, cheap lace and pathetic millinery, as inadequately as they do their bodies on "sodies" or popcorn balls. Many of them acquire remarkable taste, and develop a desire to be "stylish," trying to keep as close as possible to the heels of fashion, which, with their limited means, often makes them as grotesque as our actual shadows.

A girl who was shivering, coatless, in a freezing wind, thankfully received a good and comfortable wrap. She put it on joyfully, then looked it up and down with an expression of uncertainty. "Is it in style?" she asked anxiously.

The installment store man knows full well of the craving of the slum dwellers for brightness and beauty. He sends shiny things and rugs of glowing colors to their doors, and they cannot resist them, any more than they could resist holding out cold hands to a fire. Having no idea of value or economy, they take these articles, at enormous prices, perhaps to lose both the coveted treas-

ure and their money, when they fail to make payments. But we can't blame them. If I had to live in one of those gruesome holes I would go without bread for a red rug.

The Pauper Spirit

While I am answering for the poor, let me speak of the "pauper spirit." It is the spirit that the skillful worker tries to supplant by pride and independence, but unless there has once been a spark, it is hard to start a flame. And why should one have pride, when he has nothing to be proud of?

"My grandfather was a squire," a poor woman said proudly, and at the word all her ragged children held their heads a little higher. We knew that they might go bare, but they would never beg. But those who have had no grandfather, or, sadder still, no father, should not have so much expected of them.

The pauper spirit, when exhibited by shrewd people, of a higher type, is quite a different spirit from that of the born pauper.

"I can't think of asking charity," said a woman who had been "working" many of our generous citizens, "so I came to ask your help. You have influence and affluence, and I need your aid." Those were her actual words.

Another appeal, by letter, from a distant town, expressed confidence in my generous and noble heart (as per some newspaper account) and, explaining the needs of the young lady of the house, asked for a set of parlor furniture. Every one in public life receives such appeals from unknown people.

With those who are really helpless,

weak and ignorant, the pauper spirit seems to be a touching confidence in a higher power. "If the people that 'tends to things could see the awful place I live in, they'd surely do something about it," said one old woman who came to ask for help with her rent.

"The pauper spirit"—what is it, in such as these, but the spirit in which the child cries for food, the spirit in which we make most of our prayers, those that are not communion or thanksgiving, but simply appeals for material blessings?

We all agree that, if any trait belongs exclusively to the poor, it should be this one. Yet we find it in all walks of life. What traits can be found, then, that mark only the poor?

If we try by elimination to discover their peculiar faults and vices, we find none that are not shared by some members of the wealthy and middle class. Going over the catalogue of their reproaches, we cannot find any that can even be applied to all the poor. "Lazy, shiftless, improvident, spendthrift, intemperate, lacking in honor, in honesty," these do not differentiate the poor, even those to whom these epithets apply; they only show their fellowship with the weak and low of other classes.

After all, nothing seems completely to differentiate the poor but poverty. We find no adjectives to fit them, as a whole, only those of which Want is the mother. "Miserable" covers many; "shabby," most, and I am sadly aware that in a large majority of minds, "disagreeable" includes them all.

Shadows, they are, indeed; not remote, as we may think of them, but here, at our side, at our back, flitting across our path, weaving about us the dark web of their own misfortunes.

But because we are ignorant about the poor, we need not assume that they know as little about us.

The Field Glass Reversed

It is surprising, sometimes, what close track they keep of us. In one of our largest tenements I found one day an old retainer of my mother's, who used to wash my tiny frocks, and had been a valued servant in the days of her strength. We had lost sight of her, and it was a shock to find her here. She was as delighted to see me as if I were kin, and asked about each member of the connection, commenting upon their recent doings with so much accuracy that I was amazed. "How do you keep track of them all?" I asked, knowing she never saw them. "Oh, we take a newspaper here, and read about all of you," she answered. I found that all the tenants contributed to the subscription for one paper, which was passed about from hand to hand until it was worn out. It gave me a new sensation, that of turning the field glass the other way.

How do we look to them?

(Continued on page 44.)



Editorials

EDWARD T. DEVINE
JANE ADDAMS
GRAHAM TAYLOR
Associate Editors

PAUL U. KELLOGG
Editor

THE gunmen's tools were poor instruments to unravel a desperate tangle of the underworld. Mr. Lane (page 13) makes us want to cast the electric chair into the same junk-heap; makes us question a scheme of criminal law which ends in a mechanical invention to destroy when it should begin with a social invention to save,—and build on that.

“THEIR effortful lives represent the most difficult and painful phase of woman's adjustment of age-long activities to conditions in the present world of wages.” So concludes Miss Anthony's study of the Mothers Who Must Earn, a transcript of life which goes on beneath the familiar superstructures of gentle living and garish delight, of political struggle and of racking business endeavor. The accompanying article by Mr. Devine reviews the work of relief by six charitable societies of New York among such families. There is stirring challenge in his presentment; and today the public is readier to listen than ten years ago when the late Emil Münsterberg, head of Berlin's Department of Public Charities, explored American poverty and told us that we, no less than the old world, needed to put imagination and treasure into relief, beyond what was as yet turned into it in any city or any country.

A reading of these articles, in conjunction with the findings (p. 23) of public and private inquiries in New York into the problem of widows' pensions, shows, however, how far the situation transcends the shortcomings of voluntary relief agencies or the promise held out by state aid. We need to carry to new and higher levels our schemes of public and private help for stricken families in which there are little children; but back of their household problems, enmeshing them along with unnumbered other households likewise dependent on the deficit earnings of men and women, lies a labor problem beside which Calumet is a cradle of hope, and this season of unemployment a passing ill.

New York has prohibited cellar dwellings; but life and labor are acquiesced in at subnormal economic levels which can only be compared to sinking our tenements six stories underground. Every probation officer, district agent, and visiting nurse could add to Miss Anthony's testimony and Mr. Devine's grave characterizations. Yet we haven't driven home the community's responsibility as we do when a great corporation exploits its men. We haven't visualized this evil as

we have housing reform. We have not set it off as a thing to fight as we have set off tuberculosis.

THE new Perkins Institution (page 7) is a culmination of that mighty movement of the last century which set out to break down the barriers of physical handicap and open the way to fullness of life to blind and deaf and mute. Its beauty and resourcefulness typify the achievements of the exceptional blind; and well may Perkins stand as their Oxford—a high training-school to carry the heritage of the sightless to its uttermost.

But, shall we therefore urge every other city and state to build along equivalent lines? Back of the miracle of a sightless violinist lies the prose struggle of a hundred unmusical, unexceptional, unseeing folk. Better, rather, a hundred Hamp-ton for the blind in the new world.

The special enrichment in art and culture and music of all institutions for the sightless goes without saying. They should make amends for the lost appeal of the eye and stir the rare spiritual growth of the unseeing. But in these days of the vocational movement for seeing children in our schools we may well look for its counterpart for the unseeing. The occupations and environment which will mean normal household life and livelihood for blind boys and girls in the world they are to enter, should begin in their years of growth.

Might not Perkins itself come to bear a post-graduate relation to such centers of more everyday training?

CHILD LABOR AND INTERSTATE COMMERCE¹

WILLIAM DRAPER LEWIS
Dean of the University of Pennsylvania Law School

THE national child labor bill introduced by Mr. Palmer last January which has been referred to the Committee on Labor of the House, and also the national child labor bill introduced by Mr. Copley last July, which is before the Committee on Interstate and Foreign Commerce, and which has the endorsement of the caucus of the members of the Progressive Party, are based on the proposition that Congress has the right to exclude from interstate commerce the products of a manufacturing or other establishment where conditions destructive of the health or morals of the

¹Substance of an Argument before the Committee on Labor of the House of Representatives, March 9, in support of the constitutionality of a national child labor bill.

employees are allowed to exist. The soundness of this proposition can hardly be seriously questioned in the light of the decisions of the Supreme Court of the United States.

There are two views of the power of Congress over interstate and foreign commerce. One was enunciated by Marshall in *Gibbons vs. Ogden* (9 Wheat., 196-197). In Marshall's opinion the power of Congress over interstate commerce is just as absolute as the power of the states over intrastate commerce, although it cannot, any more than any other power of Congress, be so exercised as to violate any of the constitutional restrictions on the federal power.

"The power over commerce," he declares, "like all others vested in Congress, is complete in itself, may be exercised to its utmost extent, and acknowledges no limitations, other than are prescribed in the constitution." And, he adds:

"These limitations are expressed in plain terms. . . . If, as has always been understood, the sovereignty of Congress, though limited to specific objects, is plenary as to those objects, the power over commerce with foreign nations and among the several states, is vested in Congress as absolutely as it would be in a single government, having in its constitution the same restrictions on the exercise of the power as are found in the Constitution of the United States."

The theory thus clearly stated by the great chief justice can be illustrated in this way. Suppose Congress passes a bill prohibiting interstate commerce in a certain article. Such an act would be a regulation of commerce. The plenary power of a sovereign to regulate includes the right of absolute prohibition. The question of the constitutionality of such an act, therefore, depends on the answer, not to the question, "Is it a regulation of commerce?" but to the question, "Does the act violate a constitutional limitation?"

There are only two limitations which may restrict the exercise of the power of Congress to exclude an article from interstate commerce. The fifth amendment provides that "No person shall . . . be deprived of life, liberty, or property without due process of law." It can at least be argued,—with what force it is not necessary here to decide,—that an act of Congress which prohibited traffic in an article without expressed or apparent reason, would deprive owners of their property "without due process." It may also be argued that the ninth amendment, by providing that "the enumeration in the Constitution of certain rights shall not be construed to deny or disparage others retained by the people," prohibits a purely arbitrary exercise of power by Congress; and that the exclusion without apparent reason of an article from interstate commerce, would be an arbitrary exercise of power."

It should here be pointed out that under Marshall's view, the tenth amendment imposes no restriction on the power of Congress over interstate and foreign commerce. It provides that, "the

powers not delegated to Congress, are reserved to the states." But the power over interstate commerce and foreign commerce is "expressly delegated" to Congress.

THE other view of the power of Congress over commerce is that besides the express limitations contained in the Constitution, Congress is prevented from so exercising the power as indirectly to regulate matters which it cannot regulate directly. It is said that to allow such regulation would defeat the very purpose of the tenth amendment, which reserved to the states the powers not granted to Congress nor prohibited to the states.

Whatever may be said for or against these two views, the view of Marshall is today the view of the Supreme Court. In 1895 Congress passed an act for the suppression of lottery traffic through national and interstate commerce. This act, among other things, makes it an offense to carry a lottery ticket from one state to another. Its constitutionality was attacked and the two views of congressional power just indicated, were presented to the court. The majority, taking the position of Marshall in *Gibbons vs. Ogden*, decided that the act was constitutional. The minority, adopting the second view, thought the act should be declared void.

The Lottery Case (188 U. S. 321) was decided in 1903. Since then the constitutionality of the federal pure food and drugs act and of the white slave act have come before the court. These decisions also depended upon which of these conflicting views the court would adopt. The lottery case was decided by a divided court, but in the later decisions, *Hipolite Egg Company vs. United States* (220 U. S. 45) decided in 1911, supporting the pure food and drugs act, and *Hoke vs. United States* (227 U. S. 308) decided in 1912, supporting the white slave act, Marshall's view was followed with the concurrence of every member of the court. At the present time, therefore, the members of our highest court apparently believe that in determining whether Congress has the right to prohibit the interstate transportation of a class of persons or products, only the express limitations of the Constitution need be considered. For this reason it seems unnecessary to bring special arguments to the support of this theory. One argument, however, deserves special mention.

A state has the undoubted right to prohibit the manufacture of adulterated food or drugs within its domain; it can also forbid their importation from other states (*Plumley vs. Massachusetts*, 155 U. S. 461, 1894). A state has the right to forbid the sale of lottery tickets, both parties to the sale being within its borders; it could probably prevent their importation under the reasoning in the *Plumley* case. A state has the right to prevent the physical and moral degeneration of children by overwork in manufacturing establishments; but it cannot forbid the article manufactured by child exploitation from being introduced into the state so long as the article itself is unadulterated and safe (*Leisey vs. Hardin*, 135 U. S.

100, 1889; *Schollenberger vs. Pennsylvania*, 171 U. S. 1, 1898).

In other words, while the states can protect their manufacturers from the competition of the makers of adulterated foods, they are powerless to exclude the competition of foreign makers who cheapen their product by the exploitation of child labor. Should Congress lend its aid to the states which protect their child resources, it would therefore be helping them in a field in which they cannot help themselves; whereas in the food and drugs act, Congress enacted federal legislation, not because it was the only protection open to the state, but because it was doubtless the best protection possible.

IT would indeed be a serious indictment against the wisdom of the framers of our Constitution to say that they took away from the states the right to protect their own manufacturers from unfair trade practices carried on by competitors in other states, and yet failed to give Congress the power thus taken from the states. For it is unfair competition for a manufacturer to exploit child labor to lessen the cost of production when his competitor in another state is either forbidden by law or unwilling to stoop to such practices. Fortunately the framers of the Constitution did not so limit the power of Congress. They have conferred on Congress all the power over interstate and foreign commerce taken from the states. What better exercise of the right of regulation thus conferred could there be than the protection of those engaged in industry from unfair competition?

I have heard the argument that a law prohibiting the products of exploited, or what we may also call anti-social child labor from interstate commerce, interferes with the rights of the states, in that it indirectly compels employers of labor to conform to the minimum standards of the congressional act or go out of business. Admit that this proposed act would compel practically all employers of labor to conform to its standards. Is it not better to do this than to have those states which wish to pass laws to protect their children practically forced to do so at the expense of sub-

jecting their manufacturers to the unfair competition of the manufacturers in those states which permit the industrial exploitation of their children?

As stated, however, the argument is a work of supererogation, the question of the power of Congress has already been practically determined by the decisions of the Supreme Court. It has, indeed, been argued that there is a difference between an act which excludes the product of exploited child labor from interstate commerce, and one that excludes lottery tickets, poisonous drugs, or adulterated foods; that these last are not legitimate articles of commerce, while the products of exploited child labor are nevertheless legitimate articles of commerce. To those who make this argument the following quotation from the opinion of the Supreme Court in *Hoke vs. United States* (227 U. S. 308, p. 320), the case supporting the white slave act, is significant. The court, speaking of the power to regulate commerce, says:

"The power is direct; there is no word of limitation in it, and its broad and universal scope has been so often declared as to make repetition unnecessary. And besides, it has so much illustration by cases that it would seem as if there could be no instance of its exercise that does not find an admitted example in some one of them. Experience, however, is the other way, and in almost every instance of the exercise of the power differences are asserted from previous exercise of it and made a ground of attack."

And so in this case. The differences indicated will be pointed out and magnified. But if it is a reasonable exercise of the power to protect the morals or health of the citizens of a state by excluding from interstate commerce lottery tickets, or poisonous drugs we may be sure that the Supreme Court will also hold that it is a reasonable exercise of the power to protect the manufacturers of a state from unfair trade competition, by excluding from interstate commerce the products of those who would undersell by the exploitation of child labor.

TWO CHILDREN

EUNICE JAMES

[Interest attaches to these verses not only from the fact that they were written by a young girl during a day of illness, but that her thirteen brief years of experience of life had all been in a sheltered and well-to-do home. Given a birthday gift of money recently, before she spent any on herself she sent some to a poor woman of whom she had heard people speak, giving away more than half of the present.—Ed.]

DOES the child in the home see the child in the street
Running all day with cold bare feet?
Does the child in the school ever pause in her play
To think of the child in the factory all day?
Do the people so rich ever stop in their leisure
To give five cents for a poor person's pleasure?
Alas, I'm afraid they don't stop to think
Of how closely Christ with the poor did link.

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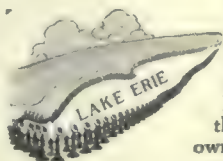
To give you some conception of the great number of persons and the enormous quantity of materials required to maintain an always-efficient service, various comparisons are here presented.

The cost of these materials unassembled is only 45% of the cost of constructing the telephone plant.



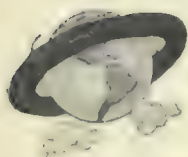
Poles

enough to build a stockade around California—12,480,000 of them, worth in the lumber yard about \$40,000,000.



Telephones

enough to string around Lake Erie—8,000,000 of them, 5,000,000 Bell-owned, which, with equipment, cost at the factory \$45,000,000.



Wire

to coil around the earth 621 times—15,460,000 miles of it, worth about \$100,000,000, including 260,000 tons of copper, worth \$88,000,000.



Switchboards

in a line would extend thirty-six miles—55,000 of them, which cost, unassembled, \$90,000,000.



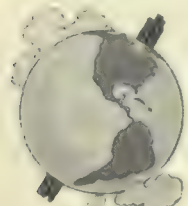
Lead and Tin

to load 6,600 coal cars—being 659,960,000 pounds, worth more than \$37,000,000.



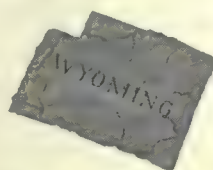
Buildings

sufficient to house a city of 150,000—more than a thousand buildings, which, unfurnished, and without land, cost \$44,000,000.



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to go five times through the earth from pole to pole—225,778,000 feet, worth in the warehouse \$9,000,000.



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AND ASSOCIATED COMPANIES

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One System

Universal Service

MOTHERS WHO MUST EARN

(Continued from page 22.)

indomitable Irish woman, how much she earned. "Now don't faint when I tell ye," she kindly admonished. "I git seven cents an hour!"

The difference between the average wage of part-timers and full-timers amounts to only a little more than one dollar. It might be supposed that the short-day workers are engaged in the better paid occupations—that they are performing some kind of mental labor rather than manual labor and receiving a correspondingly higher reward. But this is not the case. The character of the work done by the short-day and long-day workers is much the same. Both are limited to the occupations open to women without education. We find some of them, for instance, working five hours a day in a restaurant for \$4.50 a week, and others working ten hours a day for \$6.00. Office cleaners working between five and six hours daily earn \$5.00 a week, while scrubwomen in department stores work between eight and nine hours and are paid \$6.00. The explanation does not lie in difference of occupations. The reason seems to be that a premium is placed on regularity and punctuality out of all proportion to the actual amount of labor performed or service rendered. In order to secure the daily presence of the women within certain stated hours, the employer is compelled to pay almost as much as if he wanted them to work the whole day through. He must pay a minimum to insure his system.

UNDER the circumstances, then, why do any of the women cross the eight-hour threshold, when it means only a dollar additional? The answer for most of them lies in the value of the dollar. After all, the difference between a five-dollar and a six-dollar budget is enormous if the mother is the sole wage-earner. If, however, there are other wage-earners in the family, she may save half her time for the home at the sacrifice of one-sixth of her salary.

In families where the mother alone was at work, her average earnings were 88.1 per cent of the average family income; in families where mother and children were at work, her average earnings were 38 per cent of the average family income; in families where both mother and father were at work, her earnings were 31 per cent of the average family income; and in families where the father and children were at work besides the mother, she contributed only 18.8 per cent of the average income.

Her earnings were lowest where the family income was highest. Apparently, the mother works when she must, and when the necessity is less stringent she

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relaxes her efforts outside and gives more attention to her home. But to give her attention entirely to her home is a luxury which she cannot afford. If she is to have a home at all, she must bring in money to pay rent and buy food.

We might expect unusual expenses in this particular group of families owing to the mother's absence from home. She might pay someone to help her with the work. But such was not the case. She did her own housework mornings and evenings and on Sundays. The only additional expense that was incurred on account of her going out was the cost of caring for the younger children. The day nursery fee—where a fee is charged—amounts to 5 cents a day. But some day nurseries of the district make no charge. The fee, of course, does not cover the cost of caring for the child in the nursery and is regarded as only a nominal fee by those providing the nurseries. However, it is well to remember that to the woman who is keeping two children in a nursery at a cost of 60 cents a week and who is earning for the same time only \$6.00, the sum is by no means a nominal one.

WITH rare exceptions the women were "keeping up a home." To live in a furnished room is generally regarded on the West Side as reprehensible in a married woman. It is condemned not only as expensive and improvident but also as a hand-to-mouth practice which indicates a tendency to shirk housekeeping and home-making duties. The women who are doggedly engaged in "keeping up a home" for their children by doing the housework and earning the money to support it, take great credit to themselves for their efforts, and well they may.

The typical flat consists of three or four rooms,—a sitting room, a combination kitchen and dining room, and one or two bedrooms. Seldom is more than one room well lighted. Space is at a premium. Folding wire cots, chiffoniers, and drop-leaf tables are popular articles of furniture as they economize space. A sewing machine, bought on the installment plan, is seldom missing. The "grandest" piece of furniture in the flat is perhaps secured with green trading stamps, as the housewife will tell you at the first opportunity. The collection of trading stamps is regarded as a practice of great thrift. The presence of a sewing machine in the majority of the apartments is evidence of the machine agent's industry rather than of the amount of sewing done in the family. Ready-made garments are the rule. Closets are unknown. When the mother comes home from work she hangs her dusty little black hat on the gas jet or deposits it on the mantel. Unless she can afford to buy a wardrobe the children's clothes must hang on the chairs.



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THE kitchen, as well as the bedroom, is without storage capacity; a shallow cupboard is built against the wall, but pantries are unknown. Food is bought from day to day, as the average income is so low that supplies can not be bought in quantities; hence the need of a pantry is not so great. Prepared foods are stacked high on the shelves of the small, dingy grocery stores where these women spend their wages. More and more the housewife buys these foods. They save time and fuel,—and fuel is a heavy item.

While the women are doing less and less cooking and sewing in their own homes, they seem to be doing more and more laundry work. One mother of two immaculately clean little daughters was asked how she managed to do it. "I wash and iron every day," she replied. The women who work away from home all day usually spend at least three or four evenings of the week washing and ironing. The clothes are hung over the stove to dry over night, or put on the wash lines attached to the window. A settlement worker who went to live in the neighborhood was much puzzled by the sound of squeaking pulleys late at night until she learned that clothes were then being hung out to dry. Where to put away freshly ironed clothes is a serious problem. Some of the mothers meet this difficulty by leaving the most precious garments unironed until they are about to be worn. The little white dresses for Sunday are washed out and starched early in the week and then stowed away in a small bundle until Saturday or even Sunday morning, when they are ironed while the family waits, so to speak.

FAMILIES are large on the West Side.

It is not uncommon to find six children or more in a flat. But the families of mothers who work are more likely to be below the average size than above it. The more young children a woman has, the more difficult it becomes for her to leave her home and earn outside. Thus her wage-earning activities are automatically limited by the same fact that sometimes makes her need to earn the more acute; that is, by the number of her children.

In the 370 families visited the total number of living children was 1,321, an average of 3.57 per family. Excluding those who were married and a few who had "gone their own ways," there were left in these 370 families, 1,232 children, averaging 3.33 per family.

Eighteen per cent of the children, 221, were below school age. Only 40 of these children were cared for in day nurseries, leaving 181 who were looked after by relatives or neighbors in a haphazard fashion. Only two day nurseries, accommodating but 120 children between them, were found in this district. Only

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45 children, or 3.7 per cent, were in institutions. That so small a number of the children had been "put away" is mainly due to the ever lively and active prejudice against institutions on the mother's part. This prejudice, combined with fear and suspicion, furnished indeed the chief spur to their efforts. What were they working for if not to keep the home together?

Most of those who had put their children away were widows with more children than they could possibly support. They had kept at home the younger children, spreading a small income out thin to make it nourish as many as possible, and had put the older ones in institutions. At fourteen, these little hostages return to their homes, and are required to take up duties and responsibilities from which their institutional life has carefully trained them away.

Almost as many children, 41, or 3.3 per cent, were being cared for by relatives as by institutions. An aunt is a very near relative, on the West Side. She takes it for granted that she should help out where her sister's children are in distress. As a matter of fact, she herself is often a hard pressed mother who has trouble making room for the new member of her family but does not question that it is her duty to do so.

THE women have little time for recreation or social life of any kind. They are too tired to go out in the evening or to attend the mothers' clubs at the social centers. Many of the German women belong to lodges, but more for the sake of the sick benefits and insurance than for the sake of the social features. For mothers who must earn, there is indeed no leisure time problem. The long hours of earning are increased by the hours of domestic labor, until no slightest margin for relaxation or change of thought remains. But sociability and companionship are things which the lowest as well as the highest cannot live without, and these women find in the companionship of their fellow workers some compensation for the drudgery.

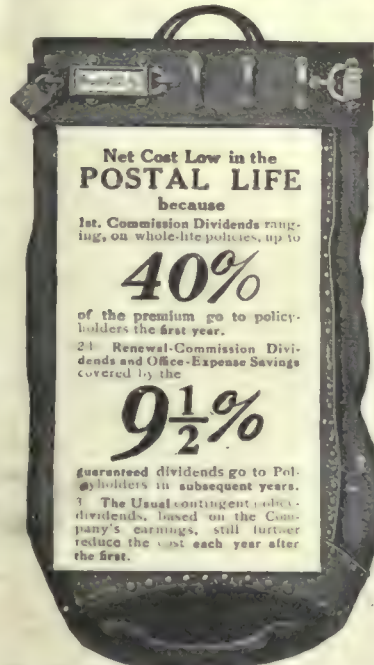
The problem of health among these women is, perhaps, a problem of poverty rather than of their industrial employment. The statement made in a recent study of the employment of married women in Birmingham that "poverty alone has such an evident pernicious influence on the health of the mother and her offspring that the influence of industrial employment is to a considerable extent masked," is also applicable to this group of women. As we have seen, 70 per cent were engaged in some form of domestic and personal service. The nature of their work, then, was not so

*City of Birmingham, Health Department, Report on Industrial Employment of Married Women and Infantile Mortality, 1910, p. 20.

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different from that of the hard-working but so-called unemployed mother and housewife. The conditions under which it was done, however, were very different. Compared with the conditions affecting the group of factory women, those affecting the charwoman and other domestic and personal service workers may be considered less exhausting. On the other hand, the most over-burdened housewife is never called upon to scrub floors all night long, or even half the night. Doubtless we shall soon see the necessity of regulating the work of women in hotels and public buildings, so that the health and strength of these women as well as of factory workers may be protected from night work and excessive hours.

WHY are these women wage-earners? How many of them work because they must, and how many for other reasons? It was a primary purpose of this investigation to give the women an opportunity to speak for themselves in answer to these questions.

Practically all of them regarded their work as compulsory and the reasons which they gave as imperative. In some cases they were at work to tide the family over a period of illness of the principal breadwinner. In others, a season of unemployment for him had sent the woman out to hunt for a job. A common assertion was that "a woman can get work when a man can't, because she'll work for less." While they are willing to work for miserable sums themselves, they usually justify their men who make a stand for decent wages. They may be bitter and resentful against the husband or son who loafs or drinks, but they are patient with his insistence on his price if they feel convinced that this is the trouble.

None of the women expressed a direct preference for outside work over housework. They were, however, little inclined to complain of their hard lives and the hard conditions of their employment. Only in cases where the mother knew that her children were definitely suffering by her absence was keen resentment felt.

A peculiarly haunting complaint was one which came from a silk-worker in a Forty-first street factory. From her place at the warping-frame she could look down into the street, and daily between 10 a. m. and 12 noon she saw a well-dressed woman walking up and down with her dog. It was a sight which never failed to arouse in her bitter and envious thoughts. "It would make me think of my Georgie shut up in the day nursery and me in the factory all day long."

The foregoing study has only one thesis. The wage-earning mothers composing this group worked because they were forced to do so. They had been driven into work outside the home by

conditions of poverty. They had become wage-earners in obedience to the most primitive of maternal instincts. Their children would have suffered seriously had they failed to earn.

WE have observed that the earnings of the mothers furnished a considerable percentage of the total family resources. Small as are the wages of their unskilled occupations, the amount plays an important part in a family budget correspondingly small. A clear recognition of this fact must lie at the basis of all attempts to improve by legal and social programs the condition of such mothers.

We have already begun in this country the experiment of protecting motherhood by legislation. The existing laws fall into two groups. Those which affect the mother at childbirth have so far been passed by only two states: Massachusetts and New York. Into the second group fall the mothers' pension laws which have recently been enacted in a number of states and are now being considered by others. Certain practical features of the experiment may receive some illumination from the conditions prevailing among our group.

Of the 370 West Side women, 44 per cent had husbands at work. Forty-two per cent of the 125 widows had worked during their married life prior to the death of their husbands. Some states have established pension systems which permit only widowed mothers to be eligible for grants. If the domestic condition of the group studied here is at all significant of the whole class of necessitous mothers, the restriction of the allowance to widows manifestly falls far short of the need.

Another feature of the tentative laws is the tendency to stipulate that the mother shall forego all industrial employment and devote her full time to her home. But it must not be assumed that the middle-aged mother is entirely without earning capacity, or that the pension so granted is clear gain from her point of view. Hence, any ruling which requires this class of mothers to forego all income from their own earnings would be ineffective, unless the aid given were fully adequate.

THERE was one inevitable conclusion which resulted from our analysis of conditions in these 370 homes. It was, that not one of these mothers could afford not to earn. This compulsion to earn which the West Side mothers felt and obeyed is a far-reaching and significant one. Their effortful lives represent the most difficult and painful phase of woman's adjustment of age-long activities to conditions in the present world of wages.

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"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"

(Continued from page 34)

It is a good thing to cross over the line and take a look at ourselves, and at our belongings, from their viewpoint. How rich, how blest we feel, when we come back to our own homes! I always breathed a sigh of gratitude, when I got home, that I didn't have to wash for a large family, and have a drunken husband who beat me.

What Would We Do?

I have always brought two other thoughts home from those visits. One is, "How much alike we all are!" The other is, "What would I do if I had to live in that dreadful place, and could do no better for my children?" And that is the only fair way to consider the question. What *would* we do, if any of us had such a fate? If *we* had to be crowded and stifled in dark rooms, to breathe foul air and choking odors, to fight filth, to endure noise, to drink polluted water, to be seized upon by disease.

Ah, if that were *our* baby that sickened and wasted and moaned and died! Would we join with those of the sullen brow who are "destructive," because, as they tell us, wrathfully, they'd "like to git even with the landlord?" Or would we be one of the larger number who give up the struggle, hopelessly, overcome by that deadliest of all inhibitions of the poor, "What's the use?" We hear that often in the tenements. "What's the use to be careful of dropping ashes and garbage on the stairs, or throwing suds on the walk, when the other tenants do it?" "What's the use to scrub, when the grime won't come out, and the soot keeps pouring in?" "What's the use to take keer of a house when the landlord won't fix the locks or steps or roof?"

New-comers to a tenement must be of strong fiber if they resist such pressure. In this connection one recalls the most frequent objection made to housing reform, that the poor would misuse and wouldn't "appreciate" conveniences if they had them. A chorus of those whose model tenements are now blessing the poor will contradict this statement. In any place and to any extent that it might be true, it is a startling comment upon our civilization and the severest condemnation of us who have not taught them what is proper and decent.

I trust that those friends of the poor who object to the use of the word "slum," because "it is such a reproach to the poor, who can't help living there," will be satisfied with these statements. The slum is not a reproach to the poor, but to the landlords, to the public, to us. Let us call things by their right names, and place the blame where it be-

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longs, and it will hasten the day of the deliverance of the poor.

It has been my dearest hope to win for the poor a closer view and a kinder opinion, yet I fear these recitals will not tempt any one to go and see for themselves how they actually live.

"I went once, and I'll never go again, because it made me so blue," said one dainty lady.

"And it's way across the town, in such a disagreeable part, among the railroad tracks and mean streets, where it's bad to take an auto," others say.

"My business never calls me into those districts where one would find slums," men tell us.

It is a restful delusion, but slums are not all across the town. There may be some families living in squalor in the alley back of one's office. Men may pass the respectable fronts of these places every day, and they may even be on a rear street, near their own homes.

"I'm afraid of bringing home contagion to my children," says the devoted mother.

"There is no need to worry about bringing home contagion," we say, "for the children will bring it home to you. They will acquire other things, too, from the children of the slums whom they meet on the street and in the public schools, other things that they will not come to you with, for you would not allow them to repeat the words and tales they hear."

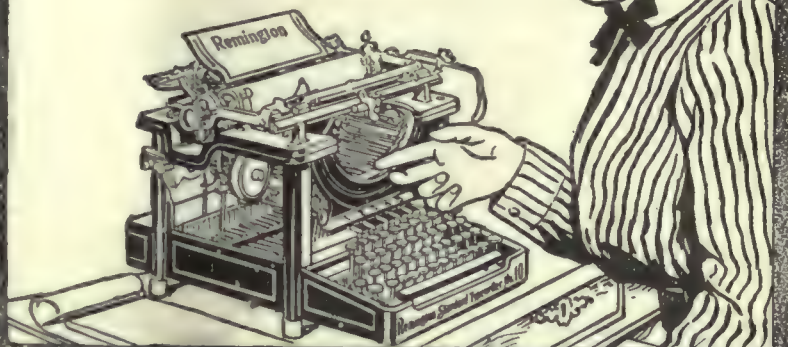
The Community's Share

We may as well face the fact that so long as we and our children are at large in a community, we shall be in danger from all the evils that are also at large in that community, even those that emanate from the lowest and vilest sources. We might shut our children up in our homes, but even there they are not safe, for they must breathe the common supply of air, and the air, breath, gases and vapors of the whole community have been pooled. And, though we may be able to exclude from our homes the moth, the house-fly, the agent and the burglar, we cannot exclude germs. They ride in on the trails of our gowns, they are tracked in on our shoes. They come in food and drink, in washes, in clothing, in wares. They come by messengers and carriers and servants, as do the influences of evil.

So, if we expect to remain in a community, and not share its evils, we must isolate our entire household, provide disinfected air for them to breathe, and allow them to eat, drink and wear only boiled things. We must not allow them to look out of the window, at bill boards, etc., nor listen to the songs of the street, and we must take out the 'phone. But we need not go to the slums if we do not wish. They will come to us, and, wreaking upon us the Revenge of Neglected Things, they will avenge the poor.

Yet it is not vengeance the poor are wanting. They only want help, and they

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do not dream how much we could give them, besides alms. They stand afar off, and look at us, beseeching, too timid to knock at our forbidding portals. But the White Death, who has been their bed-fellow, is not abashed by any grandeur, or stopped by any bar. He comes straight from the filthy hovel to our homes, and peers in upon us through the windows, while we feast and laugh. He pushes open the door, and strides in, and, sitting down at our very fireside, looks into the faces of our best beloved, so that they cry out and die!

The revenge of the slums falls not only upon the individual, but upon the city, in all its interests and activities.

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It falls upon them, too, by breeding a class of citizens that are a dead weight to civic progress.

It falls upon the business interests by killing or weakening valuable working men, whose loss is felt in traffic, trade and manufacture.

It falls upon the churches, by raising up those who defeat and defy them, by lowering the whole moral tone of the community, and increasing the resistance to the powers of good. These are the ways in which we are scourged by the slums, and until we learn our lesson, we must continue to suffer as well as the poor.

"The Poor!" There passes before me a procession of those whom I have seen in the alms-houses, the reformatories, the tenements, the hovels of our country. With downcast, hopeless faces, with faltering steps, with groping hands, they file past. Some are ragged, filthy, scarred, diseased. Some are pallid, starved, pitiful. Side by side, step by step with them, march those who are of different blood and birth. One holds out beggar hands, one covers his face in bitter humiliation. Gray as a procession of shadows, gray as a drift of ashes, and with ashes upon their heads—that symbol of burnt out life and hope—they move across my vision, and are lost in the darkness.

"We must cease to cherish such as these or we shall have a race of weaklings and degenerates," we are warned.

Yet the divine plan, as given to us, is that the poor shall be delivered. And He who healed the sick, gave sight to the blind, cleansed the lepers, and even raised the dead, gave the poor into our care with the assurance, "Greater things than these shall ye do."

Greater than these!

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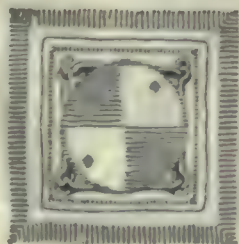


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Contents

April 11, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

THE CHILDREN'S BUREAU AND ITS APPROPRIATION	47
COURT TO DECIDE IF A CONVICT IS A SLAVE	47
THE TRIANGLE FIRE THREE YEARS AFTER	48
WHAT DO AMERICAN PEOPLE WANT FOR THEIR CHILDREN? By Anna Rochester	49
FROM THE STRIFE OF TONGUES—SOME REFLECTIONS ON THE TENDENCIES OF REFORM, By an English Contributor	50

THE GHOST, a Poem	Sarah N. Cleghorn	51
-----------------------------	-------------------	----

CIVICS

THE ST. LOUIS PAGEANT AND MASQUE	Roger N. Baldwin	52
WHERE SHALL THE CITIZENS OF NEW YORK VOTE?	Carl Beck	53
HOW RICHMOND IS HOUSED	John Ihlder	54
EDUCATING TENEMENT DWELLERS	Nelle Reeder	55
HOUSTON'S NEW TAXATION PLAN		55
PENNSYLVANIA CITY PLANNING LAW CONTESTED		56

INDUSTRY

A REPLY TO THE CRITICS OF MINIMUM WAGE LEGISLATION	Bertha Bradley Warbasse	57
HOW EUROPE PROTECTS BLEACH WORKERS—HOW NEW YORK DOES IT	George M. Price, M. D.	58
SWEDEN'S NEW LAW FOR THE PROTECTION OF WORKINGMEN	Olga S. Halsey	59

SOCIAL AGENCIES

HOMES FOR YOUNG WOMEN: THE ELEANOR CLUBS OF CHICAGO	Annie Marion MacLean	60
PRISONERS: SOME OBSERVATIONS OF A BUSINESS MAN	Adolph Lewisohn	61
OHIO CHILD WELFARE DEPARTMENT	Hastings H. Hart	63
THREE SCORE YEARS AND 15 OF STATISTICS		64
HOSPITAL SOCIAL SERVICE AND RELIEF SOCIETIES		64
WINDSOR, VERMONT, AND ITS COUNTY SURVEY		64

COMMUNICATIONS		65
--------------------------	--	----

JOTTINGS		66
--------------------	--	----

The GIST of IT—

"CHILD labor is doomed," said Jane Addams at the tenth annual Child Labor Conference, in New Orleans. But sentence has not yet been pronounced and the National Child Labor Committee is harder at work than ever before. Page 49.

RICHMOND has surveyed its housing situation. Conditions are not bad, but only forehanded legislation can head off the inevitable arrival of tenements. Page 54.

THE question whether or not a convict is a slave will come before the Supreme Court of Rhode Island next week. By a quirk in the state constitution, it enters into a suit brought by a convict to recover wages for his work under the prison contractor. Page 47.

H. F. J. PORTER questions whether the standards set by the State Factory Investigating Commission have not legally O. K'd the conditions which took 147 lives at the Triangle fire. Page 48.

HOMES with a little "h" are hard to make for a family of 60 to 100 girls. But the Eleanor Clubs in Chicago have managed it, and been economically independent, too. Their fifteenth birthday was celebrated by opening the eighth club and buying ten acres of camp site. Page 60.

MAJOR HIGGINSON'S Other Fellow and the Other Fellow's critics lead an Englishman to question whether we're going in reform. What can we expect of government commissions? Can reform, of all things, spring forth complete like Minerva? Is the need, perhaps, for more thinking and less printing by a small group working out a symmetrical scheme? Page 50.

THE best place for prisoners, Mr. Lewisohn submits, is outside of jails. But once in, they should be treated like men, paid for their labor and started toward useful lives at discharge. Page 61.

AT the American Statistical Association's seventy-fifth anniversary emphasis was placed on the increasing service statistics is rendering the social sciences. Page 64.

TO celebrate its one hundred and fiftieth anniversary, St. Louis will stage a pageant and masque running back through the pioneer days of French and Spanish to the very first families of the Mississippi Valley—the mound builders. Nothing less than a civic renaissance is expected as the outcome of very careful and elaborate planning. Page 52.

THE clamor of small shopkeepers who welcome the city as a paying guest on primary and election days defeated the bill to open New York city's 620 public schools as voting places. The city and the civic bodies urged it, but the Legislature denied it. There's a chance the governor will include an enabling measure in the call for a special session. Page 53.

AFTER considering the arguments against the minimum wage, Mrs. Warbasse simmers it down to this: "Either it is desirable that all who work be given enough of the wealth they produce to live on, or it is not." Page 57.

Russell Sage Foundation

Among School Gardens

By M. LOUISE GREENE, M. Pd., Ph. D.

A terse and practical book which seeks "to instill in children a love for outdoor work and such a knowledge of natural forces and their laws as shall develop character and efficiency."

It describes in easy style, free from technicalities, the best school gardens in all parts of the country, and gives clear instructions for planting and pruning.

Not alone for teachers and children, but for all who would make their own oats, peas, beans and barley grow.

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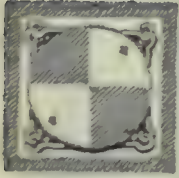
SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC.

Publishers for the Russell Sage Foundation

105 EAST 22d STREET

NEW YORK

THE SURVEY



COMMON WELFARE



THE CHILDREN'S BUREAU AND ITS APPROPRIATION

To those who, for six years, strove for the creation of the Children's Bureau, it is disconcerting news that the Appropriations Committee has allotted to it the paltry sum of \$25,000. This is the amount provided in the statute creating the bureau, for the first experimental period ending next June.

The chief of the Children's Bureau, Julia C. Lathrop, asks for \$164,640 to make possible an increase of the staff for 1915 to 76 persons, to carry out a program of work which could be but begun with the initial meager supply of money. The staff has hitherto been limited to 15 persons.

The advocates of the Children's Bureau point out that it has been at work less than two years. Its first annual report issued in March last shows that it has been occupied in laying the foundation for a future career of usefulness. It has attacked the problems of infant mortality from diverse directions. It has focussed the attention of the public upon the fact that we do not know how many children are born or how many die. And it has stimulated effort to save infant lives.

The first publication, Monograph I, Birth Registration, has been widely used in this year's successful campaign for improved birth registration laws. The publication of this pamphlet was requested by the General Federation of Women's Clubs.

Baby-Saving Campaigns is the title of Infant Mortality Series No. I, a compact and informing statement of the efforts made in cities of 50,000 population and over, to reduce the summer mortality of babies.

The monograph on Prenatal Care, intended to be of immediate, practical value to children born during 1913 and 1914, was prepared by request of the National Congress of Mothers. This is the first of a series on the care of young children in the home.

The Handbook of Federal Statistics of Children, Part I, is the first installment of a compilation giving in convenient form data concerning children from

the decennial census, hitherto largely unavailable because scattered through many bulky volumes.

In the near future, the report of the first field inquiry made by the Children's Bureau will appear, a study of infant mortality in Johnstown, Pa. This involved the use of a schedule embodying a picture of the social, civic and industrial conditions of each family studied. How this was carried out is indicated by the fact that, in a house-to-house canvass of families in which a baby had been born during the year, 1,551 schedules were filed, and there were two refusals.

A second forthcoming report is a review of child labor legislation in the United States. Advocates of legislation dealing with this evil are particularly critical of the recommendation of the Committee on Appropriations. They have waited long for a federal supply of data. They point out that the National Child Labor Committee spends annually more than twice the amount of the whole initial budget of the Children's Bureau.

The field and the task assigned to the bureau are specified as follows in the act: "To investigate and report upon all matters pertaining to the welfare of children and child life among all classes of our people, and especially to investigate infant mortality, the birth-rate, orphanage, juvenile courts, desertion, dangerous occupations, accidents and diseases of children, employment, legislation affecting children in the several states and territories."

Social workers in all parts of the country have become accustomed to refer to the bureau requests for information from clubs, from editors and miscellaneous inquirers. Its publications are recognized as authoritative and each issue is awaited by a large constituency.

Already vigorous protests against any cut in the modest estimate offered by the chief of the bureau are reaching Washington. An effort is certain to be made to amend the bill on the floor of the House, and, failing there, to obtain an increase by compromise with the Senate.

COURT TO DECIDE IF A CONVICT IS A SLAVE

THE SUPREME COURT of Rhode Island is soon to decide, for the first time in the United States, whether a convict is a slave, ward of the state, citizen, or what not.

William E. Anderson, formerly a convict in the Rhode Island state prison, has sued the contractors of that institution to recover wages for his labor during imprisonment. The Rhode Island constitution prohibits slavery as slavery no matter what the form may be. The limitation, "except as a punishment for crime," present in the federal and most state constitutions, is lacking in Rhode Island. It is upon this, that Anderson bases his suit. Behind him stands the National Committee on Prison Labor.

The court will hear arguments beginning April 15. As the constitutions of Vermont and Maryland are similar to that of Rhode Island and prison contracts are in operation in both states, similar cases may be filed.

To southern members of Congress, the suit has brought attention to the fact that slavery is not necessarily Negro slavery. It has reminded them that Indian slavery long existed in the Providence plantations; and the oratory of the '50s and '60s may now find echoes in a congressional investigation of "slavery" in a New England state.

Anderson claims a damage in that his mother and other dependents were left in poverty. Fifty cents a day was paid by the contractor to the state for his labor and the use of the prison building, light and heat. How much of this was for his labor and how much for the use of the buildings, light and heat, the contracts do not make clear.

No matter what the decision, it is conceivable that there will be a judicial statement as to what proper rates of wages really are and that the court will define conditions of employment and other interesting questions.

The proceedings are somewhat complicated by the fact that another case is being brought by Anderson against another contractor in a federal court.

Personal elements are not lacking in



FIRE DRILL AND FIRE PANIC

A drawing used by H. F. J. Porter to illustrate his contention that stairways for emptying a burning building must provide a vacant step in front of each person, or row of persons. If more crowd in, panic results.

these cases. One of Anderson's suits is against the Crescent Garment Company, the members of the firm of Salant and Salant, which includes Aaron B. Salant. The other suit is against the Sterling Manufacturing Company, of Chicago, the president of which has been Milton F. Goodman. For those who have heard Mr. Salant and Mr. Goodman express their opinion of each other, it is interesting to realize that both are now defendants to practically the same suit.

Finding the competition of the prison contractors injurious to his business, then operated with free labor, A. B. Salant some years ago formed the National Free Labor Association, an organization which must not be confused with the National Committee on Prison Labor, which is backing Anderson in the prosecution of these cases. Though hampered, as Mr. Salant himself says, by lack of funds, the National Free Labor Association was not wholly ineffective in fighting the contract system.

At that time, as now, the shirt-contracting firms known as the Reliance and Sterling Companies were Salant's keenest competitors. "Prison Labor Trust" is the epithet applied to this group of manufacturers by one "William Phillips", secretary of the National Free Labor Association. Since A. B. Salant has had power of attorney from "William Phillips", and since that is the signature which Mr. Salant is said to have appended to letters on stationery of the National Free Labor Association, it is supposed that Mr. Salant's connection with the National Free Labor Association did not end with its organization.

Mr. Salant, as a clothing manufacturer employing free labor, used the National Free Labor Association to fight the "prison labor trust". Later, Mr.

Salant, as a clothing manufacturer making a profit from contract convict labor, has continued to fight his old rivals. Mr. Salant does not hold a contract in connection with the Rhode Island state prison, but he says: "I negotiated with them [the Crescent Garment Company] after they got the [Rhode Island] contract, and up to the present time all they have made in that place they have sold to us."

In considering what might appear to be an inconsistency in Mr. Salant's activities—in that he both profits from convict labor and advocates its abolition—attention has been directed to a brief filed for him in the Supreme Court of New York in answer to a libel suit brought by Carol Aronovici:

"We submit that there is no reason whatsoever, to the mind of an intelligent man, why opposition to the system is in any way inconsistent with the making of personal profit out of that system while it lasts, i. e. while the government and the people refuse to abolish it. One may, with perfect propriety, argue that the system of prison contracts ought to be abolished, and at the same time seek to derive profit from a prison contract as long as the state insists upon letting out such contracts."

THE TRIANGLE FIRE THREE YEARS AFTER

ON MARCH 25, the third anniversary of the Triangle fire at which 147 girls in a factory loft in New York city lost their lives because of inadequate exits, H. F. J. Porter, consulting engineer, wrote to the press some sharp criticisms of the work of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission. "Astonishing as it may seem," Mr. Porter said, "the commission has actually legalized the very conditions which

it was created to relieve and correct."

The laws passed on its recommendation, Mr. Porter states, are bound to lead to crowding and panic in case of a fire. Readers of *THE SURVEY* will remember that Mr. Porter, first acting with the Fifth Avenue Association, the Public Forum of the Church of the Ascension and the Committee on Safety, and then as an expert for the commission, made a careful study of exit conditions in New York loft buildings.

He determined that in a building with ceilings 10 feet high, a flight of stairs would have 18 steps, each $7\frac{1}{2}$ inches high. Each person going downstairs must have a vacant step in front of him to step on. Therefore, every other step must be left free to afford downward movement. So that such an 18-step stairway would hold nine persons single file, plus one extra person on the landing, or 20 if double file, 30 triple file, etc.

He worked out similar proportions for various typical heights of ceiling. They held good if the stairways were made of rectangular treads, but triangular treads or "winders" reduced the capacity 10 per cent per winder.

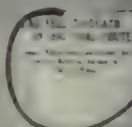
Mr. Porter charges that although the principle here laid down was adopted by the commission, liberties were taken with the figures he had submitted when it came to drafting legislation. He charges that the commission adopted as a standard a "dwarf building" having 10 feet between floors, of which none exist except converted tenements, instead of one with 10-foot ceilings, "which I had specified and of which there are hundreds"; and that it has figured "the capacity of a flight of stairs of unit or single width would be not 10 people but 14."

Then, he charges, they fixed the reduction for "winders" at a maximum of 10 per cent, regardless of the number of "winders"; agreed that "if a sprinkler system was installed in the building the occupancy could be increased 50 per cent . . . making in all $22\frac{1}{2}$ people, instead of 10, or an increase of 125 per cent. The commission required two such stairways on each floor which doubled the number of people permitted on each floor and if one of these stairways were cut off by fire the single stairway would have to take care of the added number, thus loading it to over 250 per cent of its capacity."

Mr. Porter's remedy (see *THE SURVEY* for July 15, 1911) is a fire or division wall by means of which the part of a building in which the fire is located can be shut off from other parts and all the inmates can escape horizontally through doorways in this wall, close the fire-proof doors and be perfectly safe.

The *Engineering News*, a technical authority, has strongly endorsed Mr. Porter's fire wall device.

ACCIDENTS



"Children are not equipped by experience to cope with modern industry"

AND SO THEY PAY



WITH A MAIMED LIFE

Three times as many industrial accidents occur to children as to adults

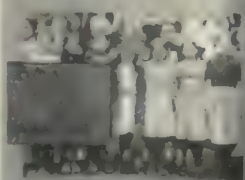
EMPLOYMENT OF CHILDREN IS DUE TO

IGNORANCE
GREED
NECESSITY

OF INDUSTRY AND PARENTS

ARE ANY OF THESE REASONS WORTH
A CHILD'S LIFE?

MAKING HUMAN JUNK

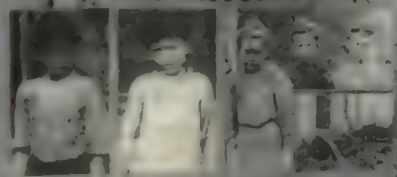


GOOD MATERIAL
AT FIRST

High Wages

THE PROCESS

THE PRODUCT



No future and low wages

"Junk"

SHALL INDUSTRY BE ALLOWED TO PUT
THIS COST ON SOCIETY?

THE HIGH COST OF CHILD LABOR

Two panels from the exhibit of the National Child Labor Committee. First shown at the National Conference on Child Labor at New Orleans, the panels will be duplicated and sent on the road in charge of Lewis W. Hine.

WHAT DO AMERICAN PEOPLE WANT FOR THEIR CHILDREN?—BY ANNA ROCHESTER

THE FIGHT AGAINST CHILD LABOR will enter on its second decade with increased vigor, a wider outlook and a new method, if the spirit and the substance of the Tenth National Conference on Child Labor held last month at New Orleans are a fair indication of the future.

One member of the National Child Labor Committee staff who has attended all these conferences with one exception put it tersely: "These people have set their teeth against child labor. They are in for a fight to the finish." And as Jane Addams said in her address to the mass meeting in Lafayette Square, attended by some 2,000 people besides the 1,000 whom the mayor had arranged to seat: "When people are willing to stand through child labor speeches, child labor is doomed."

Is the New Orleans public typical? Does the spirit of the leaders gathered in conference reflect the temper of the American people? Or is their fighting blood aroused by increasingly insistent opposition to good child labor laws?

Two little incidents at the conference do not answer these questions but they do warn us against an indolent optimism. Telegraphic news was received from four legislatures, and from two of these states came word of defeats on the firing line. Owen R. Loyejoy's review of the needs and activities of the committee

showed how the activities—investigation, publicity, legislative campaigns and study of enforcement—had been restricted in scope and hindered in efficiency by the failure of the rank and file of thoughtful, well-to-do people to supply the wherewithal for a sufficient staff.

Less time than usual was devoted to a description of child labor, but certain unforgettable impressions on the subject were made rather incidentally by Ella Haas and Pauline Neuman, who had been child workers themselves, and by Lewis W. Hine with his stereopticon lecture on the high cost of child labor.

The indigent widow, the uninteresting teacher, the misfit curriculum, the parent who does not control his children, the employer of cheap labor, the inspector who does not know how to inspect, the judge who is out of touch with the new industrial consciousness, the editor who adds to the general inertia by drifting with the majority, and ourselves, the great American people who pass laws and let them die—all these came in for a share of the discussion. The old three-cornered fight between the employer, the reformer and the legislator is still on, but it no longer occupies the center of the stage.

There was a pretty general feeling that the motive for the effort to correlate these scattered erring elements should be found not so much in pity for

the physical harm wrought by child labor as in a keener sense of the stunting of the spirit. The loss in artistic and creative power was touched on by Jane Addams, the degradation of citizenship by Felix Adler. Alexander Johnston made the statement that unless girls are to be mothers of a decadent race they should not be allowed to work in industry until they are 16 or, better, 18 years old.

The National Child Labor Committee presented to the conference for the first time a federal child labor bill drafted by the committee and pending in Congress. Samuel McCune Lindsay reviewed the attitude of the committee in the past and predicted that the same reasons which led the committee recently to endorse the principle would shortly bring about a general demand for a federal child labor law.

The other defenders of the bill were Felix Adler, who pleaded for clear thinking and common sense as the primary guides in division of power between state and nation; Mrs. Florence Kelley, who gave incidents from her personal experience illustrating at once the relative value Uncle Sam has placed on children and on food stuffs and the contrast between our disregard of state laws and our respect for federal law; and A. J. McKelway who quoted millions from the census to show the majorities of American people who have already enacted state laws embodying the four provisions concerning ages and hours which the Palmer-Owen bill would apply to establishments manufacturing goods for interstate commerce.

Here, again, the fine temper of the New Orleans audience was manifest. for it listened with keen attention and enthusiasm to the speakers on the federal bill. Afterwards several business men confessed to immediate conversion to federal legislation on child labor.

When one remembers the relatively high standard of the Louisiana law as it is enforced in New Orleans and realizes that the Palmer-Owen bill would affect New Orleans' factories in only one respect, one wonders whether the real source of opposition is going to be not the states' rights doctrinaire but the employer whose present convenience will be at stake.

In quite another connection Wiley H. Swift gave a little parable which is suggestive. He has been working against the cotton mill lobby in the Carolinas for two years past and his analysis of the opposition to better state laws is based on personal experience: "If the sawmill men of your state had always used mules and it was proposed that they should give up using mules and use oxen instead; and if they agreed that it would be better to use oxen and a law should be introduced to compel them to substitute oxen for mules; and then if they did everything in their power to defeat the law, wouldn't you think that they wanted to use mules?"

AT THE time of the appointment of the Industrial Relations Commission THE SURVEY published a symposium¹ on its field of work. In what follows it is not desired to criticise in any way either the views expressed in the symposium or the merits of the commission itself. The usefulness of such an official study of industrial relations may be taken as proved, and the views expressed in THE SURVEY are here used only as texts for a discussion of tendencies observable, not especially in the United States, but in all civilized countries at the present day.

The symposium shows in several contributions a keen realization of the pitfalls which await government investigations of this nature. It is feared that the commission may be led away by a desire to "make a very impressive showing"; or again that its labors may result in "another bulky report which will indeed furnish abundant material for propagandists and students; but which will leave the public little wiser for effective action."

These apprehensions are not unnatural. Every public investigation is open to such dangers. But this "is to be a new kind of commission." The taking of technical or expert evidence is not to be among its duties. It is rather to draw its conclusions from evidence already at our disposal. It may indeed hear testimony, but the testimony is to come from experts in synthesis and from those who represent the passions and the living forces of the present hour; the time for the collection of mere raw material is past. "We do not need judges and umpires;" "we should try to prevent evil."

In all civilized countries at the present day men are wearying of technical reports with their bulky appendices. Government commissions are expected to furnish, not expert recommendations, but statesmanship. Their members, like the members of the Industrial Relations Commission, are chosen from among men who have given a life's attention to the problems involved.

But this being so, what is expected from them? Is it expected that, from the hour of their official designation, they will approach the massed material from a fresh standpoint and with new powers of synthesis and interpretation? Surely not; no man can be called on in one year or two years to fertilize this chaos and produce a world. What they do is to give to the state in an official capacity the fruits of a knowledge already ripened by years of study; their reports are not the digestions of the evidence printed in their appendices, but the conclusions long ago reached by private citizens and modified only slightly,

¹THE SURVEY of August 2, 1913.

FROM THE STRIFE OF TONGUES

Some Reflections on
the Tendencies of
Reform

By an
ENGLISH CONTRIBUTOR

if at all, by brief service on a government commission.

And thus the inevitable question arises: What is gained by the issue of Mr. and Mrs. Webb's statesmanlike views on the English poor law in the guise of the minority report of a government commission? Government patronage can facilitate the collection of evidence; but where the collection of evidence is not desired, can such patronage give to the views of life-long students an added prestige or effect? Can any service be rendered by such commissions in this official capacity which they could not equally well render in collaboration as private individuals? And if not, why do we continually expose ourselves to the admitted risks of publicity, when private collaboration can be made equally valuable?

It would, of course, be puerile to level this criticism at the Industrial Relations Commission, or at any other particular commission. It is only valid as the criticism of a tendency. In any particular case the government may have other and ample reasons for its action; it may need a commission to force certain questions on the public attention, or a temporary commission may be necessary to prepare the way for a permanent one; it may be necessary to have a Chicago vice commission in order to obtain the appointment of a "morals commission."

But besides all this there is, in every country where the imagination has been touched by the prevalence of abuses and the possibilities of reform, a tendency which is a fair object of attack. In a democracy we must carry through our policies in the open, before the eyes of the people. But today we are going further; we are doing our thinking in the open also. Because our creed must be made a public profession of faith, we seem to think that we must carry out into the market-place the doubts and the struggles, the prayers and fears which

go to the making of our creed. This does not apply only to the crude mistake of many young men who "go into politics" before they have prepared any mental ground on which to take their stand; it applies also, and in a far more dangerous degree, to the subtler mistake made by those who, having found a political faith, try to form a party in the open rather than a school in private.

This surely is not democracy but indolence. It is part of the general spirit of hurry engendered by modern popular government—the desire to throw ourselves at once into the breach, relying not upon an organized and disciplined regiment behind us but upon our power of rallying by our voice and our example the scattered masses of the doubting and the careless. There is no lack of energy or ideals in the world today, but there is a lack of patience; we fight with half-forged weapons and hope to convert majorities without forming a compact minority; we scamp the work of preparation, the continual labor of personal teaching, the testing and re-testing of foundations which such teaching entails, the painful processes of discipline, the intimate communication of our own faith without which we can form no reasoned school of thought worthy of the ideals which we hold. It may not be a fair criticism to say, as Walter Lipmann says in his recent book, *A Preface to Politics*:

"The desire to affect the whole mass crowds out the courage of the innovator;" but it is surely true that this desire too often leads the innovator to break the mould while his policy is still more or less an incoherent mass.

This criticism when made in any particular case has little chance of acceptance. Men who have spent the best years of their life in a weary fight for reforms are rightly impatient of any suggestion that the publicity to which they have recourse is dangerous or premature. And yet it is rare indeed to find any such fight which has not been carried on throughout in the open; such men forge weapons, but they usually forge them in large conventions or in the columns of the press; they are seldom content to miss an opportunity of forcing into law an isolated and disconnected fragment of their policy.

The Fabian Society in England is a good instance of what we mean. Its great influence on thought and politics has been mainly due to the policies with which it has devoted itself to the formation of a school. Its quiet propaganda at the universities and elsewhere will probably be found to have had a more permanent effect than its pamphlets. But in so far as it has, during its period of preparation, come into the open, advocated public measures and influenced the policy of legislators, some doubt may well be felt as to the efficiency of its

work. Many of its members deplore, and some have openly attacked, the defects of the recent insurance act; yet historians may well trace the passage of such ill-considered legislation indirectly to the influence of the society itself and to the general drift in politics helped on by it during the last few years.

We ask in all seriousness: Is it impossible to form consciously and quietly a school of study and preparation, to carry on the work steadily for a number of years and eventually to throw into the scales of politics a compact group which, acting upon full conviction and knowledge, shall devote their energies to the carrying through of a symmetrical scheme? We are doing many analogous things in the way of schemes for the training of public servants, or in the way of bureaus of municipal research. Might not a few men combine to form, unadvertised to the world, a kind of private school of statesmanship? Clubs have before now in history come to direct the course of politics for good or evil.

All such pictures are of course utopian; we shall never evolve such a perfect group or scheme; but we may perhaps approximate to the ideal. After all, the spectacle of Minerva springing fully armed from the head of Zeus was probably only startling to those who had not observed how much thinking Zeus had been doing before-hand. Minerva's birth, is, at any rate, a more satisfactory conception of truth than that classic justification of a free publicity—Milton's conception of truth as a shattered corpse to be gathered together bit by bit.

At least such an ideal way helps us to eliminate some of the dangers of present tendencies. Patience is really not so utopian as haste. If a fully armed Minerva is not possible now, it may be because the time has not yet come for the great conflict. We love to speak of these days as a time of transition, but perhaps if we were wise we should recognize that the time of transition is the day of small things, of patient plodding after truth. This is not the paradox it may sound: the farmer picks his fruit, not in the storms of March or November, but in the slow mellowing of the year. If, as we too often do, we go out into those storms with half formed philosophies on our lips, the wind of publicity may well whirl off some half considered sentence, ring the changes on it round the world and make it the catchword of a blind movement.

One of the ideas running through much of the symposium from which we have quoted may be taken as an illustration—namely, the appeal to the "principle of industrial democracy." This "principle" has much to recommend it; it has a foundation in proved fact; it has behind it the philosophy of generations. Yet to some of us it may seem to leave untouched and unexplained much which needs to be touched on and explained by any interpretation of the coming era which claims to be fundamental.

For if indeed "we have entered upon a well-defined era of industrial constitutionalism just as political constitutional-

ism took shape in the western world in the eighteenth century"—if that be the fundamental characteristic of the present movement—then there are many of us who will see in the coming era little promise and little hope. We cannot but remember how often recently our present ills have been ascribed to the character of eighteenth century constitutionalism. We may well doubt the benefits conferred upon many European countries by their imitations of the English system.

"Political constitutionalism" will not explain a hundredth part of the phenomena of the French Revolution. It lies very near the surface but very far from the heart of the movements of the last two hundred years. Socialism and syndicalism have been, each in turn, a protest against its disappointments. Perhaps "industrial constitutionalism" is like its predecessor, only some new variant of an ideal in its essence as old as the Hildebrandine popes—only another attempt to erect, by some fresh device of organization or variation of system, a new pinnacle whereon may at last be set a human power which shall be in fact, and not merely in name, "the servant of the servants of God."

Surely in a quieter study, in an inquiry which should take into account all those strands of thought which we are apt to ignore because it is hard to weave them into the fabric of public speech, we might obtain a clearer insight into our social sins and social needs, and gain from that insight at once a deeper repentance and a brighter hope.

THE GHOST

SARAH N. CLEGHORN

But twelve short paces from the lighted parlor,
Its rosy shaded candles
And tinkling pianola,
Where the young daughter of the house makes
merry
With store of boon companions,

Eileen sits lonely in the silent kitchen.
A little sad and drooping
She looks in her black house-dress.
So young she is, so strangely solitary!
So dimpled, and so sombre!

(Methinks Eileen knows how to laugh and frolic,
To turn the quick bright answer,
To dance the reels of Galway,
And sing the ancient Irish fairy ballads
In Oh, the lilting treble!)

What ghost comes gliding through the pantry
doorway?
A stalwart ghost and comely,

Red-cheeked, in gingham apron.
Straight to Eileen she goes, and lays a friendly
Touch on her drooping shoulder.

"Sure I'll stay with you now awhile, mavourneen:
There's none of them can see me:
No second sight among them:
There's not a creature in this town or county
A seventh son or daughter!

"By Bridget's soul, I wish it was the old days:
For old folks worked together,
And old folks played together.
To leave a young thing lonely in the kitchen
Would spoil an old-time party.

"Ah well! Folks were Americans in those days.
Queer! Though the work was harder,
The help was always plenty.
Whist now, don't cry! There'll soon be room,
mavourneen,
For one more in the factory."

CIVICS

THE ST. LOUIS PAGEANT *and* MASQUE

ITS CIVIC MEANING

BY ROGER N. BALDWIN

CIVIC LEAGUE OF ST. LOUIS

FOREST PARK, WHERE THE PAGEANT AND MASQUE WILL BE HELD, WAS THE SITE OF THE LOUISIANA PURCHASE EXPOSITION IN 1904. THIS VIEW IS FROM ART HILL WHICH AFFORDS A NATURAL AMPHITHEATRE SEATING 60,000 PEOPLE. THE SCENIC ADAPTATION OF THIS SETTING IS BEING WORKED OUT WITH A MINIA-TURE MODEL AS SHOWN ON THE OP-POSITE PAGE.



Behind the greatest civic drama ever projected in the United States lies the idea of building on a spectacle of the past a new city unity for the future. All St. Louis—from youngster to oldest inhabitant—is stirring with preparations for a gigantic pageant and masque to be held the last four days in May, in celebration of the one hundred and fiftieth anniversary of the founding of St. Louis by Laclède.

The drama will take place in a great natural amphitheater seating 60,000 persons, and 7,500 men, women and children will take part. The stage, thrown across one of the lagoons left from the World's Fair of 1904, will be the largest ever constructed.

The pageant will present the history of St. Louis, rich in incident and color, from the early mound-builders, through the Spanish and French occupation and on into the century of remarkable growth of the great West. The masque will portray the struggle of civilization—the triumph of the city and of democracy.

It is a civic undertaking enlisting the co-operation of public officials and the leaders of nearly a hundred civic, labor, business, professional and patriotic associations. Practically every agency of government is participating—the schools, library, park and municipal administrative departments.

This great spectacle is, however, to be merely a vehicle. It was conceived and promoted as a purely civic enterprise, devoid of any feature of com-

mercialism, to rouse a great city to a sense of unity, of common understanding, of common effort. Its purpose is well expressed in the phrase adopted as its slogan, "If we play together, we will work together."

St. Louis needs to learn that lesson. Like many other cities, St. Louis is divided within itself—geographically, racially, socially. Its very prosperity and even growth have prevented that vitalizing of domestic relations on which democratic processes for the common welfare build.

So the great drama is to visualize the city's life, and bring forth into expres-

sion all the latent power for a new citizenship. Groups of citizens who have never known of one another's existence have been brought together. On the score of committees in charge of the various departments are men and women, present-day immigrants and descendants of early French and German settlers, colored and white, young and old, business men and laboring men. Among the 7,500 performers men, women and children of all nationalities, from all parts of the city, and in all walks in life are being enrolled.

It is out of this democratic contact in the cause of a celebration of the com-



PERCY MACKAY

The distinguished dramatist and poet, author of the Masque.

CHARLOTTE RUMBOLD

Secretary Public Recreation Commission, who suggested the pageant.

DWIGHT F. DAVIS

Park commissioner, who is helping to make the pageant a reality.

This mound, 16 acres in extent and 100 feet high, is now part of an Illinois farm. A movement has been started, in connection with the pageant, to secure congressional action for the preservation of the Cahokia group.

CAHOKIA MOUND, ONE OF A GROUP ACROSS THE RIVER FROM ST. LOUIS, IS THE LARGEST REMAINING WORK OF THE MOUND BUILDERS



mon civic life that a new spirit is bound to spring—a spirit which will give St. Louis the power to do big things and to do them through her citizenship as a whole. In the past it has been the business community which has done things, the men of money and power. Today with the new democracy in government, with the initiative and referendum in state and city, the whole community must be the doer of deeds. And this is the first challenge in St. Louis to the capacity of the whole community. Even the funds are being democratically raised. It is not a business man's affair. Everyone is being asked to contribute, if only a few cents. Collections are being made in every corner of the big city.

This great pageant and masque has more than a local significance. It is a significant contribution to the civic drama of America, not because of the tremendous scale on which it is projected, but because of the quality of the talent behind it. The local committee has secured the services of the foremost experts and artists in the United States to write and stage it. Percy Mackaye, the distinguished dramatist and poet wrote the Masque, and Thomas Wood Stevens of the Pittsburgh School of Drama, wrote and will stage the pageant. Joseph Lindon Smith, pageant master of international fame, will stage the masque the music for which was written by

Frederick S. Converse, leading American composer.

The inspiration of the pageant will be spread, it is hoped, to other cities by means of the participation of their representatives in the masque. Invitations have been sent far and wide by the mayor to the mayors of all the large cities of the West and Southwest, asking them to send heraldic envoys, typifying the new co-operation between cities, to take part in the demonstration.

"But," says John H. Gundlach, chairman of the Executive Committee, and leader in all movements for building the city of the future, "much as we prize the good opinion of sister cities and states; proud as we shall be of the matchless beauty of pageant and masque as it unfolds itself in never-to-be-forgotten pictures and dramatic episodes to the multitudes who will gather on the

green slopes of Art Hill in Forest Park . . . our one great hope is that out of the beauty of art, of community intercourse, of historic inspiration and uplifting prophecy of the future, will spring an aroused civic pride and love of home, that will develop a sense of community obligation and mutual co-operation of such force as will sweep into being a new era in our municipal life. . . . Ask yourself in all candor whether it will pay to bring together on the great stage at the foot of Art Hill the boys and girls, the men and women, of the East and West Ends, the North and South Ends, to be stirred by one common purpose; re-enacting with the joy of life in their eyes the romantic history not of my city, not of your city, but of our city, the place that shall give us the priceless blessings of a unity before unknown."

WHERE SHALL THE CITIZENS OF NEW YORK VOTE? —BY CARL BECK, CIVIC SECRETARY, THE PEOPLE'S INSTITUTE

THE LATEST STATISTICS show that 529 schoolhouses scattered throughout the country are already used as polling places. Chicago is thus using 70 schoolhouses this spring. This is in line with the wider civic use of schools and other public buildings, a phase of the now popular social center movement.

However, what Boston, Chicago, Wor-

cester, Grand Rapids, Madison, Milwaukee and Los Angeles have found by practical experience to be an efficient, economical and worthy use of school buildings is denied to New York city by the state Legislature. The Simpson-Goldberg bill, which would empower the Board of Elections of New York city to designate schoolhouses and other public buildings as polling places, was passed by the senate but failed in the assembly despite resolutions in its support by delegates from the Honest Ballot Association, the Citizens' Union, the Municipal Government Association, the Young Republican Club, the Board of Education, the Board of Elections, the office of the corporation counsel, the City Club and the People's Institute.

The People's Institute gave publicity to the facts concerning the availability of New York's 620 public schools; the Board of Education favored such use; the Board of Elections requested the corporation counsel to draft the bill. But the clamor of small shop owners, whose shops are rented to serve as the city's 1,780 polling places, seemed sufficient to defeat this practical legislation.

Should Governor Glynn, in calling an extra session of the Legislature, be persuaded to recommend specifically the

JOSEPH LINDON SMITH, STAGE DIRECTOR OF THE MASQUE

THOMAS WOOD STEVENS, AUTHOR AND DIRECTOR OF THE PAGEANT.

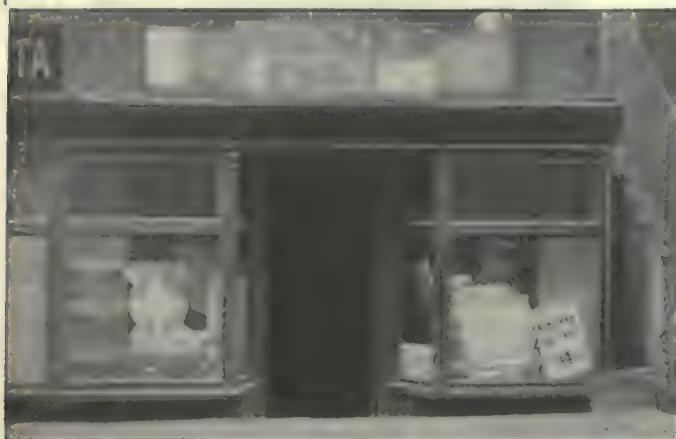


Failure of the Legislature to pass a bill compels New York city voters to vote

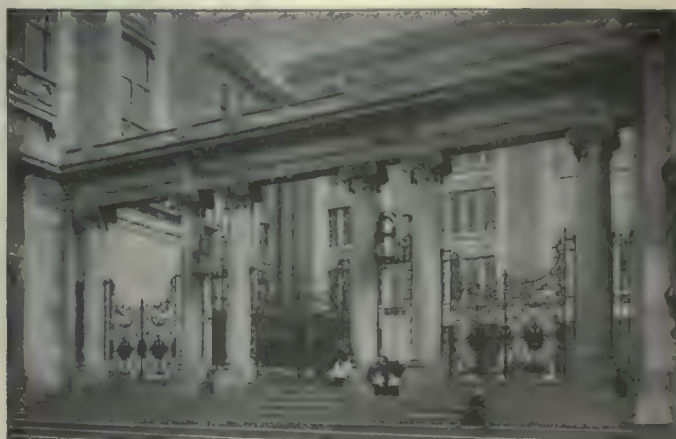
HERE

Instead of

HERE



One of many pool rooms used as polling places in New York's last mayoralty election. The citizens of New York exercised their highest function of citizenship in 413 barber shops. Noodle shops, bakeries, butcher shops, laundries, fish stores, basements and blacksmiths' shops were also used.



This clean, spacious, dignified public school is only a block from one of the pool rooms used in the last mayoralty election. New York's 620 schools and 554 other public buildings would provide appropriate polling places and save the city upwards of \$125,000 at each election.

further consideration of the Simpson-Goldberg bill, the civic and social agencies of New York city will have another chance.

By using public buildings for the public business of registering votes, it is estimated that New York would save at least \$125,000 at each election. By eliminating the trouble and time required for hiring quarters, and the expense and bother of transporting and storing voting paraphernalia, greater efficiency would be secured. The location of the polling place would become fixed and regular and thus well-known, instead of being changed frequently to a different shop or store. Education in practical civics would be offered children in the schoolhouse where voting takes place.

A sense of ownership would be instilled in citizens, especially among immigrant citizens who have had little connection with the public schools except indirectly through their children. The sanctity of the ballot would be upheld better in quiet and dignified surroundings than in dingy stores. And untrammelled voting would have a greater chance of preservation in company with honest education free from partisan political influence.

The use of schools would eliminate pernicious political patronage through the custom of allowing district captains to designate polling places and thus have the opportunity also for graft in connection with the renting of barber shops and pool rooms. On the other hand, if polling places were in schoolhouses politicians would be freed from annoying obligations to clamoring store owners, all of whose stores cannot be rented.

The 620 schools of New York city, it has been estimated, would accommodate 1,240 polling places out of 1,780 that were used in 1913. The balance of 540 could be placed in other buildings such as libraries, armories, fire halls,

police stations, and if necessary, in street cleaning buildings of which there are altogether 554.

HOW RICHMOND IS HOUSED—By John Ihlder, National Housing Assn.

AN UNUSUALLY interesting illustrated report issued by the Society for the Improvement of Housing and Living Conditions in Richmond, Va., shows again that bad housing is confined to no one city or class of cities nor to any section of the country. The people of Richmond should find value in its presentation of facts which, though long ignored, bear directly upon their prosperity and well-being. When a death rate is as high as that of Richmond it certainly indicates that something is so far wrong that investigation is imperative. This investigation, made under the supervision of G. A. Weber, secretary of the society, shows at least where part of the trouble lies.

Richmond, like most southern cities, is fortunate in that it is still predominantly a city of small houses. According to the United States census of 1910 the average number of persons per house was only 5.7. In the districts studied by Mr. Weber the average was even smaller, 5.4 whites and 4.9 Negroes per house. But the tenement evil is already threatening. Not only are old mansions being converted into barracks for many families, but "apartment" houses designed to accommodate as many as forty families each are being erected in fashionable neighborhoods. And all this without any adequate attempt at regulation by the public authorities. To quote from the report:

"There are no regulations concerning land overcrowding. An apartment or tenement house may cover every square foot of the lot on which it is built, leaving no yard or court for light or ven-

tilation, and it may be built to any height. There are no restrictions concerning the size of rooms in such houses, no provision for lighting or ventilating halls, or for the adequacy of water supply or of water-closet accommodation. In dwelling houses of three or less families there are no requirements whatever concerning light or ventilation, and a landlord may provide as many dark rooms as he chooses."

On some of the best streets there are already apartment houses which occupy nearly all of their lots, depending for light and air upon vacant lots or the yards of old single family houses next door. When these neighboring lots are similarly occupied the district will begin to go down and Richmond will suffer as other American cities have suffered, a tremendous loss in real estate values.

But these "apartment" houses are still too new and too few in number to be much more than a threat. Before that threat has been made good we may hope that Richmond will enact a housing code which will adequately regulate future building as well as bring existing dwellings up to a fairly wholesome standard.

The conditions which contribute now to Richmond's high death rate are found chiefly in the poorer districts. There are dwellings "which are poorly lighted, unventilated, damp, imperfectly drained, exposed to undue fire peril, in bad repair, vermin infested, disease infected, with unclean surroundings, with insufficient water supply, without toilet accommodations adequate for comfort, cleanliness or privacy, with defective plumbing, with overcrowded rooms, and with cellar tenements"—all the bad features that are found in the neglected portions of our other cities. Richmond has dared to look its facts in the face. Legislation setting proper housing standards is the next step in its advance.

EDUCATING TENEMENT DWELLERS —By Nellie Reeder

Brooklyn Bureau of Charities

A CAMPAIGN among tenement dwellers, to educate them in cleanliness, order, ventilation and proper waste disposal in relation to health, fire prevention and safety, has been carried on by the Tenement House Committee of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities. At first it was planned to make clear to tenants their rights as well as their responsibilities. But the need for informing them as to their rights was soon found to be less urgent than the need for impressing them with their responsibilities. The tenant seems to realize fairly well every one's duty but his own.

As to sanitary conditions tenants' efforts can accomplish much. Accordingly, the committee undertook, by means of clubs and associations connected with schools or churches, to make an active campaign for better sanitation in specified districts. Illustrated lectures were given, bringing out the essentials of the law and what can be accomplished by the individual tenant.

An interesting feature of the educational campaign was the establishment of demonstration flats where girls and young women are taught how to live and maintain proper standards with given conditions typical of those in the neighborhoods in which they live. In each of three flats provision is made for classes, lectures and practice work. Some of the classes are especially for mothers. The demonstration flats are maintained by organized groups of women interested in each district. They are furnished cheaply but with taste and in a strictly sanitary fashion with goods obtainable in nearby shops.

In addition to the groups meeting in these flats, two other housekeepers' clubs, sometimes called Tenants' Leagues, have been organized. These meet in the public schools. The educational secretary of the committee discusses various problems with them and receives their complaints of violations of the tenement house law.

The campaign has been carried on by means of lectures and informal talks with the aid of the housing exhibit consisting of large posters, pictures and models of an old law house and a new

TEN COMMANDMENTS REGARDING OPEN LOTS

1. Love your neighbor's lot as you do your own, but be sure to love your own.
2. Don't plant tomato cans or rubbish on unused land, their fruits are withered civic pride.
3. Don't allow yourself or your city to create dumps for waste. It can be made to pay for its own destruction at a profit.
4. Don't allow tumbled down buildings to stand on valuable land, they are financially wasteful; they create filth, invite vice and are a menace to life.
5. A fence that has ceased to be a fence and has become an offence, should be repaired or destroyed.
6. Unregulated advertising on unused land pays for the maintenance of a public nuisance.
7. Two gardens may grow where one dump has bloomed before.
8. School gardens are valuable adjuncts to education and recreation. They can be cultivated on an open lot.
9. Let the children play on the unused land so that they may become strong and keep out of the hands of the law.
10. Let not an inch of land be kept in idleness. It has a divine right to bear fruits and flowers and ever serve the highest interest of man.

SUBURBAN PLANNING ASSOCIATION

412 EMPIRE BUILDING " " " PHILADELPHIA, PA.

law house. The text of all school talks is cleanliness. All talks are supplemented by distribution of cards giving "ten housing commandments" and pamphlets giving clearly and simply what the law requires,—the duties of the tenants and the duties of landlords.

HOUSTON'S NEW TAXATION PLAN

HOUSTON, Texas, has recently made great progress in the direction of the single tax. The taxation plan now in effect provides for the taxing of land exclusive of improvements at 70 per cent and improvements at 25 per cent of their value.

The first single tax germ planted in Houston was about thirty years ago, when the shops of the Southern Pacific Railroad were brought to the city. It was tentatively agreed between the city officials and the Southern Pacific board of directors that while the property on which the shops were located should be assessed at its true valuation, the improvements on the property would be taxed at only a small figure. This tentative agreement was gradually extended to all of the railroads which improved

property in Houston.

Twenty years ago, when H. F. Ring, an ardent single taxer, was city attorney, the city council took another important step by separating the land values from the improvement values on the assessment rolls. Before that time all property, improved or unimproved, had been lumped in valuation on the assessment rolls and the tax payer had no idea how much of his taxes paid were for land and how much for improvements.

Three or four years ago, J. J. Pastoriza, a single taxer, was named city tax commissioner. He installed the Somers system of assessing property for taxation.

Writing in *The Public* in the issue of January 9, 1914, Mr. Ring said of the adoption of the plan in Houston: "It revealed here, as it will probably everywhere else, that the real estate of the rich was being assessed at about 40 per cent of its value and that of the poor at 80 per cent. The assessed values of land, exclusive of improvements, in the business part of the city and in the suburbs held in large tracts, was raised, often from 100 per cent to 200 per cent and sometimes more, in one instance the



Hutchins, Kansas Eagle

STITCHES IN TIME

Had Father Noah been quite wise he would have killed the pair of flies that roosted in the ark; he let that pregnant duty slide while he and Shem and Japhet tried to navigate their bark. Two flies were all there were, all told! And Noah might have knocked them cold with one good husky swat; he had the chance—he let it slip while he was mooning round his ship—the knowledge makes me hot! And ever since the sons of men have toiled and wrought and toiled again, to kill the measly flies; the more we kill the more we find, the more we knock the blamed things blind the more their legions rise. We're all, like Noah, more or less responsible for the distress that makes all hope seem vague; we see some ugly things alive, and let them live and grow and thrive until they are a plague. We calmly view the noxious weeds, and habits bad, and evil deeds, which breed so beastly fast! We let them grow and multiply as Father Noah did the fly and kick ourselves at last. "A stitch in time," the poet said (he had a long and shapely head), "will save you nine, by gum." And nothing truer will you find in all the years that lie behind, or all the years to come. WALT MASON.

increase was 1500 per cent, and that of the small homestead owners, and that also of the rich, was reduced in many cases."

By the new system of taxation no attempt was made to tax credits, money in the bank, household goods, etc., but the revenue of the city, with some small exceptions, came from the land valuation, with the 25 per cent of the value of improvements thrown in as good measure. To this was added 25 per cent of the value of stocks of goods carried by merchants. Franchises, under the first year of the system, it were assessed at \$1,800,000, being the first time they had been assessed. Last year they were assessed at \$2,200,000. With this income, and with the system of taxation equalized, more than 5,000 home owners in Houston found that their total taxes for the year were less than for the preceding year.

In the south end of Houston there stands a single tax cabin where single taxers frequently meet for discussions and debate. The property on which this cabin stands was purchased by J. J. Pastoriza, now city commissioner, when he was first converted to the single tax theory. He paid about \$350 for the property, as it was then far out. He put a sign on the cabin that no improvements would be made, but that when the value of the property to a purchaser became \$5,000, he would sell it. In the meanwhile the city has grown out towards the cabin and the land has jumped in value by leaps and bounds. He has had several offers that almost touch the price he placed on the property.

"There is the single tax example," he says. "I have not improved the land. It has lain idle. Yet in these years its value has raised from \$350 to nearly \$5,000. The increase is my unearned increment. I have not created the profit by any labor of mine. This land then, that increases in value by its position and the improvements about it should return of the unearned increment its pro-rata of taxes. All of the property in the city, most of it returning unearned increment, should support, by taxation, the government."

PENNSYLVANIA CITY PLANNING LAW CONTESTED

THE RIGHT of Metropolitan Planning Commissions in Pennsylvania to assess city boroughs and townships in order to defray the expenses of such commissions is being contested in the courts. Following the preparation of a bill by the Pennsylvania Suburban Planning Association, the Legislature a year ago enacted a law whereby metropolitan planning commissions were created for districts surrounding and within twenty-five miles of the limits of cities of the first and second classes.

The significance of this law was pointed out in *THE SURVEY* for June 7, 1913. Its purpose is to secure through co-ordination of the work of the various governmental units within the areas covered by the commissions, far-sighted plans for the development of comprehensive systems of transportation, better sewage and garbage disposal, improved housing and sanitation, playgrounds and



ALL THE CHILDREN OF BENNINGTON, VT., OFF FOR A SLEIGH RIDE

civic planning and improvement. Over two hundred governmental units in Pennsylvania were thus placed under supervision of metropolitan planning commissions.

According to the law the commissions may employ secretaries, engineers, or other experts and may incur expenses which shall constitute a charge on the treasury of the cities, boroughs and townships within the district not exceeding one-tenth of a mill of their taxable values.

Opponents of the law contend that it is unconstitutional under a clause of the state constitution prohibiting the general Assembly from delegating to any special commission any municipal function. On these grounds, the township of Radnor has brought suit against the Metropolitan Planning Commission appointed in its district, and other townships are expected to do the same.

CALIFORNIA RECREATION COMMISSION

The California Recreational Inquiry Committee, created by the Legislature and to report November 1, 1914, has divided its work into three sections: 1. Why we need recreation—treated from a biological, psychological and sociological standpoint. 2. What facilities we have for recreation, public and commercial; unused facilities; lack of facilities in rural communities and mining camps. 3. What the state needs in recreational facilities: recommendations to communities, industrial plants, state departments, and bills to be submitted to the Legislature.

The members of the commission are Senator Herbert C. Jones of San Jose, appointed from the state Senate; Judge H. S. Peairs of Bakersfield appointed from the Assembly; and five citizens appointed by the governor; James E. Rogers of San Francisco, representing charities; Chief of Police Vollmer of Berkeley, representing police; C. S. Stebbins, Chico State Normal School, representing schools; Dr. Grace Fernald, Los Angeles State Normal School, representing juvenile court work; and Bessie D. Stoddart of the Los Angeles Playground Commission, representing recreation.

A VARIED RECREATION PROGRAM

Bennington, Vt., had a community sleigh-ride on March 9 as part of the town's recreation program. Every sort of sleigh and box on runners was pressed into service, whether its usual job was hauling groceries, coal or baggage.

The recreation activities for last year in Bennington show how varied a town's recreation program may be and how much can be accomplished without regular playground apparatus. Not only was a summer playground maintained, providing for tennis, base-ball, volleyball and other games, but there were popular concerts, a community Christmas tree, a pageant of patriots on Washington's birthday, story telling, a baby contest, athletic meets, skating in safety for five weeks and folk dancing festivals.

The total expense last year was \$1,638.35. The village voted \$500 and the rest is raised by private subscriptions. The work is in charge of the Civic League, a group of young women. Hilda Pratt, president.

HOUSING LAW LESSENS FIRE DANGER

The state fire marshal of Indiana has found ready to his hand a most effective means of reducing the annual waste from fire for which America is notorious. Last year the Legislature enacted a housing law which applies to all the cities of the state, and which, among its provisions designed to safeguard the health and lives of dwellers in multiple houses, contains a number that will greatly reduce the fire hazard. These the marshal has discovered and the newspapers in every part of Indiana have recently told what he has said about this housing law.

The provision which appeals to him most strongly is that requiring all tenement houses more than three stories high to be of fireproof construction. Other approved sections are those forbidding a closet under a stairway leading from the first floor to an upper story, the storage of inflammable materials in any tenement building and the obligation upon the owner of providing proper metal receptacles for ashes and rubbish.

INDUSTRY

A REPLY TO THE CRITICS OF MINIMUM WAGE LEGISLATION—BY BERTHA BRADLEY WARBASSE

MOST OF THE countries of Europe and twenty-three states of our own country, have declared through workmen's compensation acts that the preservation and upkeep of an industry should include its human machines. Identical in principle and springing from the same basic idea is the proposition that the minimum of wage payments should not fall below a level at which life and efficiency can be maintained. An industry incapable of supporting its workers at such a level, for a long time has been recognized as parasitic, subsidized by that part of the community least able to bear the tax.

It would seem that anyone who recognizes workmen's compensation acts as just and economically sound should logically accept the correlative need of an established minimum wage. Nevertheless the justice and feasibility of a minimum wage law are alike being questioned. Some of the objections raised are that the personnel in industry would be unfavorably affected by such legislation; that the worker now receives all he earns; that stimulus and ambition are effective agents for securing wage increases; and that immigration will be stimulated. These contentions may well be examined.

It has been stated that a minimum wage law will throw out of work the weaklings and incompetents, none of whom can produce wealth enough to justify the payment of a living wage, and that the competent alone will be retained in employment. But obviously the places made vacant must and will be filled by workers competent to earn the minimum wage who were out of employment. That is, one class will be thrown out of work, and two will benefit—the competent unemployed and the competent who are employed but not receiving a living wage.

Now, in detail, who will be thrown out of work?

(1) Incompetents, *i. e.*, mental defectives, Binet children, in whom years can never develop ability sufficient to produce, under competition, enough wealth to be entirely self-supporting. Occupation of some kind, under some conditions is important for them and should be provided; but it is already recognized that the ordinary factory or shop is not the best solution of their problem.

(2) The old, crippled, and partially disabled, a group whose numbers in standardized industry are hardly sufficient to warrant consideration above the good of an overwhelming majority, and for whom workmen's compen-

sation acts and social insurance should provide.

(3) Children. Be they never so capable for their years, the total product of their efforts would be no equivalent for a legal minimum wage.

Second, whom will the law benefit?

When mental defectives, the crippled, the aged and children are turned out of standardized industry who will fill their places? What permanent class of the unemployed have we in America? Not women, not children. It is pitifully easy for them to get work. But it is often tragically hard for the father of the family to find it. The unemployed in America are unemployed *men*. Why is this so? Is it not because a man demands a living wage? Because he personally tries to exact a minimum wage from an employer who finds it cheaper to get several girls at a less total cost and a larger total output? Why did not the Illinois glass furnaces employ men to carry the output from furnace to furnace? Because, before the passage of legislation forbidding it, they could and did get little boys to do the work at \$1.50 a week. The average life of these ten and eleven year old children was short after taking employment.¹ But arithmetic easily shows it was cheaper for the employer to hire children whose families fed, kept and buried them than to have given a living wage to men. A minimum wage would throw out of employment the children who work all night in the glass factories of Pennsylvania, who work in mines, cotton mills, and factories all over our country. Is feeding our children into the mills of industry the best thing we can do for them? Any law, minimum age or minimum wage, that will help correct this economic abuse seems worth urging even if it carried no other benefit.

Who should do the work of the world? Incompetents, mental defectives, children, cripples, old people? While strong men cannot get work? Any re-adjustment of labor groups must work hardship to some individuals and to some classes. To such temporary distress we should apply whatever temporary relief is needed. But if this fundamental wrong is to be in some measure righted, this mal-adjustment corrected, is not the ultimate outcome worth whatever suffering it entails?

To those who have believed that labor

¹Helen Todd, formerly a factory inspector in Illinois, writes, of the Illinois glass factories: "The mortality of the children would necessarily be very great. The ages of the children employed were as young as ten and eleven years, and the wages sometimes fell as low as \$1.50 a week."

receives now all that it earns, Henry Ford's recent doubling of his minimum wage must come as a shock. Mr. Ford himself is quoted as saying that the wage increase from \$2.34 a day to \$5 (minimum) "is made because the division of profits between capital and labor has not been just."

Will the facts of today bear out the contention of some that each individual can secure for himself a living wage if only he can be "stimulated" to increased endeavor and greater ambition? What has led to the practice of collective bargaining but the bitter experience in the fallacy of this very theory? The "speeder" doubles her output, and for a time doubles her pay. Then the rate of pay per piece is reduced, and she is no better off than originally. All in the shop who cannot equal her speed are poorer. But to go deeper still,—in most industries the greatest possible "stimulus" to endeavor is already applied, the stimulus to secure by the worker's utmost exertion a wage which will purchase the barest necessities of life.

In the silk mills of Paterson the workers have been required to tend two, then three, then four looms. So that they might double and quadruple their wage? Not at all; merely that they might receive the same wage, which the increased cost of living makes actually a lesser wage.² In the sweat-shops of New York the worker has been speeded up until the limit of endurance for a continued period or a prolonged life has been overstepped.

In the clothing trades it is a frequent thing, when a girl is asked if her father works, for her to reply, "No, he is old; he cannot work any more."

"How old is he?"

"Fifty. He's all worn out. He worked so hard when he was young. He can't keep it up any more."

In individual instances and for a time, no doubt, increased effort means an increased wage, a living wage. But for industry on the whole and in the long run, for the rank and file, does not Morris Hillquit come nearer the truth about wages: "The working population as a whole gets just a little less than is absolutely necessary to maintain it in physical fitness for its task, and to enable it to reproduce the species worker?"

One of the interesting speculations in regard to minimum wage is its probable effect on immigration. It has been asserted that it will attract to America

²In an article on Making Silk, in the *International Socialist Review* for March, 1914, Ewald Koettgen gives figures and data from which he deduces the following statement: "In other words, a weaver produces 18 yards more per day and is paid \$1.05 less than before." The comparison is between work and wages today—and in 1908.

great numbers of the unskilled workers from the poorer classes of Europe. But the lure of fabulous wages is already operative in southern Europe, enhanced to its utmost capability by agents of interested companies. It seems as if the establishment of a mere minimum might be a negligible stimulus to over-immigration as compared with the tremendous and artificial stimulus which steamship companies, mine operators and employers of cheap labor now exercise. If we want restricted immigration the power to restrict is ours at any time. To resort to the indirect method of starving our workers so that America shall look undesirable to the poorer classes of Europe, seems an ill-considered method of restriction. But so far from stimulating increased immigration, the minimum wage seems capable of itself acting as a restriction. For, if a fair wage is com-

pulsory, employers will have no motive to induce cheap immigration, and a powerful artificial stimulus, now acting, will be removed.

But, all these minor considerations aside, one has to come back to the main question of justice and expediency,—what a civilized nation should do and what it cannot afford to do.

Either it is desirable that all who work be given enough of the wealth they produce to live on, or it is not. If it is, there are three ways in which it may be accomplished: The universal strike of the employed, universal agreement among employers, a universal regulation by government. Of the three methods which seems at once most probable of accomplishment and capable of inflicting the least harm in process of adjustment?

HOW EUROPE PROTECTS BLEACH WORKERS—HOW NEW YORK DOES IT—BY GEORGE M. PRICE, M.D.

[The third in Dr. Price's series of European impressions.]

AMONG THE electro-thermal and electro-chemical factories at Niagara Falls, N. Y., are many in which there are great dangers to the lives and health of the workers. Not one of the chemical establishments in that city made such a terrible impression upon the members of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission, however, as the bleach works connected with two of the largest chemical plants which they visited in the summer of 1912.

In my report to the New York State Factory Investigating Commission on the chemical trades, (published in their second report, 1913) the conditions in these factories were described in detail. The bleach workers rake up the chloride of lime (or lime saturated with chlorine gas) spread on the floors of large air-tight chambers and throw it down chutes through traps in the chamber floors. The chamber is supposed to be ventilated before letting in the workmen, although considerable chlorine gas is left in the chamber and the process raises clouds of dust. The chlorine gas is so overpowering that it is impossible for one to stay in the chamber for even a short time without some protection. The workers wear a "muzzle" of several folds of cloth through which they breathe.

The men remain in the chamber from ten to fifteen minutes. When they come out they present a pitiful appearance. They are covered with lime dust; their eyebrows and exposed parts are permanently whitened by the action of the bleach; perspiration is profuse and runs down the face; the breath is labored and hurried; the pulse is high; and the exhausted workers quickly throw off their muzzles and rush for the open windows gasping for breath.

Dante, had he lived in our age, need not have gone far to draw pictures of his "Inferno," for, if there ever was a hell in which human beings were condemned to suffer and expiate somebody's sins, the bleach chambers are certainly such. The work in the bleach

chambers is most exhausting and can be performed only by extraordinarily robust men in the prime of life and then not for long periods. These men at forty look as though they were sixty and their tenure of work in these chambers is not very long.

I asked the superintendents and owners of the establishments whether they knew of any other process by which chloride of lime could be manufactured without such great hazards to the lives and health of the workers. Invariably, I was answered that they knew of no such process.



BLEACH PACKERS' REGIMENTALS

Packers of "bleach" or chloride of lime wear several thicknesses of moistened fine white flannel over their mouths and draw breath only through this. Castner Electrolytic Alkali Co., Niagara Falls, N. Y.

While going through the large chemical establishment of Droegenbush, near Brussels, on my recent tour of inspection, I was shown a great number of practical improvements in the manufacture of acids and in other chemicals by the superintendent of the works. Just before leaving the establishment we passed an open shed with two workers, one on each side of the shed. The whole process was so inconspicuous that it would have escaped notice if I had not asked the superintendent, who accompanied us, what was being done in the shed. I was greatly surprised when I learned that the work being done in this part of the establishment was the manufacture of chloride of lime. "Where are the bleach chambers and where are the bleach workers?" I inquired. "We need no bleach chambers nor do we need any bleach workers," he replied. "This is an improved process of manufacturing chloride of lime by which a larger quantity is manufactured with less expense. As you see there are only two workers necessary, one at each end of the process."

On closer inspection I found that the whole process of bleach manufacture was done in a surprisingly simple manner. It is unnecessary here to describe the details of this improved process. It is sufficient to say that the slaked lime is drawn through a vacuum pipe into a lime hopper on the top of the machine; from there the lime is dropped into a special cylindrical apparatus consisting of several superimposed cast-iron cylinders in which are worm arrangements carrying the lime along while chlorine gas passes over in an opposite direction until it finally comes to the outlet shoot, which, when opened, lets out the saturated lime, now chloride of lime, into a packing cask which is then headed up and ready for shipment.

The whole process was automatic and entirely closed; there was hardly any smell of chlorine gas in the vicinity and the two men, one at each end of the process, did not need any protection whatever as there was no dust or gas present from first to last.

Here then was an illustration of the practicability of preventing the dangers and injuries to which bleach workers are subjected. Why is it that our manufacturers at Niagara Falls did not know, or claimed they did not know, of such a process?

My elation in having discovered a new process in manufacture of bleach powder was, however, short-lived, for, on further study and inquiry I have found that not only is this process of bleach manufacture not so very new, but it is one that has been employed in the Rhenania factory at Aachen, Germany, for a great many years. It is called the Hasenklever process. On looking over some old English factory reports I found a description of this process with photographs, etc., as well as a description of another similar process, that of Mr. Milnes, fully described in the report of the chief inspector of factories in England in 1893.

The moral of this tale? Ignorance is not always bliss; at times it is a crime.

SWEDEN'S NEW LAW FOR THE PROTECTION OF WORKINGMEN—BY OLGA S. HALSEY

SWEDEN IS LEARNING from the experience of other nations to prepare for her coming industrial era. Although in 1904, agriculture was an industry of greater magnitude than all manufacturing enterprises combined, the development of her water power indicates the dawning of an industrial era. In anticipation of this change a new factory act was passed in June, 1912, and became effective January, 1913.

The first impression that this "law for the protection of workingmen" makes upon the readers is that its provisions are indefinite. The law aims at results, and has left the interpretation of the terms to inspectors. The inspectorial force meets regularly, so that a uniform interpretation may be maintained. The indefiniteness is particularly noticeable in the sections that aim at the prevention of industrial accidents and diseases. For protection in case of fire, "such steps shall be taken as may be regarded necessary considering the nature of the work, the location of the place of work, and the number of workers."

To maintain general good health, the law requires that escaping dust, steam, and gas, shall be prevented, and that factories shall be adequately lighted, heated and ventilated "to the degree that the nature of the work permits."

A novel regulation is that the duration of employment of those working in an unhealthy trade, shall be limited. The only instance, in which this appears to be in force, is in the use of white or yellow phosphorus for match-making. The law of 1896, which covers this special industry, provides that those engaged in the preparing or dipping of matches may not be so occupied for more than one month; they may not be re-employed until after the expiration of four weeks and then only upon the condition that the health of the worker has not suffered. Every three months, at the expense of the employer a medical examination is given.

The law contains no limitations of the hours that men may work. More protection has been extended to the 58,000 working women, who may not be employed underground, in quarries, nor at night work, nor within 6 weeks after childbirth unless the doctor testifies that without danger to her health she may resume work earlier. There seems no immediate prospect of attaining a ten hour day for women, because the feminists, with shortsightedness, oppose restrictions upon women alone and because the unions devote their energies to working toward an eight hour day for both men and women.

The law has made its greatest restrictions in the employment of the 59,414 children, or minors under eighteen. The first requirement is that the minor shall have finished the public school. This is strengthened by a carefully enforced compulsory education law which requires attendance at school from seven years until the completion of the course. The public school system is so managed, that practically all finish school at twelve,

Miss Halsey is a recent graduate of Wellesley College and is now a student in the London School of Economics. Under the general direction of Prof. Katharine Coman of Wellesley, Miss Halsey is taking advantage of this opportunity to observe social conditions in Europe.—Ed.

thirteen, or possibly fourteen. Boys under thirteen, and girls under fourteen may not begin work. These regulations apply only to those work places that are defined as "factories" (i.e., where there are ten or more employees; five or more employees, and three or more horse power; or places with five horse power or more). Places smaller than these are called "shops." As these "shops" frequently carry on light work, often out-of-doors in the northern provinces, age standards have been lowered, so that boys of twelve may be employed for six hours a day.

Before a child may begin work he must have his certificate book. In this the parish priest certifies that the child has fulfilled the educational requirement, and gives the child's name, age, parents' name, and address. After a child has begun work his hours are limited according to the following table:

Under 13.	6 hours a day.	30 hours a week
13 14	8 " " "	48 " " "
14 18	10 " " "	60 " " "

With a few exceptions minors may not be employed between the hours of 7 p. m. and 6 a. m. No child may be employed at work that is especially dangerous, such as mining, or which may prevent his physical development. To insure this the law provides that each minor under eighteen at the expense of the government shall have an annual medical examination, to determine how far the work may have injured his health. The results are recorded in the certificate book, which has pages specially arranged for the purpose.

If the occupation has been injurious to the child's health, he is not allowed to continue. In 1911, 37,971 out of the total 59,414 working children were so examined (63.9 per cent); 501 were assigned to lighter work, and 81 forbidden to continue work. The results of these examinations are available for statistical purposes when the books of the eighteen year old boys and girls are returned to the Social Board.

In the management of her inspecting force, Sweden has solved her problems in an individual manner. With a total inspecting force of 48 it is impossible to inspect annually all the 20,371 registered factories. In fact, in 1911, only 2,596 or 12.3 per cent were inspected. Although the inspectors need a larger force the Riksdag is unwilling to grant money for the increased salary expenses. The present law aims to meet this difficulty by requiring that inspections are to be made first of those plants which have shown a high rate for accidents, or industrial diseases. Where such dangers

are at a minimum an inspection need not be made. The policy of the inspectors is to persuade rather than to compel the manufacturer to introduce necessary improvements. It is only in extreme cases that they resort to police authority to close the factory until alterations are made. This was done in about eight cases in the first half year in which the law was in operation.

One of the marked changes of the law, is the provision that one of the chief inspectors shall be a woman, charged with the oversight of women and children in industry. Kerstin Hesselgren, who has been appointed to fill this position, hopes to secure the complete supervision of the garment and laundry industries, which employ largely women.

Through a special force of communal inspectors, the act provides for the inspection of the small "shops." The local board of health, the communal board, or specially appointed persons, may be selected to undertake this work. In theory, the chief factory inspector supervises the reports of the communal inspectors within his district. Whether this supervision is to be lax, or systematically rigid depends wholly upon the individual inspector. Success demands close oversight. This is a most significant attempt to provide for the supervision of these small work places, that everywhere have been the despair of inspectors.

A SURVEY OF SOCIAL PROGRESS

The executive committee of the national survey of social progress which the National Civic Federation is to undertake has announced the selection of Roland P. Falkner as director of the survey. Mr. Falkner has had a wide experience in the statistical field. He was instructor and later assistant professor in statistics in the University of Pennsylvania from 1888-1900. He was chief of the Division of Documents in the library of Congress from 1900-1904; commissioner of education in Porto Rico for the three years following. Afterwards he was connected with the Immigration Commission, and since 1911, has been assistant director of the United States census. Mr. Falkner was statistician of the Senate Finance Committee in 1891 which made a federal investigation into prices, secretary of the International Monetary Conference in 1892, and chairman of the United States Commission to the Republic of Liberia in 1909.

BIRMINGHAM STRIKE SETTLED

Through the intervention of Sir George Askwith, of the British Board of Trade, the strike of the unskilled iron workers in the vicinity of Birmingham, England, has been settled. After eleven weeks on strike, the men have obtained their principal demand for a minimum wage of \$5.60 a week. Some 36,000 men were involved in the strike—members of the National Union of Gas Workers, the Amalgamated Iron Workers, Brickmakers, General Labourers, and The Workers' Union. The loss in wages was approximately \$1,330,000.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

HOMES FOR YOUNG WOMEN: THE ELEANOR CLUBS OF CHICAGO—BY ANNIE MARION MACLEAN

TIMOTHY'S QUEST for a mother was a simple and innocuous pastime compared with the young girl's search for a home when an unfriendly fate thrusts her out of the one nature designed her to have, and sends her scurrying around a big city looking for work and a place to live. Work may be obtained, but where shall she lay her head? The work may not be very profitable as work goes; it may not pay her more than five or six dollars a week, a mere pittance, where bread and butter are dear. There are doors ajar for this young girl, but the glimpse within is disheartening, and she is wise to pass them by even in utter desolation. But she is fortunate not to find worse things than dreariness and dirt.

Young girls are poor judges as a rule, and are likely to accept things on their face value. It seems too bad therefore that they should be obliged to go home-hunting so early in life in the great and insincere city. People who love girls have felt this, and some have come to the rescue with homes of various kinds spelled with a capital H. Many are probably good, and the sponsors are offering their quota to the blessedness of the world.

I have in mind now, not the homes whose name is legion, but one particular kind that seems to be filling a want in the great western metropolis, the Eleanor Clubs of Chicago, which have long since passed the experimental stage. Just so sure as Timothy found a mother at the end of his quest, the young girl who works in Chicago will find a home with a small h if she pursues her quest as far as the chain of buildings skirting the industrial parts of the city, and bearing on a simple door plate, the magic words "Eleanor Club." There are six now, with a seventh in sight, and as the Englishman reported of colleges in Ohio, they are always pulling stakes for another.

This work was started fifteen years ago, by a woman then scarcely more than a girl herself with the grace of God in her heart, as they still say in the country districts, or, as the more sophisticated city folk would put it, she longed to help bring about the brotherhood of man or the sisterhood of woman. She sought a new heaven on the old earth, for what is a good home for young women but a bit of heaven brought down? The first club has been in operation fifteen years, and this is the gala year in the organization's history, since a wonderful new house is being opened in a densely peopled industrial area, away on the northwest side of the city. This is designed to accommodate a full hundred and to serve as a



INA LAW ROBERTSON
Founder of the Eleanor Association

neighborhood center for non-resident girls.

There is also a summer camp, as well as a downtown club and social center, all operated by the Eleanor Association, but getting their inspiration from one woman, Ina Law Robertson, without whose organizing power and generosity, they would never have achieved their present success. Other philanthropically disposed people serve as directors and on committees, but the brunt of the labor has always fallen on the founder. And it is no small task to keep six houses going, not to mention summer camps and other things, such as providing an interesting and wholesome life for about 2,000 girls in the run of the year.

The association, heretofore has not been a house-owning body, preferring, for some very good reasons to lease property. But two exceptions have been made recently, and for equally good reasons. The association now owns the camp grounds of ten acres on the wooded shores of Lake Geneva, Wis., and a new house recently opened.

The plan of organization always has been to equip a house to accommodate at least sixty guests, but in some cases over a hundred are cared for, the basic principle being that there must be a number sufficiently large to make the place self-supporting, but not large enough to make it appear institutional. Opinion will always differ as to the ideal number, some claiming that it must be at least

forty to meet expenses in a large city, and never over fifty, if the reality of a home is to be preserved. This is the plan of the Girls' Friendly Society houses. But the Eleanor clubs are ordinarily larger than this, and yet homelike.

This work is in no sense a charity except that a great deal of time and thought are given to it by several people who have no other occupation in life than doing good. Young women who are wage-earners do not want charity of the material kind, but they are most grateful for good homes in which they pay their way. And they do pay their way at the Eleanor Clubs at the rate of from three to five dollars a week, according to the accommodation they desire or can afford. They can live, after a fashion, for such sums in any city, but not usually in ways that keep body and soul together, at least not on friendly terms with each other for very long.

Each club is in charge of a liberal-minded superintendent, with the necessary housekeeping and clerical assistants. Experience has shown that a fund of a few hundred dollars must be advanced to meet the exigencies of the first month or two after occupancy. After this each club can pay not only its own way, but its debts. The income from guests covers all the expenses of the clubs, including interest on the sum spent for furnishings, and advanced in most cases by the founder. This interest is turned over to a fund for the benefit of sick and needy girls, a form of help that may some time be necessary to people in almost any walk in life.

The average girl on a low wage may get along when she is in health with the many economies she knows so well how to practice; but when she falls sick or is out of work, things are very different. It is then that her soul as well as her body needs help, and what better first aid to the financially injured than a benefit fund? Employers' organizations and some employers make provision for such emergencies, but the overwhelming majority of young girls who work are out in the cold so far as such ameliorative influences are concerned, and need some other kindly providence.

It will readily appear that the Eleanor Clubs are much more than mere life-saving stations where board and lodging may be purchased at low cost. They aim to provide all the essentials of health and happiness. There are classes of various kinds organized to meet the demands of the young women, but they are not urged upon them, the theory being that bodily relaxation may be better sometimes than learning when the two cannot go together. But for those who enjoy evening work, there are classes in physical culture, dramatics, choral work, and foreign languages. And for all, by way of relaxation, are



ELEANOR ASSOCIATION SUMMER CAMP, LAKE GENEVA, WIS.

One hundred girls at a time can enjoy a two weeks' outing in these ideal surroundings, seventy-five miles from work

small dances, musicales, and all sorts of interesting parties. Especially is the latch-string out on Sundays to young women strangers in the city, and they are all cordially invited to stay to tea.

The clubs recognize the fact that young girls with very little money must have laundry and sewing done at small cost, and therefore privileges for such work are provided. They may use the laundry at the rate of five cents an hour, and sewing-machines are free. Thus it happens that evenings and Saturday afternoons are more likely to have exhibitions of Hebe at the washtub than of Minerva at the dictionary.

The down town club rooms in connection with the office of the Eleanor Association are full of interest every day in the week, but especially on Sunday afternoon, when there is a stimulating address, good music and a reception. This opportunity is highly prized by those who attend, and this means any young women who wish to go. Many use the rooms as a place of rest or for meeting young men friends during the week, and such use is hospitably urged.

Since eating and sleeping and working in the gloomy city are dull tasks at best, it is to the country that girls must go to see the festive side of the Eleanor Association. It is on the shores of Lake Geneva, Wis., seventy-five miles from Chicago, that the summer camp is located. The inception of this camp was the contribution of a young woman who had never known the enveloping gloom of monotonous labor, and had never had to wonder how a summer outing could be managed on an empty purse. The camp has grown apace since it was started four years ago, and now has several buildings, many tents and a good system of sanitation, all on its own land.

A hundred girls at a time can enjoy a two weeks' outing in ideal surroundings. The camp is self-supporting, and is managed from the central office like the other clubs, except as to its internal affairs, which are in the hands of a successful superintendent. The charges here are \$3.75 to \$4.75 a week for a tent bed, good food, and the great outdoors with all its charm. There is also a recreation tent, full of fun when the outdoors palls, as it is sure to do at times with the average city worker, when she lets her mind

revert to the glamor of indoor lights and sounds.

The Eleanor Association would justify its existence if it had never done anything more than maintain the summer camp. But it has done much more than this, much of course that can never be estimated, but some things can be written down that those who come after may have an example. When club seven opens its doors, there will be bed and board and home, costing from three to five dollars a week, for about 600 young women who work hard all day, and need all three, if life to them is to be more than meat and the body than raiment. In addition there is the down town center before mentioned which has a procession of scores a day marching in and out, and finding relaxation and pleasure.

It is an achievement to have done this in fifteen years, with most of the ex-

pansion during the last five. Expert business administration is the secret of the success of the enterprise. Busy young workers alone could never provide such homes for themselves, because they have neither the time nor the knowledge, and seldom the talent or power of initiative, and they could rarely control the funds necessary to make a start.

The Eleanor Clubs have helped to make a real home for thousands of girls, as the years have passed, and the total sum upon which interest is paid—interest that goes into a sick benefit fund, is less than some American women have paid for a string of beads. Each one to her taste, of course, but most of us—thank God!—would rather use the money, if we had it, in buying a case for jewels like unto Cornelia's, or in founding Eleanor Clubs with their camps and other bits of glory.

PRISONERS: SOME OBSERVATIONS OF A BUSINESS MAN—BY ADOLPH LEWISOHN

CHAIRMAN EXECUTIVE COMMITTEE, NATIONAL COMMISSION ON PRISON LABOR

IT SHOULD BE our aim to improve conditions in all our prisons. Men who are free can either singly or by co-operation with others protect their rights and see that they are treated fairly and properly, but such is not the case with prisoners, who cannot protect themselves or secure fair treatment through their own efforts. It seems therefore to be the duty of every fair-minded man to see that in their helplessness they are not subjected to injustice and oppression.

After a person has been found guilty of a punishable offence, the first thing is to determine the penalty or pass sentence. I think that in a great many cases the prison sentence should be omitted entirely, especially for first offences, the judges or magistrates to have the right in their discretion to suspend sentence of imprisonment altogether. There are many cases of which judges say they would prefer not to impose sentence, as they think it would be better that the offender should receive a warning only. By giving him another chance they feel he might become a good citizen and not repeat the offence, while sending him to prison might make him a great deal worse or even result in his becoming an habitual criminal.

I believe it is only about half a century ago that people were put in prison for debt, and I think in some places in Europe that is still done. This added greatly to the amount of imprisonment and certainly did not improve the prisoners; on the contrary, it made them lazy, indifferent and in many other ways did considerable harm. As a matter of fact, although imprisonment for debt has been abolished in this country, there are no more failures than formerly; in fact, I think there are fewer.

The First Offence

Two offences occur to me in respect to which it might be better not to imprison first offenders. In cases of petty larceny I think the law could be changed so that those who are guilty of this crime would, for their first offence, be compelled to make restitution of the amount taken and then dismissed with a reprimand. That is, there should be no imprisonment for such offences, only for a repetition of such offence.

Another is the offence of false representation. I presume a great many people have been imprisoned for this offence. While this is, of course, punishable, it is quite a natural and com-



mon thing for people in business, especially the smaller business men, when they find themselves in financial difficulties, to try to stretch a point.

I know it is the experience of many banks, in most cases where they have suffered losses through failures, in looking over the statements which furnished the basis of credit, to find that most of these failures are what might be called "crooked." That is, where statements were demanded before extending credit the statements are found to be false. The banks do not usually prosecute these offenders as there is not much to be gained by doing so, but try rather to make a settlement with them.

I have no statistics, but I suppose throughout the United States there have been a large number of people imprisoned for making false representations previous to failure, and there are a great many who have committed the same offence but have not been prosecuted at all. Perhaps the law in regard to this particular offence could be modified so that punishment could be effected in another way and the ends of justice nevertheless attained.

Prison Sentence

I would like to see the length of sentence usually imposed greatly reduced, say on an average cut in half. I think there should be a further reduction of time for good behavior, up to say 50 per cent of the total sentence, such commutation to be based upon different degrees of good conduct. In my opinion, shorter terms would be more just and equally efficient in preventing crime, and besides would reduce the number of prisoners to about 30 per cent of the

number now incarcerated and make the problem much easier to handle. With fewer prisoners it would not be necessary to have more than one prisoner in a cell, the prisons would not have to be so large, it would be easier to make conditions in them more sanitary and the cost to the community would be greatly reduced.

The question of indeterminate sentences should also be thoroughly inquired into. I believe that for a certain period the discharged prisoner should be under supervision, but there should be some limitation to such supervision, as otherwise he always has the consciousness of something hanging over him, and that naturally interferes with his normal life. The sooner he gets back to natural living and feels that he is the same as other citizens the better, and this is hardly possible while he has the fear of some one standing over and watching him.

Behind the Bars

Next, as to the treatment accorded the prisoner after he is incarcerated.

All penal institutions should be made perfectly sanitary, and I hope I do not shock anybody in saying that they should also be fairly comfortable for prisoners. While the greatest simplicity should be exercised, everything ought to be done to keep prisoners healthy in body and mind. They should be given regular employment and the strictest discipline maintained, with the idea of making the punishment of the prisoner consist more in his forcible detention than in hardships during imprisonment. The average person values his liberty and does not want to be deprived of it even

though he receives humane treatment during his incarceration.

I do not think that many criminals are deterred from committing crime by the knowledge that they will be badly treated during their imprisonment, nor do I believe that an increase in crime is likely if prisoners are accorded fair treatment. At any rate, we can take our chances as to that. Unless we carry out a humane policy we are going back to the old idea of torture which was practiced in the Middle Ages.

In Russia the treatment accorded prisoners is very harsh. There are long terms for what we consider comparatively slight offences and prisoners suffer great hardships. That has not decreased crime in Russia; in fact, I think statistics will show that there are more offences committed against society there than in other countries, like ours, where the laws are milder.

What we should aim to do is to try to improve the prisoner so that there will be some chance of his becoming a better man and a useful citizen when he is liberated. I hope that we may gradually reach a state where the number of people in prisons will be greatly diminished. It seems a pity that we are compelled to keep such an army of men and women in prisons in order that the rest of the people may be able to live in safety.

Prison Dress

I think that stripes, or any special prison dress that brands the prisoner, should be done away with. It might, of course, be well to have the prisoners dressed so that they can be distinguished, but not in a way to make them feel degraded. We have, for instance, a special dress for certain public employes, such as letter-carriers, policemen, and others, but as far as prisoners are concerned, my idea would be to do away with anything in the nature of branding them either on their person or in their dress.

With further reference to physical conditions, I think the appearance of all forcible restraint, such as prison bars and fortifications, should be done away with and that prisoners should not be made to feel that they are caged up like animals. In other words, notwithstanding their offences against society, convicts should continue to be treated like human beings and the better side of their natures appealed to. A prison should not necessarily look different from any other habitation.

Humane treatment is likely to result in fewer attempts on the part of prisoners to escape; in fact, it is my belief that while every man values his liberty and would like to regain his freedom when he is deprived of it, the many ingenious and desperate attempts to escape are due in a large measure to inhuman treatment which makes the prisoner ready to take almost any chance to get out. It seems to me that the elaborate preparations and safeguards for preventing escape are due to an entirely wrong conception of the proper method of treating prisoners and often in themselves have the effect of making the prisoner want to get out at any cost.

Another point to be considered is the



PYGMALION AND GALATEA AT A SETTLEMENT

The crowning work of the year by the Dramatic Association of Greenwich House, New York, was the presentation of *Pygmalion and Galatea*. Writing of it in the settlement's annual report, Marion Curtiss shows that the attempt to come up to the high standard demanded had a marked effect. It gave a definite idea of team work, of "house" pride and self-confidence. It brought forward boys and girls who had lingered in the background, and it created so strong a demand for dramatic work on educational principles that a trained teacher has been provided.

brutalizing effect which harsh and inhuman treatment of prisoners has on keepers and wardens. From reports in the papers it seems that for the slightest offences prisoners are punished, especially those let out to contractors as it enables the contractors to get more work out of them. The wardens and keepers have practically all power and the prisoners practically no redress or very little if any. Quite an army is employed in guarding and looking after prisoners. If they have to treat these men, who are at their mercy, in the right way, if dark cells and lashes and other cruel punishments were abolished and humane treatment accorded the prisoners we would not be brutalizing this great army of men who have them in charge.

Every prisoner should of course have a reasonable number of hours of occupation provided for him, so arranged, if possible, that it would not come in competition with outside labor. I think that prison labor under contract is very apt to be abused. First, it is unfair competition to business which has to pay regular wages, but the particularly bad feature of it is that contractors are apt to either directly or indirectly overwork prisoners and otherwise misuse them for their own personal advantage.

It would be well, wherever it can be done, to have prisoners employed on farms. The influence of direct contact with nature is very good, and the product of prison labor employed on farms would not disturb other business. Even if it should happen to reduce the cost of farm products it would to that extent help towards the cheaper cost of living which is so much desired. At any rate,

part of the products thus raised could be used in the maintenance of the prisoners themselves.

After the Discharge

When the prisoner is finally discharged he should be helped in getting employment and not left to the danger of relapsing into lawlessness through idleness.

Of course, the question of the segregation of prisoners into classes is an important one. Obviously, those who are guilty of comparatively slight offences should be kept apart from those who are guilty of more serious offences, or from those who are apparently incorrigible. That, however, is a matter upon which every one agrees and only needs careful observation and judgment to put into effect.

With reference to what I said at the beginning, that fair-minded people should protect the prisoner in his helplessness, I think it would be an excellent thing if committees were formed in different communities to keep in close touch with conditions in our prisons with a view to seeing that fair and humane treatment is accorded to this class of unfortunates and to study the whole question of the best way to handle the problem. The criminal should be regarded by society not in the spirit of enmity but rather as a defective which he undoubtedly is, and every effort should be made to bring him back into a normal state.

The prisoner should be paid for his labor. Part of it should be used for his maintenance and part for the support of his family. When he is discharged, employment should be provided and opportunity given him to lead an honest life.

OHIO CHILD WELFARE DEPARTMENT—By Hastings H. Hart

THE OHIO Board of State Charities is making encouraging progress in the development of its new Children's Welfare Department, under the Ohio Children's Code. The Board of State Charities selected as director and assistant director, C. V. Williams, superintendent of the New Jersey Children's Home Society, and Esther Faton, of the Department of Child helping of the Russell Sage Foundation. The Children's Welfare Department is responsible for the supervision of institutions and societies caring for dependent, neglected and delinquent children, and will ultimately be responsible for the placing-out of children committed to the care of the Board of State Charities under the Children's Code.

At the outset some difficulty was experienced because the representatives of the children's institutions of Ohio, especially the county children's homes, were uneasy lest their interests should suffer in the administration of the new law.

A special conference of superintendents and officials connected with institutions and agencies caring for dependent and neglected children, was held at Columbus under the auspices of the Board of State Charities. This was a very representative gathering. After the free discussion the conference adopted resolutions in which they favored the fullest co-operation with the Board of State Charities; confidential registration by the State Board of Charities of all children cared for in institu-

tions; state inspection of child-helping institutions; use of county children's homes for the temporary care of children whose parents are in temporary distress, with the proviso that such parents should pay board when possible; placing of children who are absolutely dependent in family homes as early as practicable, but with the exercise of the utmost care in the selection of foster homes; obtaining complete family histories as an indispensable guide to dealing with dependent children; careful physical examination to discover the needs for medical and surgical care.

The conference reaffirmed the principles adopted by the White House Conference in 1899. It promises well for the efficiency of the new code.

THREE SCORE YEARS AND 15 OF STATISTICS

THE SEVENTY-FIFTH anniversary meeting of the American Statistical Association, recently held in Boston, was noteworthy for the messages which came from foreign delegates several of whom were in attendance. The papers and addresses were appropriately devoted to the main to a review of the achievements of the past and an emphasis upon the services which statistics may render to science, business and government.

Particular interest attached to points raised by S. Rossiter in speaking of the work of the federal government. He showed that twenty-nine different government bureaus devote a part of their time to the collection of various kinds of data and he held that in the establishment of the permanent census bureau, the independence and authority of the census office had been sacrificed. It became a part of the regular system of government bureaus, with the consequent delays and diffusion of authority. He contended that the work of the thirteenth census had thus been hindered and rendered less effective than the previous ones.

The increasing service of statistics to the social sciences was emphasized. Prof. Franklin H. Giddings for sociology, and Prof. David Kinley, for economics, showed how these studies are becoming more scientific because of the application of statistical methods and how social legislation is being founded on fact instead of theory.

Prof. Walter Wilcox discussed the training of the statistician and declared that the student should acquire knowledge of statistical method not only in lecture rooms but by experience in an official statistical office. The late Carroll D. Wright, he said, did much to develop a group of American labor statisticians while he was in charge of the Bureau of Labor, and in this same manner William Farr trained men in England and Ernest Engel in Prussia.

The officers elected for the coming year are president, John Koren of Boston; treasurer, S. B. Pearmain of Boston; secretary, Carroll W. Doten of Boston; assistant secretaries, E. P. Secker, of Washington and R. E. Chad-dock of New York city; editor, William B. Bailey of Yale University.

HOSPITAL SOCIAL SERVICE AND RELIEF SOCIETIES

At a recent meeting of the New York Hospital Social Service Conference steps were taken to bring about closer co-operation between the medical social service departments of New York city and agencies which provide relief. The meeting was called to consider the standardization of hospital social service in New York city and the discussion brought out sharply the divergent

THE LARGER CHARITY

McConnellsburg, Pa., has 597 people. House rents average \$60 a year. The streets are lighted by oil lamps. From a spring on the mountain side, the village water supply is piped.

A leisurely stage furnishes transportation to the railroad, ten miles away. There is no almshouse, no poverty. When accident, sickness or shiftlessness make life difficult for some, the neighbors or the village sewing circle help.

New York city has ten thousand times more people than McConnellsburg. Its problems are infinitely more complex. They must be met with invention, organization and vision—electricity, twelve-story apartments, subways, Croton aqueducts.

McConnellsburg methods will not solve transportation and congestion for New York, nor can our poverty be met by the haphazard kindness of its sewing circle. Our social problems demand administration, broad human sympathy and constructive vision—the type of mind that plans Hudson tubes and Brooklyn bridges.

This is the ideal behind the Charity Organization Society—applying to an enormous task the best that modern progress affords. It is the larger charity.

—From the weekly "Bulletin" of the New York Charity Organization Society.

points of view which have made co-operation difficult.

Frank J. Bruno of the Charity Organization Society, reported that the relief societies were unanimous in their willingness to co-operate and that the societies found their relationship with the medical social service departments satisfactory. Dr. Alexander Lanibert, on the other hand, revealed a wide divergence both in the practice of the social service departments in seeking co-operation with relief societies and in their estimate of the results which are obtained.

The divergencies came out sharply in the discussion. Dr. Lambert had defined hospital social service as "that part of organized charity which endeavors to rehabilitate individuals or families whose need for assistance is in some way due to accident or ill health." There was an evident feeling on the part of the medi-

cal social service workers, explicitly stated by Dr. Sidney Goldstein of the Free Synagogue, that every case involving sickness under the care of a social service worker in which other agencies are concerned should be regarded by all such agencies as under the direct supervision of the social service department.

It was pointed out by Morris D. Waldman of the United Hebrew Charities that the purpose aimed at by hospital social service as defined by Dr. Lambert, has been the function of relief societies since their inception. Mr. Bruno also made it clear that the position of exclusive leadership claimed for medical social service workers involved a readiness to assume full responsibility for the welfare of families in their charge on other sides than that of health.

In spite of the disagreement the conference did not lose sight of the fact that co-operation between the two fields at work is imperative. The outcome of the discussion was that the question was referred to a committee.

WINDSOR, VERMONT, AND ITS COUNTY SURVEY

A social welfare exhibit in a small village, bringing 1,700 people from twelve different communities, the thermometer standing at 25 below zero, sounds like a dream. But this very thing occurred in White River Junction, Vt., several weeks ago. The moving spirit was the Windsor County Y. M. C. A. county committee, whose progressive work has been noticed before in THE SURVEY.

Co-operating with this committee were the local organizations—educational, business, religious, philanthropic, the County Agricultural Association, various state and national agencies. All joined to set forth by charts, models, moving pictures, and talks the subjects and conditions in which each is interested, with all the emphasis placed upon the needs of the town of Hartford.

The school exhibit was as vital as any. What Hartford Schools Have Done, Defects in our School System, and The Future of Our Children were shown on three screens. Conditions in 1907 were contrasted with conditions in 1913—fewer schools and more and better teachers, and old-time buildings replaced by new. Defects also were shown—the waste of non-attendance, and of allowing children to attend in poor physical condition when medical inspection costs so little. And for the future, the demand was shown for more emphasis upon the practical in education. For this section of the exhibit, and one other, all the work upon the charts was done by thirty school boys under the direction of the drawing teacher.

The influence of the social welfare exhibit is already showing itself in new interest and enthusiasm for a better social order, in funds raised for nursing, and in the annual town meeting where a broader attitude toward public questions was evidenced and a higher tax voted. A rural school survey was made in this same alert county of Windsor.

Communications

"SOME INFORMATION FOR MOTHER"

TO THE EDITOR: Some Information for Mother is a classic and should be inserted in school readers throughout the country.

H. M. FINCH.

[Gen. sec., Railroad Department,
Y. M. C. A.]

Rocky Mount, N. C.

TO THE EDITOR: I am much impressed with Some Information for Mother, and am writing to ask if I may reprint it in *American Motherhood*, with due credit to THE SURVEY.

DELLA T. LUTES.

[Editor, *American Motherhood*.]

Cooperstown, N. Y.

TELEGRAM TO THE EDITOR: Would like very much to run in *California Outlook* Some Information for Mother, and will appreciate your securing consent for us. Please wire answer collect.

MEYER LISSNER.

[Editor, *California Outlook*.]

Los Angeles.

TO THE EDITOR: John Palmer Gavit's *Some Information for Mother* is the best exposition of the sex story I have ever seen. I have read volumes upon the subject and it puts the whole thing in those two pages more effectively than most writers do in a good-sized volume.

CHARLES F. F. CAMPBELL.

[Executive Secretary,
Ohio Commission for the Blind.]

Columbus, Ohio.

TO THE EDITOR: I should like to have 100 copies of Mr. Gavit's article, *Some Information for Mother*. I want to distribute them among mothers and donkeys.

JOHN P. PETERS.

[Rector, St. Michael's Church;
chairman, Committee of Fourteen.]

New York.

TO THE EDITOR: Mr. Gavit's article is really an unusually clever example of how one might instill elementary ideas of sex. But the keynote of the whole article is the sentence, "When the child is old enough to ask he is old enough to have an honest answer." If we could only establish that fact in the minds of all the parents and teachers: if we could only make them see that the very shyness of the child would prevent its asking a question that had any double meaning to the youngster, we should have achieved the greatest victory for intelligent sex education. The best that biology can do is to prepare the child to understand the honest answers to its honest questions; and the

best that lecturers in later life can do is to counteract in the mind of the listener as far as possible the effect of dishonest answers.

EDWARD L. KEYES, JR., M.D.

[President, Society for Sanitary
and Moral Prophylaxis.]

New York.

TO THE EDITOR: Mr. Gavit's idea of sex instruction for small folk impresses me as being splendidly done. Of course, it may be difficult for the average parent to find just the right opportunity as "Iconoclast" did. Those of us who are fortunate in living in or near to country life, however, have the same opportunity, and this sketch indicates how easy it would be to instruct our little children properly in these matters.

WM. H. HAGER.

[Hager & Bro., Department Store.]
Lancaster, Pa.

TO THE EDITOR: I like Mr. Gavit's article very much. Children respect simplicity and truthfulness. They don't like a hazy poetical roundabout statement. The attempt to make a fact "beautiful" is often a lazy excuse on the part of the beautifier to avoid clarity. But I don't believe in anticipating the rise of curiosity in the child. Many children develop late. One has to be intimate enough with one's child to know when that curiosity springs up.

MARY K. SIMKHOVITCH.

[Headworker, Greenwich House.]

New York.

TO THE EDITOR: I think we all agree on the necessity of imparting such information. It depends altogether upon who tells it and how it is done. Personally, I approve of the article by Mr. Gavit. A mother of several children said after reading it, "I want to keep that article, it is the best ever."

A. W. BUTLER.

[Secretary, Board of State Charities.]
Indianapolis, Indiana.

CONFIDENTIAL EXCHANGE

TO THE EDITOR: Can you give me space in your columns to raise the question as to whether the term "Confidential Exchange of Information" is the best that can be devised for the central registration bureau to which it has been widely applied?

It appears to me to have two serious disadvantages: In the first place, it tends to convey to the mind of "the man in the street" an unfortunate idea of secret detective service. The first impression is, of course, very liable to stick and not only give undue prominence to a branch of charity organization activity which for every reason should be kept sub-

ordinate, namely, the negative work of detecting fraud and preventing imposture, but also to keep many people from registering their "cases" with the bureau through an unthinking fear of some sort of prying or spying.

Secondly and more seriously, the term is a misnomer. What information the bureau has to give is not real information. It is only the indication of where information can be secured if desired. What would be thought of a commercial or civic information bureau that directed all inquirers elsewhere for the information they came seeking?

If the current name, confidential exchange of information, is infelicitous and inexact, what can best take its place? Social registration bureau has the advantage of being a label that fits the goods, so to speak, but it smacks a bit, perhaps of red-tapery. Social service exchange would seem to have many good points, among them, as has well been stated, that of being "attractive" instead of repellant.

Can your readers suggest a better term?

FREDERICK A. BLOSSOM.

Baltimore, Md.

SOCIAL WORKERS AND ALCOHOL

TO THE EDITOR: Hurrah for you! At last you've got your good medicine and had the sense to print it. May the good work go bravely on and you lead social workers to take the field against alcohol in the most enlightened way. My thanks to the writer in March 21st issue. I am an enthusiastic supporter of THE SURVEY and all it stands for. By the next generation you'll start in on tobacco.

EVA G. PRICE.

Lansing, Mich.

ANTI-PENSION LEAGUE

TO THE EDITOR: Is it not about time for the social workers of the community to organize an anti-pension league with a view of reducing the tremendous annual bill for pensions which retards the development of social work by the federal government, because of the lack of funds? The charity organizations of the various cities and towns of the country could make reports upon the conditions of individuals now receiving pensions with a view to securing the cancellation of pensions to those not actually entitled to same.

R. J. NEWTON.

[Secretary, Texas Conference
of Charities and Corrections.]

Austin, Tex.

BILLBOARDS

TO THE EDITOR: Referring to J. D. Hailman's letter on billboards in THE SURVEY of March 21, I should like to call your attention to another aspect of the subject.

THE SURVEY has from time to time shown an interest in the cost of living. The billboard industry, aside from all its destructive qualities and the fact that practically all billboards are a nuisance, offensive and useless to the general public, is a heavy tax on the people.

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In a talk before the City Club of Chicago on December 7, 1912, Frank Warren of the Bill Posters' Union said: "In the city of Chicago we have, at a minimum, 30,000 men employed in the printing and bill-posting industries. Multiply that by two, because the families will average two—the children of the men that are married will make up for the bachelors—and that gives us 60,000. There are, then, 60,000 mouths to be fed out of the bill posting industry."

I do not know what the figures may be for the country at the present time but some time ago I saw a statement that there are 8,500,000 lineal feet of boards ten feet high, or about 1,600 miles. It was also stated that \$10,600,000 was invested in hoardings, \$100,000,000 in the allied trades and that the annual cost of such advertising at that time was \$430,000,000, or \$15 per wage-earner.

As I see it, it would be better for the people if the army of men engaged in this work were maintained in idleness, though it would not be so good for the men. The boards we could better get along without on account of the qualities above mentioned. They enable owners to maintain undeveloped land by making the community pay the taxes on the land while they keep it idle.

On the other hand, if this army of men were engaged in intensive agriculture or other constructive work it would be difficult to measure the contrast.

Chicago feeds her 60,000 people and gets worse than nothing in return. The country feeds an enormous army in the same way.

E. T. HARTMAN.

[Secretary, Massachusetts
Civic League.]
Boston.

**TO "PRO BONO PUBLICO," "G. A.
O." AND "NEW ROCHELLE"**

THE SURVEY publishes communications over fictitious signatures when the writers have good reason for concealing their identity. It does not do so when the writers are unknown to the editor.

JOTTINGS**DIRECTORY OF CRIPPLES**

If you should suddenly turn a corner anywhere in New York city and bump into a cripple you will be able to find him, his name, his past physical care, education and industrial training in the registry now being compiled by the Federation of Associations for Cripples. A similar registry for Brooklyn will be made by the Bureau of Charities. A year ago the federation, which includes fifteen homes, schools, and other organizations, started a study of the facilities for their physical care, education and industrial training. As a result it discovered that many cripples are not reached. One estimate of the number of cripples in New York is 25,000. Yet

some of the industrial schools for cripples have vacancies in their classes.

The result has been the establishment of a central bureau and the beginning of the registry, which follows the plan of the London Invalid Children's Aid Association. A permanent shop and exhibit are planned and a periodical, the *American Journal of Care for Cripples*.

MISSOURI CONTRACT LABOR

With sentiment throughout the state against contract labor in the penitentiary, and with a legislative investigating committee working on a new system, the people of Missouri have no hope of abolishing it under two years. It was thought a year ago that agitation against contract labor had been successful but the Legislature was unable to agree on a substitute plan. Recently it let contracts for two years, which affect practically all of the 2,400 inmates, men and women.

The contractors are to pay seventy-five cents a day for eight hours' labor of each prisoner—five cents more than before. The contracts were let to the Ruart Saddlery Co., Star Clothing Co., and Priesmeyer Shoe Co.

CHARITIES CONFERENCE COMMITTEES

Committees on organization, nominations, resolutions and time and place, to report at the Memphis meeting of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, have been announced by the president, Professor Graham Taylor. The appointments are as follows:

Organization: Homer Folks, chairman, New York; E. M. Williams, Cleveland; Ida M. Cannon, Boston; Grace Trumbull, San Francisco; M. J. Tappins, Madison, Wis.; Virginia McMechen, Seattle; Dr. Frank P. Norbury, Springfield, Ill.; J. Byron Deacon, Pittsburgh; Kate Holladay Claghorn, New York; Daisy Denson, Raleigh, N. C.; J. W. Magruder, Baltimore; Rabbi Stephen S. Wise, New York; Wilfred S. Reynolds, Chicago.

Nomination: James Mullenbach, chairman, Chicago; Eva Whiting White, Boston; Robert W. Heberd, Albany, N. Y.; Sherman C. Kingsley, Chicago; Maurice Willows, New York; Aretas E. Kepford, Des Moines; Charles C. Stillman, St. Paul; Ernest P. Bicknell, Washington; Jean Gordon, New Orleans.

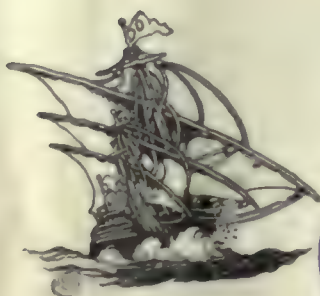
Resolutions: Jacob Billikopf, chairman, Kansas City; Adah Hopkins, Grinnell; G. B. Robinson, New York.

Time and Place: Judge G. S. Addams, chairman, Cleveland; Joseph C. Logan, Atlanta; Robert J. Kelso, Boston; Harriet E. Anderson, Louisville; Frank D. Loomis, Indianapolis; A. J. McKelway, Washington; Kate Barnard, Oklahoma; William Thomas, Denver; Minnie F. Low, Chicago; J. T. Mastin, Richmond; C. L. Stonaker, Newark; George B. Mangold, St. Louis; T. J. Edmonds, Cincinnati; Frank E. Wade, Buffalo; Dr. John R. Haynes, Los Angeles; Prof. John M. Gillette, University, N. D.; Robert J. Newton, Austin, Tex.; V. R. Manning, Portland, Ore.; Edwin D. Solenberger, Philadelphia.

2. P.

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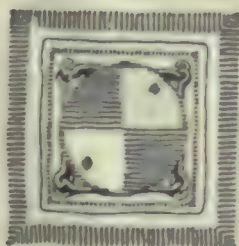
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116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 3

Contents

April 18, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

THE PROBLEM OF POOR LUNGERS WHO GO WEST	67
SCHOOL BOARD AS BANKER FOR CHILDREN	67
PIONEERS OF A NEW SPIRIT—REFORMATORY TO FARM	67
FIRST YEAR OF THE CLEVELAND GROUP PLAN IN GIVING	68
SOCIAL WELFARE LUNCHEONS FOR OUT-OF-TOWN SHOPPERS	69
WOMEN'S VOTING SIGNIFICANTLY TESTED IN ILLINOIS, Graham Taylor	69

INDUSTRY

THE "THIRD MAN" AND HIS PART IN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES	John A. Fitch	71
---	---------------	----

SOCIAL INSURANCE

THE WISCONSIN LIFE FUND: HOW IT IS MANAGED	Reuben McKittrick	72
--	-------------------	----

EDUCATION

TEMPERANCE INSTRUCTION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND ITS RESULTS	Edward H. Williams, M. D.	74
Y. W. C. A. TRAVELING LECTURER ON SEX HYGIENE	W. G. Tinckom Fernandez	76

HEALTH

MIKVEH BATHS OF NEW YORK CITY	W. A. Manheimer	77
PHILADELPHIA BUREAU OF HEALTH HELPING IN SOCIAL SERVICE	Ella D. Harris	78
RECENT FICTION: "POISONED NEEDLES"		78
GREATER CARE IN OPERATIONS FOR REMOVING TONSILS		79
IS INFECTION CARRIED IN THE AIR?		79

BOYHOOD AND LAWLESSNESS ON THE WEST SIDE OF NEW YORK		80
--	--	----

COMMUNICATIONS		81
--------------------------	--	----

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES		84
-----------------------------------	--	----

The GIST of IT—

WOMEN'S votes in Chicago while not enough to elect any women candidates for the city council, displayed discrimination and intelligence on public questions. They knocked out 946 saloons "down state" and elected many women as township officers. Jane Addams served as a judge of election in her own precinct and Mary McDowell said that the election gave her a sense of a "great new neighborliness." Page 69.

"TEACHING by falsehood" is Dr. Williams's description of much of the "scientific temperance" in school text-books. More's the pity, he holds, with "the steadily rising tide of alcoholism and pernicious cigarette smoking in this country." Page 74.

METHODS of promoting industrial peace were considered at the first week's hearings before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission. There was discussion of protocols, collective bargaining and unions, but the greatest impression was made by a witness who, from his personal experience, interpreted the part that a "third man" can play in labor disputes. Page 71.

LIFE insurance as a business of state government is now in operation in the United States. Wisconsin's experiment leads the way. The first policies were issued last fall. State and county officials are authorized to handle applications and premiums, thus saving cost of special agents. Page 72.

SEX hygiene education for college and normal school girls is now furthered through a Y. W. C. A. traveling lecturer. Page 76.

POLLUTED water in Mikveh baths in New York tenement basements is a health menace. Page 77.

A "philanthropic pilgrim's progress" was the feature at the first birthday party of the Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy. It showed how Mr. Citizen journeyed from disorganized benevolence to a clearing house plan which brought more money and more givers. The average is now \$1,000 a day and the goal \$400,000 this year. Page 68.

MAKE Civic Club day your shopping day —this slogan has rallied out-of-town shoppers for social welfare discussion at luncheons of the Sacramento Civic Club. Page 69.

GUNMEN grew in city streets. Does New York's west side wilderness of asphalt provide fertile soil for a new crop? Hine's pictures show how boyhood lawlessness is merely play unprovided for. Page 80.

PHILADELPHIA'S Health Bureau gets reports on home conditions of hospital patients. Sometimes it means a concerted attack by a hospital social worker, a relief agency, doctor, nurse and sanitary inspector before conditions can be righted. Page 78.

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THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



THE PROBLEM OF POOR LUNGERS WHO GO WEST

NINE SOUTHWESTERN states have joined in an effort to secure federal legislation to provide hospitals for consumptives without means who come from other states seeking health. The constant influx of such persons, for whom support and care must be provided, constitutes a problem which, the advocates of the legislation contend, is interstate in its proportions and properly one to be handled by federal authorities.

At the request of the Southwestern Tuberculosis Conference, Governor Colquitt of Texas organized a committee of ninety-nine, the members being appointed by the governors of Arizona, California, Colorado, Kansas, Nevada, New Mexico, Oklahoma, Texas and Utah. This committee stands sponsor for the Shafroth-Callaway bill now before Congress.

This bill provides for the use of abandoned military reservations and other government property in the Southwest for tuberculosis hospitals for indigent consumptives, the hospitals to be operated under the direction of the United States Public Health Service and the regulations for the administration of the institutions to be issued by the secretary of the treasury. The bill also provides that the United States Public Health Service Hospital at Fort Staunton, N. M., may be used for any indigent consumptives who "have contracted their infection in another state and who by reason of their affliction are a menace to interstate commerce."

The advocates of the bill urge its passage on the grounds that:

"The states and cities of the Southwest cannot care for these unfortunates. They do not, as yet, adequately provide for the care of their own sick. The states and cities from which these people come do not aid them. The people of the United States as a whole should act to assist these consumptive citizens.

"The health records of one city in Texas for twenty-three years show a total of 34,608 deaths from all causes, of which number 6,959 or 20 per cent were reported to have been caused by

tuberculosis. Of the 6,959 tuberculosis deaths, 2,282, or 33 per cent had lived in the city less than six months prior to their decease, the most dangerous period of their illness from the standpoint of infection of others. Furthermore, 4,016 cases lived in the city less than three years prior to death."

Some critics of this legislation who are in sympathy with the efforts of the Southwest in the solution of their problem feel that the Shafroth-Callaway bill does not meet the situation. It is contended, for example, that there is nothing in the bill as now before Congress which would serve as a check upon physicians, poor authorities, relief societies and others against sending an increasing number of indigent consumptives to the Southwest. They contend that if the bill specifically provided that a certain percentage of the cost of maintenance of an indigent "hunger" who becomes a public charge before he gains residence in the Southwest were chargeable against his home town or county, officials and doctors would stop sending such patients away, since they could care for them more cheaply and as well at home, and save the cost of transportation besides. This would help also, they point out, to stimulate increased local hospital provision.

SCHOOL BOARD AS BANKER FOR CHILDREN

"BE THRIFTY" has long been a precept taught in the public schools, but the school board of Little Rock, Ark., has decided to give the children of that city practical encouragement to carry it out. To that end it has organized itself into a banking corporation and has established a penny provident fund in the schools.

This was conducted last year by the United Charities and in taking over the institution the school board added to its membership a representative of that organization. Six banks are paying the salary of a manager for the School Savings Association.

During the first week the school children of Little Rock, a city of 50,000, deposited \$343 and during the second \$510.

PIONEERS OF A NEW SPIRIT—REFORMATORY TO FARM

"WHAT'S THIS any way? Some kind of show?" said a man the other day to an energetic woman going through the Erie railway station in Jersey City with twelve young fellows, each of whom carried bedding rolled up and tied with a string, a box of sandwiches and a change of underclothes.

"Oh, my, no," she laughed. "It's just a school."

The woman was Katharine B. Davis, commissioner of corrections of New York city, and her "troupe" consisted of boys from the New York Reformatory for Male Misdemeanants on Hart's Island. They were bound for the city's new 610-acre farm near New Hampton, N. Y., where they were planning to camp out until they could build their own bunk house.

Last year the city bought these 610 acres of beautiful, hilly land and \$450,000 was appropriated for improvements and buildings. Then a stringency came along and the appropriation was rescinded. Commissioner Davis thus came into office with 610 acres of land and no money.

Conditions at the Hart's Island Reformatory are very bad. The boys there are between sixteen and thirty, just the age of the girls Miss Davis was in charge of at Bedford. Many are first offenders. The institution is overcrowded; there are no facilities for recreation or classification; and although the industrial and school work is fairly good there is only a tiny patch of ground for agricultural purposes.

Rather than wait for another appropriation Commissioner Davis started to beg in order that she might begin to transfer the boys to the farm immediately. She secured a transfer of eight thousand odd dollars in her own department. A friend gave the salary of the farm superintendent. A philanthropic woman gave \$500. Seven saddle horses were about to be abandoned by the aqueduct police near the farm and Miss Davis got them transferred to her department. These will be used for plowing. Cabot Ward, park com-

missioner, gave a plow and manure spreader. The Department of Health had three milch cows at Otisville, a few miles from the farm, and these were turned over to her. After the boys arrived at the farm, some of them tramped to Otisville and drove the cows back.

The twelve pioneers ranged from 18 to 24 years old. They were selected from the 389 boys at the island, all eager to go, because of their physical soundness and because they had shown disposition to make good. The night before they went Commissioner Davis had a heart-to-heart talk with them and showed how the success of the whole experiment rested on them. Each gave his word of honor to do his best.

The bedding, dishes, and food supplies for the first week were sent ahead in a freight car. But that broke down just outside Jersey City, so every boy had to carry his own stuff. Commissioner Davis was with the boys when with the reformatory band playing Auld Lang Syne, they embarked at Hart's Island for a boat ride around the Battery to the Erie station. Just as they were leaving, Warden Murtha ran down to the boat with a white bull pup for mascot. "We named it John Martin," said Miss Davis, "but discovered later it was a female dog so we shall have to call it Jane."

At Jersey City they were joined by Robert Rosenbluth, who is in charge of the farm, and the boys carried his suitcase, violin and typewriter. Nearly the same age as the boys (he is twenty-seven), he is a graduate of Yale and of an agricultural school. Four gradu-

ates of the Cornell agricultural school are to be farm instructors.

The boys are building a bunkhouse for twenty-five under the direction of the Cornell graduates who live, eat and sleep with them. One of the boys is the cook for the party. When they first arrived they camped out in an old tenant's shack. When the bunk is finished another group will be sent from the reformatory. During the summer it is hoped to increase the number at the farm to fifty or seventy-five. They will begin gardening as soon as the ground is ready.

Eventually the farm will need more living houses, a bakery, laundry, sewage disposal plant, schools and out-buildings. But even if she had had the money to take all the boys to the farm at once, Commissioner Davis said, she would rather have done it this way. A wholesale transference would have meant carrying along also the traditions and spirit of the reformatory on Hart's Island. She believes the little group there now will develop a new spirit which will be imparted to those who come after.

Since the first group was sent to New Hampton a tiny ray of financial hope has come to the farm. Some time ago it was determined that the money accruing from the sale of the King's County Penitentiary should be used only for institutions of the department of corrections within the city. But Governor Glynn has signed a bill which releases the money for any department institution. The whole amount is \$165,000. About \$30,000 will be available for the development of the new farm.

FIRST YEAR OF THE CLEVELAND GROUP PLAN IN GIVING

THE RESULTS of a year of Cleveland's experiment in co-operative collection of support for philanthropic agencies were recently presented at the first birthday party of the Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy.

Over 700 charitable givers, trustees and representatives of the 55 federated organizations which are forming the federation were in attendance. Music was provided by groups from four of the federated organizations, and there were moving and talking pictures in which Andrew Carnegie discussed The Duties of the Man of Wealth. The working of the federation plan was shown in a stereopticon report entitled The Philanthropic Pilgrim's Progress. President Martin A. Marks reported on the year's progress. James R. Garfield spoke for the trustees on the problems which the federation must solve, and Executive Secretary C. W. Williams called for continued interest on the part of givers.

The Philanthropic Pilgrim's Progress showed the journey of Mr. Citizen "from the old world of disorganized benevolence to that which is to come, of federated philanthropy, a series of motionless but moving pictures, passed by the directors of the city of good will, which lies in the state of universal well-being." Mr. Citizen is oppressed by a burden of 10,000 unwholesome Cleveland homes, 4,000 babies who die each year, 20,000 children who do not have the proper chance in life, and 3,000 families which are losing in the battle for right existence.

After many adventures, he lightens his burden by putting his giving on the federation plan of a clearing house for charitable funds and information. He finds that:

In 1911-1912 4,118 federation members (October 1) gave to federated institutions..... \$126,735

In 1912-1913, federation members pledged to the same institutions:

(a) Through federation \$188,335.00
(b) Direct 26,027.50

Total..... \$214,363.00
69.1 per cent gain

Of this amount, 2,063 persons who gave nothing to federation organizations in 1912 subscribed.. 14,749

The same persons, therefore, who gave \$126,735 in 1912 gave in 1913 directly and by federation subscription blank..... 199,614
57.5 per cent gain

Where, in 1912, a giver gave to one organization, he gave to three through the federation in 1913. (In 1909 two-thirds of all givers of \$5 gave to one organization only.)

Mr. Citizen finally enlists in the federation's march toward the goal of \$400,-



CLOSE FRIENDS
THOUGH A
CENTURY
APART

"Aunt Fanny" Banks, 107 years old, has a smile for everyone and is the center of the household at St. Monica's Home for Sick Colored Women and Children at Roxbury, Mass. With her is seven-year-old "Margaret Elizabeth," who reads the bible to her every day.

000 for current expenses in the fiscal year closing September 30, 1914.

President Marks appealed for the same sort of co-operation as that which, in the five months which preceded March 1, had brought in \$158,000 in pledges, with the stream continuing close to \$1,000 per calendar day. He bespoke especially a Cleveland in which the givers should not number a mere 6,000, as they did before the formation of the federation, but close to 60,000—a Cleveland in which every man and woman with a margin over the bare necessities of life should be doing a share in helping those who did not have those necessities.

SOCIAL WELFARE LUNCHEONS FOR OUT-OF-TOWN SHOPPERS

SACRAMENTO, like many other American cities, is the interurban and steam railroad center of a region containing numerous small cities and towns, each with a woman's club. These women do much of their shopping in Sacramento. The Civic Club of that city in conjunction with the Chamber of Commerce holds weekly luncheons at which social betterment topics are discussed, and to which women are invited.

As a next step the Chamber of Commerce organized a campaign carrying the slogan "Make Civic Club day your shopping day" to every civic organization and women's club in the Sacramento Valley. The result is a large attendance of out-of-town shoppers who listen to the addresses and join in the discussions. Some of the topics and speakers have been: The Peace Movement, by David Starr Jordan; Wider Meaning of City Planning by John Nolen; Housing Conditions in California by Jessica B. Peixotto; The City Manager Plan by Prof. T. H. Read.

Other subjects discussed have included playgrounds, sanitation, eugenics, filtration plants, social injustice and municipalization of street railways.

TIME EXPOSURES by HINE



ILLITERATES IN MASSACHUSETTS

THE THREE YOUNGEST IN THIS GROUP AT A FALL RIVER MILL ARE PORTUGUESE CHILDREN WHO COULD NOT WRITE THEIR OWN NAMES. ONE COULD NOT SPELL THE NAME OF THE STREET HE LIVED ON. ALL THREE SPOKE ALMOST NO ENGLISH.

CHILDREN IN MASSACHUSETTS ARE SUPPOSED TO PASS A FOURTH GRADE TEST BEFORE RECEIVING A WORK PERMIT, BUT THE OFFICERS WHO ISSUE PERMITS OCCASIONALLY HELP A CHILD TO READ EVEN THE SIMPLEST ENGLISH SENTENCE.

AT BEST THIS STANDARD IS SO LOW THAT THE MEAGER ENGLISH LEARNED IN SCHOOL IS SOON FORGOTTEN BY CHILDREN WHOSE WORK FAILS TO STIMULATE INTELLIGENCE AND WHO HEAR LITTLE OR NO ENGLISH AT HOME AND IN THE MILL.

THE MASSACHUSETTS CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE HAS FOUND MANY WORKING CHILDREN WHO CAN NEITHER READ NOR WRITE ENGLISH AND WHO CANNOT SPEAK IT WELL ENOUGH TO TELL WHAT KIND OF WORK THEY DO.

WOMEN'S VOTING SIGNIFICANTLY TESTED IN ILLINOIS—BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

ILLINOIS and Chicago give the country the most significant test of women's voting. The local elections held April 7 are recognized to be epoch making throughout the state and city. The possibility of increasing the electorate by over a million and a half women voters in the state and by nearly half a million in Chicago was anticipated with far more concern than curiosity as to what would begin to happen on the registration days in February and March. What actually did happen then and on election day furnishes official figures and cold facts on a larger scale as to whether and how women will vote.

As registration is required only in larger places, the figures for the state can not be given at this writing, but in Chi-

cago 217,614 women registered at their first opportunities. Added to the 455,283 men on the polling lists, these new voters increased the electorate to 672,897 voters, the largest number registered in any city in the United States.

At the primaries the women's votes came within 1 per cent. of equaling the men's. At the election the women polled, at the lowest count of the police returns, before the official revision, 158,686 or 73 per cent of their registered voters, while the men's votes numbered 328,987 or 72 per cent of their registrations. This is conceded by all concerned to be a very favorable showing for the women at their first registration and election. It ought to dispel the conjecture that few women want to vote or will not vote if

given the right, whether they seek it or not.

Next as to the test of the way they will vote. In the increased number and classification of candidates for the city council and in the decision required upon no less than twelve measures of great public importance by the "little ballot," measuring no less than 40 by 12 inches of solidly printed matter, this election exacted of all Chicago voters as great discrimination as they had ever been required to make. It therefore severely tested the interest and intelligence of all new voters, especially women who had hitherto had so much less occasion than men to consider closely such subjects. How did they stand the test?

The aldermanic candidates numbered 154, each ward having from two to seven names to choose from, and designated as Democrats, Republicans, Pro-

gressives, Prohibitionists, Socialists, Independents and Non-partisans. Reporting on the character and qualification of these candidates, the Municipal Voters' League offered the voters its impartially stated facts and its advice based thereon; the United Charities issued a different list of candidates endorsed on the sole issue of "personal liberty" in the sale and consumption of liquor; and the newspapers urged preferred candidates, all the influential papers endorsing with scarcely any deviation those favored by the Municipal Voters' League. The independence and agreement of the principal papers in taking this non-partisan position in local elections give the public-spirited citizens of Chicago a unique advantage over those of most other large American cities.

THE votes of the women, which were awaited with equal eagerness by partisan leaders and by the rank and file of those who had hitherto constituted the non-partisan balance of power, tended decidedly toward non-partisanship. The newspapers agreed with the Municipal Voters' League in crediting the women with electing no less than seven of the better candidates and with wielding their power either to defeat or lessen the majority of many more undesirable candidates.

While eight women were candidates for the city council no one of them expected to be elected, but each entered the lists to make an educational campaign. Two of these campaigns were especially noteworthy. Marion K. Drake led the forlorn hope in running against the notorious alderman, "Bathhouse John" Coughlin, who for over twenty years has disgraced the first ward and the city of Chicago by exploiting the floating vote of the lodging-houses. Her spirited campaign against his character and the conditions for which he stands, was well supported by many of the most influential men and women of the city, and resulted in doubling the vote cast against him as compared with that of two years ago. With 7,355 men voting in that ward, and only a few more than 3,000 women, this is a good showing, although nearly 600 more women voted for the discredited man than for the worthy woman candidate, which is not surprising in view of the dependence of the underworld upon its patrons.

In the great cosmopolitan tenement house family ward surrounding the Northwestern University Settlement, its head resident, Harriet E. Vittum made a most effective educational campaign. Her slogans were "For the babies," "For the school children," "For the working boys and girls," "For men and women," under each of which she grouped the better home conditions and municipal policies for which she asked votes. A house to house canvass among the foreign people, rousing mass meetings with many men speaking for her in the foreign languages

and a children's parade of many hundreds of little boys and girls were some of the features of the campaign. That any woman in such "a man's world" as this ward has been, could have secured 1,421 votes, the number next highest to that of the re-elected alderman speaks highly for her candidacy.

In deciding the important public measures, including heavy bonded issues, the women showed as intelligent discrimination as the men. In proportion as these propositions were actually most dangerous or doubtful, they were overwhelmingly defeated,—notably a discredited subway scheme, a suspicious county hospital bond issue, and some city bond issues for purposes for which other funds are available.

The Bureau of Public Efficiency discovered that nearly two millions of previously authorized bonds are still unsold by the administration. It therefore advised the defeat of more bonds for police and fire stations. The need of these is acknowledged, but money for most of them is in hand. The people heeded this advice. With unerring discretion, two other bond issues of importance to public welfare were carried by heavy votes. A contagious disease hospital and other buildings for the health department, and the acquisition and improvement of bathing beaches, were thus secured. A demand upon the Legislature to restore home rule for the control of public utilities within the city limits also received a majority.

Many women served as clerks and judges of election throughout the city, with two noteworthy results—that their services were highly commended by the election commissioners and that every woman official reported the most considerate and decorous speech and conduct upon the part of the men during registration and election days. The leading election commissioner issued the following statement on the morning after election:

"Chicago women are again to be congratulated as an influence for good in politics. Their presence was like oil upon the turbulent waters in every precinct of every ward in which there were bitter clashes. In no precinct did the presence and activity of women in the political contest make them mannish. There was less drunkenness around the polling places than there has been in years, because the practical politicians knew that drunken workers around a polling place would drive away the vote of the women for their candidates. Today's election really demonstrated that elections and government have been brought closer to the home. The women have shown that. Above all, the women in all walks of life, and in all parties, proved they are interested in and appreciate their duty."

In one of the best residential wards, where influential women were very ac-

tive in electing a good alderman, one of them said: "It has been the most wonderful feeling, working shoulder to shoulder with the men in something that has really been our duty all along." Mary E. McDowell, who led the fight for a better candidate who almost won out in the stockyards district, had this to say: "After nineteen years I thought I knew my ward. But I never really began to know it till I came to experience this great new neighborliness which has come to all of us women through the political work of the election."

Jane Addams, who was judge of election in her own precinct surrounding Hull House, said:

"I was amazed at the way the women of my own ward had informed themselves. Of the 159 women registered in the precinct, 139 voted. The women in every ward of the city showed that they had an intelligent understanding of the issues. I think it was a great thing to have women in Chicago brave enough to run in this aldermanic election and to be willing to face the probable defeat. There was something very exhilarating, something very young and courageous in the willingness of a woman to tackle the fight against Alderman Coughlin. It has been a red-letter day for women, this first day of voting."

WOMEN'S votes "down state" get full credit from both the politicians and the newspapers, not to say the liquor dealers, for having put out of business 946 saloons in 114 incorporated cities and villages. In 29 more the vote to remain dry rolled up a majority of 8,888, aggregating a total dry vote in these districts of 35,462. While the liquor forces carried 60 cities and villages and thus kept them "wet," they failed to win a single township which was dry prior to the elections. In some places, as at Springfield, women's votes helped swell the majority for the saloons. But in a total vote estimated at 200,000 cast on the saloon issue outside of Chicago, where the issue was not raised, the *Chicago Tribune* figures that 100,000 were cast by women and that 65 per cent of these were against the saloon.

Clearly in anticipation of women's voting in Chicago, an ordinance was passed by the Chicago City Council abolishing the "family entrance" and "ladies' entrance" signs from saloons. This action was not opposed by the liquor interests represented by the vigilant and aggressive United Societies. To the representative women who promoted this action, one of the most notorious of Chicago's aldermen, who for many years has led the forces for evil in the city council, once a majority and now a hopeless minority, declared: "You are doing a noble work, ladies, you should now clean up the dance halls."

The handwriting seems to be on the walls, the enemies of the good themselves being judges.

INDUSTRY

THE "THIRD MAN" AND HIS PART IN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES—BY JOHN A. FITCH

WHETHER GATLING guns or protocols are most efficient promoters of industrial peace, whether the best instrument with which to settle a dispute is negotiation or a club, and whether a fight should go to the limit of a knockout, or arbitration should displace the fight altogether were among the questions before the Industrial Relations Commission in Washington last week. Not that Gatling guns or clubs came in for much actual discussion, but they were in the background of everyone's thoughts with the House Committee on Mines and Mining holding hearings at the same time on the Colorado strike.

Linked up with this question was that of collective bargaining, or unionism, and during the four days that witnesses were heard there were presented some remarkable tributes to the efficiency of union methods and the character of union leaders. With equal force deficiencies and shortcomings were pointed out.

Francis Peabody, one of the big coal operators of Chicago, talked with an air of utmost frankness, tempered with a delicious irony. Mine owners recognized the union because they couldn't help themselves, he said. The miners were very clever, too clever for the operators, it would seem. And yet it was good for the miners. Mr. Peabody had been very happy in the non-union days, he declared, but he hadn't paid the men enough. Now he can't help himself. The union makes him pay.

"The miners haven't demanded anything they didn't think they were entitled to," said Mr. Peabody. "They have demanded a lot of things, though, and by hook or crook have got them."

"Then, in other words, they have done just what any of us would do?" queried the counsel.

"Exactly," was the reply.

When he spoke of the improvement in conditions of living among miners, Mr. Peabody paid a striking tribute to John Mitchell. "I have been in many a miner's home," he said, "and found John Mitchell's picture enshrined there. The place he occupies in the hearts of these people makes him a tremendous force for betterment. Many of them may never have seen him or heard him speak, but his influence is among them, raising their standards of living and improving their morals. To many an immigrant miner John Mitchell stands for America."

To turn from mining to the clothing trades, Joseph Schaffner, of Hart, Schaffner and Marx, Chicago, told how one day in 1910 a friend stepped into his office and congratulated him on the great business he and his partners had built up.

Probing the Causes of Unrest

The first of a series of interpretations of the hearings before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission by a staff representative of The Survey.



He thanked his friend, but told him that the thing in which he took greatest pride was the happy condition of the 10,000 employees.

"I thought they were happy," said Mr. Schaffner, "but two days after this incident the strike came. They had not known the firm, and we had not known them."

"And now they have a chance to express themselves?" was asked.

"Now they can maintain their self-respect," said Mr. Schaffner.

It may be assumed that these views were not shared by all the employers or representatives of employers who were present. For example, James A. Emery, counsel for the National Association of Manufacturers, who appeared on the last day of the hearings felt differently. It was a real misfortune, however, that Mr. Emery apparently did not feel inclined to give full expression to his views. A complete statement of the basis of the opposition to unionism by the Manufacturers' Association ought to be on the records of the commission.

O. P. Briggs of Chicago, for many years an officer of the National Foundrymen's Association, testified that in 1904 after five years of dealing with the International Molders' Union, his association had been compelled to abrogate the contract. The policies of the union that he named as being responsible for this action were the minimum wage, an unreasonable limitation of apprentices, objection to the use of machines and an unwillingness on the part of the union to submit matters in dispute to arbitration.

Joseph Valentine, president of the Molders' Union and John P. Frey, an executive officer, answered Mr. Briggs with spirit, and then Thomas J. Hogan, also of Chicago and secretary of the Stove Foundry National Defense Association, came before the commission. Mr.

Hogan said that his association represented nearly all of the stove manufacturers of the country and that for twenty-four years they had had a contract with the molders' union which has worked with satisfaction to both sides and without a single strike in all that period. He described the period prior to the signing of the agreement in 1890 as a period of warfare, but now he said they had found a better way.

The chief subject before the commission was arbitration and the witnesses were asked to state their opinion of arbitration as a method of settling industrial disputes and to state whether the government could assist in any way by setting up an agency in the form of an industrial council.

All the union men who appeared before the commission, except those representing the clothing trades, expressed themselves as opposed to arbitration which involved a "third man" or umpire. Negotiations that could be carried on without the aid of an outside party—in other words conciliation and conference—they believed productive of better results. The point they made was that an outsider cannot understand the technique of the industry involved and his decision, however honestly made, is likely to be an unsatisfactory one. "I'd as soon toss a coin to decide a dispute as to call in an outsider to settle it," Samuel Gompers told the commission.

With this position the employers were for the most part, in substantial agreement. Charles Francis of New York, representing the National Printers' League, told of an arbitration award made by the late Bishop Potter, which could not be put into effect because of the arbitrator's lack of technical knowledge.

It began to look as if an outsider had no place in an industrial dispute. Just at this juncture, however, the most unassuming man in the room was called to the stand. What he could contribute to the question under discussion was unknown. It created no ripple of excitement when the chairman called for J. E. Williams, of Streator, Ill. It is a fair guess that most of the members of the commission would have been as likely as not to call him J. E. Streator of Williams, Ill., if they had been obliged to give his name a moment after it had been pronounced by the chairman.

But when he left the stand he had unquestionably made on the commission and on everyone present a deeper impression than had any other witness. No one who heard him will soon forget J. E. Williams, not because of his testimony alone, but because of what it revealed in personality and character. Here was a "third man" who could interpret the part.

J. E. Williams is chairman of the arbi-

[Continued on page 85.]

SOCIAL INSURANCE

THE WISCONSIN LIFE FUND: HOW IT IS MANAGED —BY REUBEN MCKITRICK

PROFESSOR OF ECONOMICS, IOWA STATE TEACHERS' COLLEGE

Among the various experiments being carried on in Wisconsin's social laboratory is a life insurance system, conducted and managed by the state. Its first policies were issued last fall. THE SURVEY has asked Prof. Reuben McKittrick to explain and discuss the Wisconsin plan. Professor McKittrick was for two years an assistant of Charles McCarthy in the Wisconsin Legislative Reference Library at Madison, where he specialized on insurance problems.

THE STATE OF WISCONSIN, in 1911, established what is known as a "life fund," in which any able-bodied citizen of the state may insure his life. Bills providing for similar insurance were introduced during the legislative sessions of 1913, into at least eight other states. None of these bills were enacted into law. Their simultaneous introduction, however, into so many legislatures representing every section of the United States indicates a marked tendency among the people to look to the state for the performance of a function hitherto regarded as a purely private business.

Briefly stated, the Wisconsin law establishes a fund derived principally from the payment of premiums which is administered by the state for the purpose of granting life insurance and annuities to its citizens. The state does not assume any liability beyond the amount of the fund.

The published premium rates are based upon the American experience table of mortality with interest at 3 per cent. An expense charge of two dollars a year for each thousand dollars of insurance is included in each premium, together with an amount equal to one-sixth of the present value of the cost of insurance estimated according to the mortality table. With the exception of a two-dollar medical fee these two items constitute the charge for expense. A surplus is to be accumulated out of net profits and the balance of net profits is to be distributed to policy holders. Loans may be made which, together with interest at 6 per cent, shall not exceed the reserve. Premiums not paid when due are to be regarded as loans until they, together with interest at 6 per cent, equal the reserve, at which time the policy terminates. Such loans and interest charges may be paid, however, at any time before they become

equal to the reserve. Thus the policy is continued in force so long as the reserve lasts. Tables have been published which show exactly what the reserve is at any year during the life of any class of policy issued.

The state has no regularly employed agents for this business, but authorizes every state factory inspector, the clerk and treasurer of every county, town, city, and village, and every state bank to fill out and transmit applications for insurance to the insurance commissioner; also to receive and transmit insurance premiums. These may be transmitted directly, however, by the policy-holder. The fees allowed for such transmission are twenty-five cents for each application and 1 per cent on each premium collected or transmitted directly.

Policies of life insurance may be issued to persons between the ages of twenty and fifty years in amounts of \$500 or multiples thereof not to exceed \$3,000. Annuities may also be granted to persons between the ages of twenty and fifty years to begin at the age of sixty. These annuities may be had in sums of \$100 or multiples thereof, but not to exceed \$300 on the same risk. No policies can be issued under the act, however, until at least 200 applications for insurance amounting in all to not less than \$100,000 have been received and approved. No deposits of securities with the auditor or treasurer are required.

By the autumn of 1913, the number of applications required had been received and approved. The first policies were issued October 27, 1913, and thus life insurance in a state fund became an accomplished fact in the United States.

There are at least three particular points of view from which this legislation is of special interest to social workers: the ability of the state fund to get business; the security provided for the policy-holders; and the cost of insurance to the policy-holder. These points will be considered in the order mentioned.

The state does not aggressively solicit business through the personal representation of agents. It relies upon the ability of its administrative officers to explain the nature and operation of the plan clearly and concisely to its citizens, and upon the judgment of the citizen to know whether or not he wants such insurance. If he does, the insurance is dealt out to him in an "over-the-counter" fashion. It is said that the delay of one year in putting this state insurance idea into effect "has

disclosed its great fault—the absence of any provision to solicit business—and has further developed the fact that people generally do not hanker for insurance on their lives, being insured chiefly when some enterprising agent of a private company has persuaded them to append their signatures to policy applications."

That the foregoing statement concerning the solicitation of business has been true of the past no one will deny. That it will always be true of the future does not necessarily follow. In fact, within the past year the New York insurance department has issued a report setting forth the good financial standing and somewhat remarkable increases of business that have been attained by a private company in that state which relies entirely upon advertising and correspondence for the solicitation of its new business. Although many persons doubtless would hesitate to make application to insure their lives in a plan not yet in actual operation, there are many indications that when a state life fund once gets into a working condition it may be liberally patronized and be of no little benefit to the citizens of a state.

State Assumes No Liability

As set forth above the state does not assume any liability to policy-holders beyond the amount of the fund. This freedom from liability may at first seem to be a serious objection to the plan. Whether or not it is so regarded will depend upon the standard which the reader adopts as a test for safety in starting a new insurance business. Since the requirements for this purpose are different in different states, a further explanation and comparison of this feature of the Wisconsin plan may be advantageous.

Insurance in the Wisconsin life fund is mutual insurance. It differs from that offered by the familiar form of life insurance company chiefly in the fact that the administrative organization of the state has been substituted for the business organization of a private corporation. As the principal executive officer of this fund the commissioner of insurance has worked out the tables of premium rates on the basis of the mortality experience of private insurance companies doing a level premium, or what is more commonly known perhaps as an "old-line," business. These rates do not show any disposition to trifle with safety merely to reduce cost to the policy-holder. The similarity between the insurance provided in this fund and that of private companies may be more clearly indicated by the following quotation from the report sent out by the insurance department:

"The basis and plan of this insurance is exactly the same as that in use by the larger and older companies in this country. It differs in that premiums generally provide a smaller amount for expenses than in other cases where dividends or refunds of savings and gains are to be paid, due to the fact that the law provides for no agents or solicitors."

The officers and directors of a level premium private company are not personally liable for the policy contracts entered into by such companies. In a purely mutual level premium company there are not even any stockholders who are liable for the policy obligations of the company for such companies are composed only of policy-holders. When mutual insurance is conducted on the level premium basis these policy-holders can not be assessed to make up a deficit because the limit of the charge upon them is fixed by their policy contracts. The success of such an undertaking depends (1) upon the accuracy and adequacy of the original charge upon the policy-holders in the form of premiums and (2) upon the number of persons insured; the larger the number usually the more certain will the experience of the company be to conform to the law of average. This is the fundamental principle in all insurance.

Statutory Requirements

The widely differing views that prevail in different states as to what constitutes a reasonable requirement of a private company, for safety in beginning a mutual life insurance business may be illustrated by the citation of three typical instances. Wisconsin requires that at least two hundred persons must have subscribed for insurance amounting in the aggregate to not less than \$200,000 and have paid one full annual premium in cash amounting in the aggregate to at least \$20,000. No deposits of securities with the state are required before a domestic mutual life company may begin business. New York, on the other hand, requires that at least five hundred persons must have subscribed for insurance amounting in the aggregate to not less than \$1,000,000, that one full annual premium must have been paid in cash, and that securities amounting to \$100,000 must have been deposited with the superintendent of insurance before such a business may be started.

Iowa, being more liberal than New York, but more rigid than Wisconsin, requires that at least 250 persons must have subscribed for insurance amounting on the average to \$1,000 each, that one full annual premium must have been paid in cash and that a deposit either in cash or securities equal in amount to three-fifths of a full annual premium must have been made with auditor before policies may be issued. It will readily be seen therefore that so far as domestic mutual life insurance companies are concerned, there is a wide range of variation in the statutory requirements for safety in the starting of a new business.

Even though Wisconsin is the most liberal of the three instances cited, yet the life fund is put upon practically the

same basis as a domestic mutual in that state. All the requirements for issuing policies in the Wisconsin life fund are the same as those for issuing policies in a private mutual company except that the minimum amount of insurance subscribed for may be only \$100,000 in the former instance, whereas it must be \$200,000 in the latter. It does not seem to the writer, therefore, that a policyholder in this life fund would be running an unreasonable risk even though the state does not assume any liability beyond the amount of the fund. Indeed such a safe-guard is of utmost importance for otherwise a subsequent ill-advised foolhardy administration might regard the state treasury as a haven of rest for all weary and cost burdened policy-holders and by arbitrarily reducing premium rates without regard to science or experience speedily steer the state's financial ship into the shoals of bankruptcy.

Whether or not this new undertaking will be able really to reduce the cost of insurance to policy-holders would seem to depend largely upon its ability to earn dividends. The savings which are expected to be made for this purpose are clearly set forth in the following interview given out by Commissioner Ekern:

"The purpose of the state life fund is to give the people of the state the benefit of the best old-line insurance on a mutual plan at the lowest possible cost. To benefit the policy-holders is the sole consideration. Of the total expense of old line companies, more than one-half goes to agents in commissions and salaries. Under the state plan policy-holders are saved this great expense. Besides there will be gains from excess interest earnings and mortality savings.

"The premium rates require that 3 per cent interest shall be earned. The funds should earn at least 5 per cent, leaving a margin of 2 per cent as a source of dividends to policy-holders. A greater item of savings for the dividends of policy-holders, however, comes from the fact that the actual number of deaths runs about 40 per cent below the number calculated in the table."

Only experience can demonstrate whether or not these expectations will ever come to pass. A comparison of the published rates of the Wisconsin life fund with those of one of the strongest and best known old line companies shows that nominally they are somewhat lower. There is a difference of 90 cents, for instance, in favor of state insurance on a \$1,000 ordinary life policy at age twenty-five. This difference increases to \$3.56 on the same kind of policy at age forty-five. On twenty payment life policies for \$1,000 the difference in favor of state insurance is \$1.82 at the age of twenty-five, and \$4.76 at age forty-five.

It should be born in mind, however, that old line companies have the same opportunity and really do make savings on all the items contemplated by the state fund except that of salaries and commissions to agents. When the dividends, therefore, allowed by old line companies to their policy-holders are applied to reduce the premium rates, it

may well be doubted whether any very substantial gain in reducing the cost of insurance to policy-holders will be accomplished by the Wisconsin life fund.

What then will justify the trying of such an experiment in social legislation? The description of the fund sent out by the insurance department claims the following advantage at the end of a long list of others: "It will increase confidence in life insurance and encourage the extension of its protection to every resident of the state and will increase the business of sound companies and societies."

Circular on State Insurance

The administration of this act thus far bids fair to accomplish this desirable end. Under the direction of an able commissioner a circular has been prepared which concisely sets forth all the advantages of state insurance and explicitly informs applicants in regard to steps to be taken to obtain such insurance. The brevity and simplicity of the policy and the remarkable clearness with which such terms as premium, cost of insurance, and reserve, have been described and the methods of computing them have been illustrated should greatly assist in developing a widespread understanding of the general principles of insurance. If life insurance is socially beneficial, it seems just as desirable that the state should contribute to a general understanding of insurance principles and benefits as that it should "show farmers how to grow two stalks of corn where one grew before." In so doing it would supplement the work of private companies as the postal savings banks do private banks engaged in a savings business.

If other states could be assured of the same kind of able administration and more private companies would adopt the same simplicity in their policies and directness in their methods as is manifest in the management of the Wisconsin life fund, confidence in life insurance would be increased and its protection would be more generally extended to every citizen of the state.

Objection to this plan will doubtless be raised wherever it is seriously considered for adoption, on the ground that the men relied upon to administer it are likely to become involved in politics. In fact, an unsuccessful attempt was made for political reasons last winter to remove the commissioner who worked out the plan of a life fund for the Wisconsin Legislature and whose administrative ability is of utmost importance in successfully beginning the operation of this social experiment.

Social workers will not be dismayed, however, on account of such an objection for devices of government are now being perfected which enable the state to retain the services of able scientific men in spite of adverse political conditions. Wisconsin, indeed, furnishes a good object lesson in the permanency of tenure which seems to have been accorded to men who are serving on its railroad and public utility, tax, and industrial commissions regardless of which party faction may be in control.

EDUCATION

TEMPERANCE INSTRUCTION IN PUBLIC SCHOOLS AND ITS RESULTS—BY EDWARD H. WILLIAMS, M. D.

A FEW WEEKS AGO former President Taft in an address delivered at the commencement exercises of a college in Philadelphia made the following significant statement regarding certain text books used in our public schools:

"Criticism . . . might well be directed to many text books that seek to inculcate aversion to the use of intoxicating liquor. The unwise extremity to which legislators have gone in the requirement for such teaching has stimulated a class of books which dwell on the results of the use of intoxicating liquors in such an exaggerated way that pupils soon begin to understand that they are grotesque exaggerations, and therefore they become skeptical in respect to the whole matter."

This statement is but a reiteration of the warning given more than ten years ago by one of the most learned, conservative, and non-partisan bodies of men ever organized in America, co-operating directly with the leaders of thought all over the world,—namely, the Committee of Fifty, organized for the purpose of studying the alcohol question in all its phases. After several years of investigation this committee said, in its publication of 1903:

"Under the name of scientific temperance instruction there has been grafted upon the public school system of nearly all our states an educational scheme relating to alcohol which is neither scientific nor temperate nor instructive."

Meanwhile this "educational scheme" has been carried into other states and teaching by falsehood has gone unblushingly on. The text-books in the schools today, which nearly every child in the country is required to study, show no improvement over those scored by the Committee of Fifty.

Let us see how the trouble started. In 1879, Mary H. Hunt presented to the National Convention of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union, her scheme "for thorough text-book study of scientific temperance in public schools as a preventive against intemperance." The scheme was adopted and as a result the W. C. T. U. began an active campaign to secure legislation requiring the teaching of "scientific temperance" in the public schools. By the time of the investigation of the Committee of Fifty, forty-three states had passed such laws and twenty-four text-books, "authorized" by the W. C. T. U., were in use.

The Committee of Fifty, which reported that these books were not scientific included such educators as Charles W. Eliot, Seth Low, and Prof. R. H. Chittenden; such ecclesiastics as Bishop Alexander Mackay-Smith, the Rev.

Father A. P. Doyle, and the Rev. Washington Gladden; such physicians as Dr. William H. Welch, Dr. H. P. Bowditch, and the late Dr. J. S. Billings; with such names as Carroll D. Wright, the late Richard W. Gilder, William Bayard Cutting, and some forty others no less distinguished, completing the galaxy.

Science is but another name for accepted truth. We must infer, therefore, that these books contained statements which were not accepted as facts by the members of the committee. As a typical example, we may take the statement, made in practically every one of the accepted text-books, relating to the physiological action of alcohol. In these books, none of them vouched for by any authoritative writer's name, and eight of them written anonymously, appear such sentences as the following:

"We can find nothing about it [alcohol] that gives us any idea that it is a food." "Alcohol is not in any sense a food." "Alcohol is not a food . . . Close observation of its effects on man does not warrant us in believing that it has any value whatever as a food." "Alcohol is not a food, for it cannot build up any part of the body. It contains no mineral substance and will not make healthy fat." And so on through the entire twenty-four volumes.

It should be noted that the question of the advisability of *using* alcohol as a food is not involved. It is simply the question of alleged physiological facts that were at once open to challenge, and were so challenged by the leading scientists of the world.

This committee did not stand alone in its criticism. Sir Michael Foster laid the matter before the International Physiological Congress, and more than sixty members signed a statement contradicting the dogmatic teachings of the American public school text-books. The statement they affirmed is in part as follows:

" . . . The results of careful experiments show that alcohol, so taken (in di-

luted form, and in small doses) is oxidized within the body and so supplies energy like common articles of food, and that it is physiologically incorrect to designate it as a poison, that is, a substance which can only do harm and never good to the body."

Thus it will be seen that the statements made in the American text-books were contradicted generally, and specifically, by men who had proved their right to a hearing, and who did not express their opinions in anonymous publications. It is evident, therefore, that the authors of the American books were either ignorant about facts, or had wilfully stated untruths—for neither of which can there be any valid excuse.

The committee interrogated the author of one of the American text-books which was being used in hundreds of public schools. His answer removes all doubt as to his purpose:

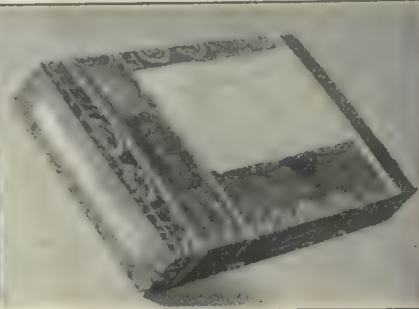
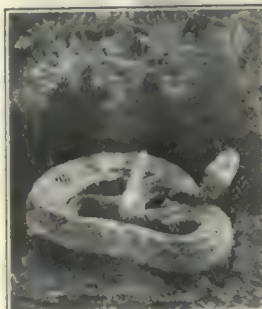
"I have studied physiology and I do not wish you to suppose that I have fallen so low as to believe all of the things that I have put into those books."

Another author showed his dishonesty in the most brazen way by writing two text-books, one for medical students, the other for school children, which was listed as "authorized." His attitude is shown in the following quotations:

"AUTHORIZED" BOOK (for school children)	UNAUTHORIZED VERSION (for medical students)
"Has alcohol a just claim to be called a food? Is alcohol a tissue-forming food? To this the answer is certainly, No . . ."	"ALCOHOL . . . according to circumstances, alcohol may be a poison or may be useful; when useful it may be regarded either as a force regulator or as a force generator. . . . If the facts lead us to conclude, against the extremists, that it is to a certain extent a food, it is nevertheless a dangerous one. . . ."

TEACHING BY INNUE- ENDO

"There is more poison in the one on the right than in the one on the left" says the caption under this picture. Quite possible, but not a hundredth part of the nicotine in the cigars enters the smoker's system.



From *Health Lessons*, Book I. Copyright, 1910, by Alvin Davison. By permission of the American Book Company, publishers.

This attitude of deception characterizes all the "authorized" text-books condemned by the committee, wherever the question of narcotics is involved.

The food-value of alcohol is treated much less grotesquely than many other topics. Indeed, some of the statements were of such character that the Committee of Fifty in its official report asserted that: "These books, especially those intended for the lower grades, fairly bristle with statements of a character to work upon the fears of the reader, and remind one in this respect of patent medicine advertisements."

This statement was not published, however, until after the committee had called the attention of the Department of Scientific Temperance Instruction of the W. C. T. U. to several glaring errors in these "approved" text-books. This kindly criticism elicited no reply. But the following year the advocates of scientific temperance teaching issued a circular, in which the statement was made that their "experts" had examined all the endorsed school books, and that "not a single member reports finding them inaccurate, but exactly the reverse."

This finding is entirely comprehensible, however, if we consider the avowed point of view from which the "experts" conducted the investigation. It is summed up in one of the official publications of the promoting organization. "This is not a physiological, but a temperance movement," it declares. "Temperance should be the chief and not the subordinate topic and should occupy at least one-fourth the space in text-books for these grades."

Meantime the work of converting states to the régime of enforced instruction in scientific temperance steadily progressed. Forty-three states had passed laws stating specifically that such instruction should be given, at the time that the Committee of Fifty made its report. At the present time it is the boast of the W. C. T. U. that they have brought every state in the Union, and every American dependency, under the sway of such laws, and that the laws are being rigidly enforced.

The laws of New York state may be taken as representative. In New York, "All pupils . . . below the second year of the high school and above the third year of school work . . . shall be taught and shall study this subject

[scientific temperance] every year . . . for not less than three lessons a week for ten or more weeks, or the equivalent of the same in each year. . . . All pupils in the lowest three primary, not kindergarten, school years, or in corresponding classes of ungraded schools, shall each year be instructed in this subject orally for not less than two lessons a week for ten weeks . . ." And the paragraph containing this clause closes with the sentence: "Nothing in this act shall be construed as prohibiting or requiring the teaching of this subject in kindergarten schools."

Thus we see that every pupil who attends school for the usually prescribed length of time, must devote some 250 hours to studying the effects of alcohol and narcotics. Considering the number, and importance, of the branches that must be studied during these crowded school years, this amount seems greatly disproportionate. It impressed Professor Kronecker, of Berne, as being so when he examined our school systems. "I was quite shocked," writes Professor Kronecker, "when I read that in the primary and middle grades every child from six to seventeen years is instructed 250 hours in the physiology of alcohol. If I were to teach this subject *five* hours I should know of nothing more to say, and should probably be discharged by the authorities as a stupid teacher."

I have before me an imposing array of volumes, all of them endorsed by the W. C. T. U. and used in the schools of one or more states at the present time. One of these books for smaller children,—a book in use, the publishers assure me, in more than a thousand schools throughout the country,—is presented in twenty-four chapters. Nineteen of these are devoted wholly, or in part, to the subject of alcohol and narcotics.

One full chapter is devoted to How Narcotics and Stimulants Affect the Brain and Nerves; one chapter on Alcohol and Health; one chapter on Tobacco and the Drugs Which Injure Health—mostly tobacco; and one entire chapter devoted exclusively to a minute description of how beer, wine, whisky, brandy, and rum are made, with pictures of the various materials used, and carefully described illustrations of whisky stills that should prove inspiring to almost any embryo moonshiner.

Yet this book is not a manufactur-

er's manual, but a "physiology," and the W. C. T. U. speaks of it in glowing terms. Even the modest author (who, needless to say, is not a physician) admits that it is a good book. It is simply representative of its class, and conforms to the accepted method of teaching scientific temperance. The following quotations, taken at random, will give some idea as to what extent the authors have corrected the defects criticised by the Committee of Fifty:

"Any one who tires his jaw by chewing tobacco is not likely to chew his food well." . . . "Now, this same busy stomach has no liking for alcohol which is in all kinds of strong drink. Just as your eye will smart and become red if something gets into it that does not belong there, so the stomach is made red and inflamed by alcoholic liquors." . . . "The old tobacco user is often cross, peevish, and liable to fits of anger." . . . "It [wine] . . . makes the muscles which mix the food in the stomach act more slowly. *Some of the food may sour before it gets wet with the juice.*" . . . "Sound teeth which will do good work in chewing food are worth more than a foot or an arm." . . . "Don't you remember how, when you have breathed the fumes of a burning match, they have irritated your throat and made you wheezy and hoarse for a few minutes? Now it is in this same way that strong drink often acts to make the voice rough and broken." . . .

The tone and character of the books "authorized" for the smaller children differs very little from those used by more advanced pupils. In the advanced courses, however, the authors tend to devote more space to therapeutics; and, not being physicians (or, at best, physicians who must "conform"), they indulge in all manner of puerile grotesqueries. Thus in one book, written for "advanced" pupils, and used in thousands of schools, appears this sentence: "The body can be made comfortable out-of-doors in cold weather, by wearing an overcoat or wrap."

In another book, such useful bits of information as the following are given: "A man is so sensitive about the dull red end of his nose that he is ready to welcome almost any device which may rid him of it." (A picture of a man having his nose treated is shown in this book.) "One pint of such liquor (referring to adulterated whisky) at one time will kill the strongest man." . . . "No cigarette smoker can attain the highest position in the world." . . . "The use of tobacco daily seems in some degree to affect the sense organs of the mouth so as to lead to a desire for strong drink."

The cause and treatment of diseases offer attractive fields for these authors. "If there is an inherited tendency to cancer," one of them asserts, "the irritation of the membranes of the mouth by the constant presence of tobacco is likely to cause the disease to break out in that place." This should be welcome news to the scientists who have as yet been unable to fathom the cause of cancer, or determine its heritability. There



This illustration seems to tell how a youth can avoid one evil effect of the use of alcohol. The caption under it reads: "By electricity through the point of a needle many capillaries are destroyed; after that the man is cured of his red nose." The picture is copied from the *Literary Digest* and appears in *The Body and Its Defenses*, by Frances Gulick Jewett.

is, perhaps, a connection between cancer of the lip and the irritation due to the touch of pipe or cigarette; but why not state this in a straightforward way?

The same author, who appears to have a *penchant* for therapeutics, although not a physician, states that "neither whisky nor beer is of much value in curing disease." Osler, perhaps the most conservative authority in the use of drugs, recommends alcohol in the treatment of twenty different classes of diseases, to say nothing of special conditions, and says, "I should be sorry to give up its use in the severe forms of enteric (typhoid) and pneumonia." He recommends it particularly in cases of collapse; but our school-book author disagrees with the Oxford professor. "Do not give alcohol," he admonishes, in suggesting treatment for this condition. Incidentally he assures us that appendicitis may be prevented by proper diet.

Hundreds of thousands of children in our country are having these statements reiterated to them every day. It would be interesting to know just how many parents realize that their children are spending 250 school hours in acquiring this sort of "education."

In the last analysis, educational movements and methods of any kind must be judged by results, although most educators do not believe in methods of teaching that are based upon falsehoods or deception. And yet I believe that a vast majority of persons would be inclined to deal leniently with any form of teaching, truthful or otherwise, that would lessen the steadily rising tide of alcoholism and pernicious cigarette smoking in this country. It is the hope that something definite might be accomplished, regardless of method, that probably explains why scientific temperance teaching has been allowed to obtain such a grip on the schools.

It so happens that we are now able to measure the extent of this accomplishment by an accurate index—the relative consumption of liquors and tobacco since scientific temperance teaching has been in active operation. Government records show that in 1896, a period of unusual activity in promoting scientific temperance teaching, 67,039,910 gallons of whisky were consumed by the American people. The same records show that in 1913, with every public school in the United States teaching scientific temperance, 140,418,289 gallons were consumed. In other words the actual quantity of whisky used had considerably more than doubled during those years of active teaching; and we are confronted by the appalling fact that "the average American today consumes almost six times as much liquor as did the average American of 1850."

Yet in the face of these figures, the school text-books continue to make the assertion that "The actual quantity of alcoholic drinks consumed is steadily decreasing."

The increase in the consumption of tobacco is even more startling. The government reports show that in 1903 the number of small cigarettes consumed was a little over 3,000,000,000. The war against this particular form of cigarette

has been waged in countless pages of text-books since that time. Yet in 1912 the number of cigarettes consumed had risen to more than 13,000,000,000—four times the number used nine years before. Meanwhile the number of cigars, which escape with scant mention in the school books, has increased only about 8 per cent.

Thus we see that despite these thirty years of most active legislation, which brought under its sway practically every American boy and girl for a period of several years, there was an increase in the consumption of the very narcotics this legislation sought to suppress, that is unparalleled in the history of the world. Judged by results, this active legislation seems to have been far more

beneficial to the manufacturers of whisky and cigarettes, than to the pupils of the public schools.

"More evil will probably accrue to the next generation through this legalizing of lies than would result without direct effort for moral teaching," wrote Professor Sewall to the Committee of Fifty seventeen years ago. "I believe that the temperance cause is likely to be injured rather than advanced by such instruction," Dr. F. W. Ellis asserted. And now Mr. Taft sounds the warning that "pupils are becoming skeptical in respect to the whole matter."

Certainly they have grounds for their skepticism. But what will be its limits if the present methods of instruction continue?

Y. W. C. A. TRAVELING LECTURER ON SEX HYGIENE —BY W. G. TINCKOM FERNANDEZ

TO DETERMINE its attitude on the question of sex education the National Board of the Young Women's Christian Association recently appointed a commission whose findings are now incorporated in a small book containing the addresses of Dr. Richard C. Cabot delivered before the Y. W. C. A. conference held in Richmond, Va., in April, 1913. The Y. W. C. A. feels that it is "under obligation to promote knowledge of the fundamental facts of life, to arouse a sympathetic attitude toward them, and to call forth the power whereby this knowledge shall make for individual and community morality."

The first step toward putting these recommendations into operation has come with the appointment of Dr. Mabel Sims Ulrich, of Minneapolis, as lecturer to schools and colleges. The national board has affiliated associations in 675 schools, colleges and universities. Dr. Ulrich's work will carry her throughout the country.

The method of imparting knowledge is through a series of talks. Wherever possible, as in regular school courses, the biological approach is made through courses covering at least one term's

work. After the first year the plans may extend to additional courses to provide for consecutive study and extended work.

As a pioneer worker in sex education Dr. Ulrich is already well known. A graduate of Cornell, she obtained her medical education at Johns Hopkins, and went to Minneapolis in joint practice with her husband. In the course of her medical work Dr. Ulrich found the matter of sex education intruding on her every-day experience. Herself a mother, she was continually consulted by mothers on this problem. Five years ago a school teacher voluntarily came to her with the problems of her young charges. She confessed her inability to suggest or direct; besides, she said, the subject was not in the curriculum, and so outside her province.

This discovery extended to other teachers and graduates of the state university, and soon Dr. Ulrich found herself in a consultative relation to the young women of the University of Minnesota. In recognition of her pioneer work in education, the mayor of Minneapolis appointed her a member of the vice commission.

During a recent visit to New York Dr. Ulrich summarized her ideas:

"While my experience has been largely confined to young women in colleges and normal schools, I am not in favor of introducing sex education into the elementary schools, as is now being agitated, where the girls have not reached the age of puberty. Touching my work I feel that its value lies in its impersonality. I mean that since I come a perfect stranger to a girl's institution, and chiefly in a consultative capacity, perfect confidence is shown me by my listeners, and they frankly confide, and ask advice in matters they have kept from their mothers and teachers. In many cases these secrets have eaten at the heart and life of a girl to such a degree as to induce utter lack of ambition in any life work or vocational future.

"It is my endeavor to diagnose such cases, and directing the morbid or warped outlook into some healthy channel of activity, to stimulate the natural tastes and interests."



Photo by Pearl Grace Loehr

DR. MABEL SIMS ULRICH

HEALTH

MIKVEH BATHS OF NEW YORK CITY—BY W. A. MANHEIMER, LABORATORY, DEPT. OF BACTERIOLOGY, COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

MIKVEH BATHS are located usually in the basements of tenements in the crowded sections of the lower East Side of New York city and in the West Side of Brooklyn, where they are patronized by Jewish people.

A charge of five cents is made for as long a stay as is desired. At certain times in the year (e. g., the Passover) their use is compelled by religious custom for both men and women. Women are required to use these pools regularly within seven days after menstruation. The Hebrew law is very strict regarding the method of using these baths, and states that after thorough cleansing, the person should immerse himself or herself in a purified plunge filled with uncontaminated water, i. e., rain-water, ice-water, or water that has not been polluted by human beings, and that this plunge should contain at least three cubic yards of water.

But these excellent laws are not carried out. The men and women in their respective pools wash themselves in polluted water, in plunges the capacities of which average 200 cubic feet, and which are used at times without change of water by as many as 300 different individuals. In connection with some of these Mikvehs there are either tubs or shower-baths, but neither of these is patronized to any extent because of an additional charge of five cents for use. Hence the same water is used over and over again, becomes contaminated, and in no sense fulfills the requirements of the biblical law.

Forty-one of these baths were examined in twenty-three different buildings. An inspector from the department of health was assigned to me by courtesy of the commissioner and we took an interpreter who could talk Yiddish.

The plunges are usually cast iron tanks, the bases of which are 6 by 10 feet and the depths 3 or 4 feet.

There are usually, in one building, several plunges containing water at different temperatures. The bathers go from the lower to the higher temperatures where they remain for several minutes till they have sweated, thus removing most of their dirt. When sweating rooms are provided bathers often prefer to use these in place of the Mikvehs. The temperatures of these plunges range from 18° to 50° C. After use the water is thick and slimy, the surface covered with scum from the bodies of the bathers, and a disgusting odor noticeable. The average attendance varies; in several instances 80 to 100 persons bathed in 200 cubic feet of water, while in one instance, 300 persons used a slightly larger pool.

The following article is part of a paper now in preparation on The Sanitation of Swimming Pools. The attention of the writer was directed to Mikveh baths by H. E. J. Porter, industrial engineer, who having made a preliminary study of them' believed that additional investigation and publicity would be productive of much good. All the data collected and used by him were turned over to the writer and used as a basis of comparison and control with the data reported in the table to be. The biblical data were furnished through the courtesy of Rabbi Hirschensohn of Hoboken, N. J.—THE AUTHOR.

There can be small wonder, therefore, at the very large bacterial findings (see table). The counts ranged from 1,000 to 3,000,000 bacteria per cubic centimeter, reaching, in fact, in one instance 18,144,000 bacteria in one cubic centimeter. The counts for colon bacilli are very interesting and astonishing. In the instance where 300 persons had used the water the bacterial count reached the enormous figures of 10,000 colon bacilli per cubic centimeter.

That these pools are a serious menace to the health of the people using them is clear. Radical measures to improve their condition or to substitute other means of ablution, should be immediate.

The neighborhoods where these baths are located are extremely crowded, and the tenements there are not equipped with bath-tubs. The people of these poor districts, therefore, must depend, either upon the very few public baths in their neighborhood, or these unsanitary Mikvehs. In spite of the fact that the latter do not comply with the Mosaic laws, their abolition would be strongly op-

posed by the Jewish people who bathe there. The writer, however, believes that several recommendations could be made which would insure cleanliness and at the same time permit the exercise of the required religious ritual. These are as follows:

1. Basements of public schools could be modified into public shower-bath rooms. The authorities of many foreign cities have done this with success and have encouraged the use of these showers, not only as a regular part of the elementary school instruction, but also as a means of bathing for the general public. Such baths have been established in several public schools in New York city, but their use has been restricted to students. The operating of shower-baths for adults would be in beneficial competition with the Mikvehs, especially if the baths were free of charge.

2. That this plan is feasible and economical is unquestionable. It is preferable to the erection of new buildings because of the high cost of land, the cost of erection, and the duplication of running expenses, such as salaries for janitors, cleaners, and the like. The basements of public schools are at present frequently used for recreation purposes for which the roofs would be far superior. The use of the basements, or part of the basements, in the evenings, for shower-bath rooms, would work a great benefit to the people of these crowded districts and would operate to reduce the cost of public baths.

3. Jewish charities should be encouraged to establish sanitary bathing places free of charge, either in connection with Synagogues or otherwise.

4. Settlements in the vicinity should make an effort to install showers for the adults of the neighborhood.

5. Because a fee is charged, these baths are licensed by the city, and through this licensing power the city could compel the enforcement of sanitary laws. Such laws should include the following requirements:

All Mikveh plunges should be abolished, because of their unsanitary and polluted condition. Mikvehs consisting of individual tubs might be substituted in their place. It will be remembered that Mikveh plunges are used for cleansing purposes and are necessarily dirty. They differ, therefore, from swimming pools in which a larger quantity of water is used and for swimming only.

Shower-bath establishments, with or without sweat-rooms, because of their cleaner nature, should be fostered. A reduction of their license fee might encourage their increase.

All individual tubs should be cleansed after each bath. Failure to observe this precaution, should cause forfeiture of license.

SUMMARY OF BACTERIOLOGICAL TESTS (Condensed and modified.)

1. BACTERIAL COUNTS.			No. of Plunges
Bacteria per c. c.	1,000 found in...		2
Between 100 and 1,000 "	10,000 "		7
" 10,000 "	100,000 "		7
" 100,000 "	500,000 "		10
" 500,000 "	1,000,000 "		4
1,000,000 or above	"		11
Total plunges examined....			41
2. COUNTS FOR COLON BACILLI.			No. of Plunges
Colon bacilli per c. c.	0 found in....		3 ²
Between 1 and 10 "	100 "		7
" 10 " "	100 "		6
" 100 " "	1,000 "		13
" 1,000 " "	10,000 "		11
10,000 or over	"		1
Total plunges examined....			41

²As colon bacilli are constant inhabitants of the intestinal canal, their presence in water is an indication of fecal contamination.
³Attendance less than 10.

¹See THE SURVEY, July 27, 1912.

Courtesy New York Committee for Prevention of Blindness



ADULTERATED WITH WOOD ALCOHOL

These preparations, which have caused suffering, blindness and death, would have been made illegal had the Griffin bill passed the Senate of New York state.

PHILADELPHIA BUREAU OF HEALTH HELPING IN SOCIAL SERVICE—BY ELLA D. HARRIS

SOCIAL SERVICE DIVISION, DEPARTMENT OF PUBLIC HEALTH AND CHARITIES

TO VISIT THE HOME of every patient admitted to the tuberculosis wards of the Philadelphia General Hospital, proved too big a task for the small staff of the social service division. A plan was therefore worked out by which every case not only of tuberculosis, but of all other reportable diseases admitted to the hospital, is referred first to the medical inspectors of the Bureau of Health who make the preliminary home inspection. The reports returned to the social service give a complete census of the household, whether tenement or lodging house or private house, with the age, occupation and health of each person.

In addition, they note home conditions needing attention, such as overcrowding, nuisances, extreme poverty, or sick persons receiving no medical attention. This plan has now been in operation for almost two months, and the results have been most satisfactory.

Formerly a case was referred to the social service division when, from the hospital point of view, social conditions were bad. Now reports come from a new angle, and the field is covered thoroughly.

The scope of these home inspections is shown by the fact that the Philadelphia General Hospital is the only one accepting patients with the following reportable diseases: Chicken-pox, erysipelas, measles, mumps, pertussis, scabies, trachoma and ophthalmia neonatorum. Other hospitals take patients with pneumonia, typhoid and tuberculosis, but the Philadelphia General Hospital has the largest number of beds for tuberculous patients,—310 for men and 70 for women.

It was expected that the medical inspectors, all graduate physicians, would give adequate reports upon the health of each member of the household and the sanitary arrangements of the house, but they have gone further than that. They indicate with great care conditions of unusual poverty or neglect of children. The return on one inspection had this important note:

"Would suggest that someone look

into the matter of Harry, white child, two years of age, being reared by colored family, bad surroundings."

The relation of overcrowding to the spread of infection is very apparent in every one of the reports. Two children with measles were found to have come from a very dirty tenement. Their mother had been sent to the Municipal Hospital with the baby who had diphtheria, and two other children left at home were in need of medical attention.

Another family of recent immigrants, from which a case of erysipelas was admitted to the hospital, had eight adults and five children living in four rooms on the second floor of a tenement house. This necessitated two beds in the kitchen, which was small and dark.

Many of the men with tuberculosis, pneumonia or erysipelas come from lodging-houses or missions. Typical conditions in the latter are indicated by the significant words of the inspector:

"As a mission and shelter for homeless men, it may be a place doing good work, as a lodging house it must be overcrowded at night and insanitary."

Inspection of a den in Chinatown, from which one of our Chinese tuberculous patients came, was not possible without police help. Sometimes in addition to the services of the hospital social worker, a relief agency, doctor, nurse and sanitary inspector must all be called on before conditions can be righted. The following statement led to such a joining of forces:

"Six adults and nine children were found to be living under grossly insanitary conditions. Two women and one boy, members of the family who lived on the first floor, were found sick in bed, and no one to take care of them with the exception of a little girl."

A later report on this case is as follows:

"A reinspection was made today and as per instructions given the owner and tenants, the house was vacated and preparations are being made for the general overhauling and re-

pairing of the entire drainage system and cleaning up the premises. I have arranged to have the house thoroughly disinfected tomorrow. For your further information, would say, that this family has moved to 609 M. street. This office will endeavor to see that they do not create any insanitary conditions at this address."

RECENT FICTION: "POISONED NEEDLES"

THE *Journal of the American Medical Association* does us all a service by publishing the truth about "poisoned needles."

It reminds us of the vogue of hypnotism which followed the publication of *Trilby*—how Svengali with his hypnotic eye at once became a real and possible person in the public imagination. Newspapers were full of stories of girls and women who had suddenly become fixed and paralyzed by the hypnotic gaze of some mysterious stranger, and who had been compelled by his will to do things that horrified them. It was used as a plea in criminal cases, the culprits saying that they had been hypnotized and forced to do unlawful acts. Yet every scientific man knows that hypnotism has very definite limitations, that nobody can be hypnotized unknowingly or against his will and that few are so susceptible to hypnotism that they can be compelled to perform acts beyond their own volition and knowledge.

Another popular fiction which later on took the place of hypnotism was that of instantaneous anaesthesia. A cloth or a handkerchief pressed for a moment over the mouth, or chloroform sprayed into an open window, or a chloroform soaked rag thrown into a bedroom, were supposed to cause immediate unconsciousness in the victims. Anyone who has ever seen the difficulty of putting a patient under an anaesthetic even under the most favorable conditions and with every possible means of controlling him knows how absurd such stories are.

The latest variation of these exciting fictions may be found in the poisoned needle stories which have been going the rounds of the press. A woman goes to a moving picture theater, enters a crowded elevator, a street car, or an elevated train, or is caught in the press of a crowd. Suddenly she sees beside her our old friend the mysterious stranger with the compelling manner. At the same time she feels a sting and knows that she has been stabbed with a "poisoned needle," charged with some mysterious South American drug. She immediately becomes unconscious or dazed and irresponsible for a longer or shorter time, during which she goes through a number of marvelous adventures and hair-breadth escapes.

It is not possible to say that no woman was ever without her knowledge given a hypodermic injection of a drug which produced unconsciousness. However, it can be said very positively that there is no drug known to the scientific world which could be administered in the manner described in recent newspaper reports, or which would produce the effect that they claim.

GREATER CARE IN OPERATIONS FOR REMOVING TONSILS

A RECENT STUDY of the methods now in vogue in New York for operations for the removal of tonsils and adenoids, showed that these methods were very inadequate and the results most unsatisfactory. A special investigation was made by Dr. Gerard H. Cocks for the State Charities Aid Association. In consequence of the facts which Dr. Cocks' investigation revealed, the Public Health Committee of the New York Academy of Medicine called a conference of various representative bodies to consider the situation. That conference passed the following resolutions:

RESOLVED, That it is the sense of this committee that all operations on the tonsils should be performed in hospitals or in such dispensaries as are provided with operating rooms and with recovery ward facilities.

RESOLVED, That private hospitals of the city be requested to co-operate with the Health Department of the city in the operative care of children with enlarged tonsils and adenoids; that these hospitals provide proper and adequate facilities for such cases and that the city compensate the hospitals for this special service; and, further, that the public hospitals be requested to provide similar facilities, without special compensation.

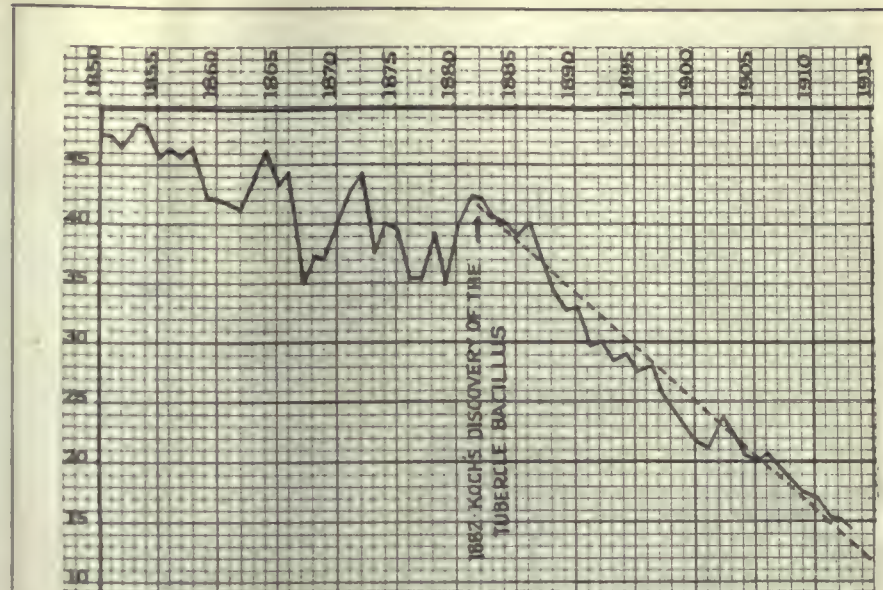
IS INFECTION CARRIED IN THE AIR?

THE OLD IDEA was that most diseases were carried by the air. Typhoid fever came from breathing sewer gas, so did diphtheria and cholera. Malaria came from the white mists which rise from swamps morning and evening. Yellow fever and typhus were carried by the air of ships and jails and hospitals.

Later on, influenza and scarlet fever were supposed to be caused by a massive infection of the atmosphere. Not so long ago people were hanging sheets dipped in carbolic acid before the door of a sick room just as some centuries ago they used to sprinkle the streets with vinegar and burn aromatic wood to rid the city of plague. The earliest followers of antiseptic surgery depended on the use of the carbolic spray to cleanse the air even more than on cleanliness of hands and instruments.

Dr. Charles V. Chapin, superintendent of health, Providence, R. I., has written an interesting paper for the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, in which he shows how the theory of air-borne infection has lost ground year by year until now tuberculosis, and possibly anthrax, are the only diseases left in which air is believed to be an important factor in carrying infection.

Cases of diphtheria, scarlet fever and measles are now treated in the general wards in the Providence Hospital, as well as in many foreign hospitals, and the precautions which are taken are against contact infection from patient to patient or through the hands of doctors and nurses. Even smallpox seems not to be carried by the air, at least no good proof is offered of the spread of smallpox around an isolation hospital or an



From a chart prepared by the Massachusetts Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis

The chart tells a splendid story of results for the fight against tuberculosis in Massachusetts. In 1850, the death rate from tuberculosis was 47— for the state, 40— for Boston alone. Today it is 13— for the state, 14— for Boston. Active causes in this decline of the death rate have been Koch's discovery of the tubercle bacillus, and recent efforts of both public and private organizations, such as the State Board of Health, the Massachusetts Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis, the Boston Consumptive's Hospital Department.

The state maintains in all 1,654 beds for tuberculous patients. These are in special hospitals, in the State Infirmary, State Insane Asylum and the Prison Hospital. Local institutions have 792 beds; private sanatoria, 569—in all 3,015 beds within the state. The general, well-defined policy of the state is to provide for incipient cases in the state hospitals, leaving the care of advanced patients to municipalities with state aid when necessary.

As a result of special studies recently completed new legislation is now pending. It will give full power to the State Board of Health for inspection and supervision of institutions, for enforcement of rules and regulations, for ventilation, removal of wilfully careless patients, and for devising a system for district nursing both in cities and in towns.

infected house, except by contact with the infected person.

Of course it will be a good while before the public as a whole will accept this view, but meanwhile the doctors will go on regardless of the public and will greatly simplify our care of communicable diseases.

COURSE IN TROPICAL HYGIENE

According to the *London Hospital*, a course in tropical sanitation and hygiene will be added to those conducted by the London School of Tropical Medicine. The first of the two annual courses now proposed will start on May 1, and the second on October 1. Each will extend through eight weeks. The subject will be interpreted to include such important topics as the care of the sick on board ship in the tropics, port hygiene, surveying and sanitary engineering, medical entomology, and bacteriology. Practical demonstrations will be frequently held that the course may not be merely theoretical.

BETA RAYS AND CANCER

Public interest in the radium treatment for cancer continues to be very great, though reports of one or two rather striking failures have come to perplex us. One explanation for these failures has been offered lately by Dr. Robert Abbé, who tells us that experiments made by Dr. Alexis Carrel in the Rockefeller Institute seem to show that the different emanations from radium have not been rightly understood up to

now. Dr. Carrel has been testing the effect of the different rays on tissue growth, and has found that the so-called "beta" rays which have been heretofore looked upon as dangerous and have been kept away from the patients as much as possible, really have a more retarding effect on cell growth—and therefore probably on cancer growth—than the "gamma" rays, so far generally relied upon. Dr. Abbé is testing these beta rays, on simple warts only for the present, and he hopes to be able to clear up the confusion as to the properties of these rays.

RADIUM IN CANADA

It is announced that a government bill has been introduced into the provincial Legislature, offering a reward of £5,000 for the first discovery of radium in the Province of Ontario, Canada.

A STUDY OF GARBAGE DISPOSAL

An interesting contribution to the study of sewage and garbage disposal made by the bureau of foreign and domestic commerce of the United States Department of Commerce, has been issued in pamphlet form under the title *Scientific Sewage and Garbage Disposal*.

The pamphlet summarizes consular reports concerning European cities of 50,000 population and upward, which make some attempt at sewage purification. This excludes nearly all the municipalities of southern and eastern Europe. No reports were asked for from London, Berlin or Paris.

Boyhood and Lawlessness on *the* West Side of New York



Boyhood and lawlessness—kids and cops on asphalt streets—are at the very heart of the "West Side Problem." A study of them has been made under the direction of Pauline Goldmark for the Bureau of Social Research of the New York School of Philanthropy, and is to be brought out soon as a Russell Sage Foundation volume. The pictures by Lewis W. Hine show boys rowing with a policeman, parading, shooting craps, boxing and, in the center, organizing for the Junior Giants."



Communications

HALVING THE TAX RATE ON BUILDINGS

TO THE EDITOR: I believe it will be many a day before the state of New York will enact a law reducing the tax on improvements and buildings, and laying an additional tax on the value of the land.

The single taxers are of the opinion that the trouble of unemployment would cease if their doctrines and theories were enacted into law. They lay the trouble of unemployment entirely on the present methods of taxation.

Others, as well as single taxers, are troubled with this problem of unemployment. Whether or not single taxers are right in their theories, I think the people would be willing, perhaps, to lay a tax, a special tax, a separate tax, on the land only, on land values, to cover the expenses the state would be put to "by giving employment to all those that are unemployed at any time."

It would be, in my opinion, a compromise measure that might go through the Legislature. Even if there is only a suspicion of truth in the theories of the single taxers, and even if there is no truth in them at all, it would not harm the landed interests very much to tax them on the value of their land for the cost of giving the unemployed work. I do not think there would be much opposition on the part of land-holders to such a measure.

SELMAR HESS

New York.

TO THE EDITOR: Professor Seligman's arguments against the Herrick-Schaap bill are substantially the same as he voiced before the Board of Estimate at the public hearing held not long since. The mere fact that he is a very able teacher of college economics would, no doubt, influence very many to accept his opinion in preference to their own judgment.

However, when we consider how very wide a divergence there is among college professors of economics, the question arises whether they are any more fit to act as guides in sociological matters than the average intelligent layman who has studied such problems.

Prof. Alvin S. Johnson, professor of political economy at Cornell, says in a recent number of the *Atlantic Monthly* that all the social heresies find their exponents among political economists high in their profession, all of which might tend to make one doubt whether political economy is really a science at all, or, if it is, whether the aforesaid professors have a speaking acquaintance with the real thing.

Professor Seligman's arguments rather tend to confirm this view, since some of his premises and conclusions do not

square with either the fundamentals of political economy or the facts of the case, while his logic at times is mixed to the extent of self-contradiction. At one point he says that the passage of the bill would result in over-production of buildings, and at another, that it would retard building and keep land out of use.

His citing of the Vancouver building permits failed to disclose one very important fact, and that was that while there was a considerable shrinkage in the total value of building permits between 1911-1913, that in the latter year the number of permits per capita were much larger than before, and that is very much more important for the general welfare than the erection of a limited number of buildings of very high cost.

In the opposition to the Herrick-Schaap bill one thing is very apparent, and that is that the great majority of those who are frantically fighting it are actuated solely by the immediate money interests which they think are endangered, while most of those who are supporting it are doing so simply from a conviction that it will benefit the community. In other words, there seems to be an utter lack of understanding on the part of most of the bill's opponents that there is anything else to fight about excepting self-interest.

MABEL C. KITE.

[Social Worker.]
Stamford, Conn.

TO THE EDITOR: Will you grant space for a reply to some of the fiscal objections urged by Professor Seligman in your columns against halving the tax rate on buildings in New York city, or completely untaxing them? He says of the fiscal aspects: "In considering these we must bear in mind that while land values will be lowered, land rents will not be less than before."

Of course, facts are not ruled out in this discussion.

In 1913, the assessed values of New York city were \$1,223,658,604 greater than in 1906, although the tax levy on land values was increased by \$33,451,834 during these eight years. The stupidity of claiming that an increased levy of about \$20,000,000 on land values will decrease the assessed value of land is apparent. It might prevent the usual increase.

Even with the heavy taxes on buildings, the assessed value of buildings in the city increased, during this period, by \$837,165,390, a total increase in the assessed value of ordinary real estate of \$2,060,823,994.

Professor Seligman inadvertently admits this point earlier in his statement: "The enlargement of the buildings zone, therefore, will cause land rents to rise throughout the city." Professor Selig-

man knows that land values are merely land rents capitalized. He neatly disproves his own charge that land values will be reduced, inadvertently demolishing his claim that the land value of the little home owner would be thereby wiped out. He also admits that more buildings will be constructed.

New York's great borrowing capacity, which Professor Seligman defends and wishes to conserve, is, however, a serious menace. The city's net funded debt on December 31, 1913, was \$898,013,401, an increase during the past eight years of \$467,457,001. The city paid in interest in 1913, \$45,721,775, over six-sevenths of the total taxes on buildings.

During these eight years, the ownership of land was worth to the lucky owners, including ground rent (calculated at 6 per cent upon full value) and increase in land values, at least \$3,251,000,000. Land owners paid in taxes and assessments on land less than \$590,000,000, while during this period, the city paid over \$234,000,000 interest on the city debt, but paid off less than \$64,000,000 of the debt.

Professor Seligman is right. "Land rents will not be less than before" when land values are taxed more heavily, but land owners' share will be less, and the people's share more. We can appropriately and easily stop our stupid orgy of indebtedness, of which Professor Seligman is inexplicably an advocate. The people will get the advantages of having apartments and homes taxed less, by taxing land values more.

BENJAMIN C. MARSH.

[Executive secretary, Society to Lower Rents and Reduce Taxes on Homes.]
New York.

TO THE EDITOR: Let me touch only on certain portions of Professor Seligman's article which seemed to me characteristic of its logic, its accuracy—or lack of them—and its point of view generally.

As to logic, Professor Seligman tells us several times that land rent is determined by population. No one disputes this, but how does Professor Seligman reconcile it with the statement made elsewhere in this article that an increased tax on land values will diminish the rental value of land? If population determines the rental value of land, what has the tax to do with it?

And again, in concern for the modest house owner in the suburbs who is a land speculator in an equally modest way (according to Professor Seligman) the professor reiterates the statement about diminishing the rental value of land by the tax as proposed and his fears that it would keep back building. But scarce a half-page further on we find him stating that the change in taxation advocated by the Herrick-Schaap bill would stimulate building and push out the building periphery, which in turn would cause land rents to rise throughout the city. Why then should the modest speculator on the periphery worry about the Herrick-Schaap bill? Furthermore, in speaking of Vancouver, Professor Seligman says: "The whole system of land value taxation is playing right into the hands of the land speculator." And as we are speak-

ing of Vancouver I would respectfully call Professor Seligman's attention to the fact that they have not yet got the single tax in Vancouver.

On the further count of logic, Professor Seligman states that he does not altogether disagree, in theory, with the suggestion to take some part of land values for local revenue, but that he favors rather an unearned increment tax, because it deals only with future values, while the Herrick-Schaap bill deals with present values. Now the present values of today were the future values of yesteryear, and the future values of today are the present values of tomorrow. If it is right to take them tomorrow, why is it not right to take them today?

And as to the count of accuracy—Professor Seligman tells us that the Herrick-Schaap bill favors our rich men who build fine mansions on Fifth avenue, at the expense of the small house owner. In his own words "our more sumptuous residences are precisely those that cost more than the land on which they stand." Are they? Here are a few figures from the latest Tax Department lists concerning three excellently typical examples of millionaire mansions on Fifth avenue:

Mrs. Cornelius Vanderbilt's house northwest corner Fifth avenue and Fifty-seventh street; land, 200 by 135 feet, assessed at \$2,950,000; house, 5 stories, cov. 143 by 125 feet, assessed at \$400,000.

Huntington house, southeast corner Fifth avenue and Fifty-seventh street; land, 85 by 175 feet, assessed at \$1,550,000; house, 5 stories, 65 by 160 feet, assessed at \$250,000.

John Jacob Astor residence, 840 Fifth avenue; land, 125 by 150 feet, assessed at \$1,300,000; house, 4 stories, 125 by 100, assessed at \$600,000.

There are any number more but these are typical.

Then there is another matter which has to do with the ethical side of the question. Professor Seligman grants us that the Herrick-Schaap bill might in a measure decrease congestion as to room in our city, but says that it would bring about a congestion as to acre which in his mind is just as bad as the other. It hardly seems credible that a thinking man, in this day and generation, could make such a statement.

Does Professor Seligman realize what room congestion means? Does he realize what it means to have anywhere from five to fifteen human beings living in one room, with no privacy, with no decency, without opportunity to develop any trait that differentiates man from the brutes? We can see this condition in our slums quite frequently and we can see the results to our city in the night courts, in the police and hospital annals. Surely no one who has studied this matter can say that any other condition is preferable to room congestion.

All this while I have said nothing about the merits of the Herrick-Schaap bill. But oftentimes the fallacy of the arguments used against a measure are the best argument in its favor.

GRACE ISABEL COLBRON.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR: Although the title of Professor Seligman's article in your issue of March 7 is Halving the Tax Rate on Buildings, he rarely mentions his subject, but instead, invokes the bugaboo of the single tax. Do not these tactics constitute an admission that he cannot oppose the Herrick-Schaap bill on its merits?

As Commissioner Murphy very aptly points out in the same number, single tax means the total abolition of all taxation, federal, state and local, and the raising of revenue by taking the entire ground rent. In New York city the single tax would mean the annual collection of about three hundred million dollars from land values, which are now paying only eighty-three million dollars. The Herrick-Schaap bill provides for a vote of the people on the question of making land values pay nineteen and a half million dollars more. This is the proposition which Professor Seligman did not meet.

He claims, however, that if the Herrick-Schaap bill were passed, that would be merely the beginning or entering wedge, and that after the dire results that would be caused thereby the people would demand greater reductions of taxes on buildings, and greater increases of taxes on land. It is no wonder that he does not consider his article a scientific discussion, but refers us to his work on *The Shifting and Incidence of Taxation*.

It is not remarkable, therefore, that Professor Seligman opposes a referendum on this question. Of course the people will be fit to vote on a new constitution next year, which may involve hundreds of changes, but they are clearly unfit to vote on this simple question: Shall the city of New York tax land values more than labor values? Perhaps, however, his fears are justified; for voters who, after being ruined by the Herrick-Schaap bill, will run double quick to the single tax, are surely not fit to vote on any question or for any person.

A few comparisons will show that he does not consider his article a scientific discussion of either the Herrick-Schaap bill or the single tax. At one place he says that "if buildings are exempted from taxation there will manifestly be every inducement to prospective builders to enlarge their profits by increasing the height of the buildings * * * as a result, the old and low buildings in the slums will be replaced by high apartment houses, each of which may house two or three times as many people as before."

He also says that "most houses are built now-a-days on building loans, and the amount of the loan, as well as the rate of interest, is in certain proportion to the value of the land. If the increased tax on the land diminishes its value, either less money can be borrowed or a higher rate of interest will have to be paid, and in either case there will be an impediment to the erection of new houses." Professor Seligman might have put his proposition more briefly: The cause is an impediment to the result.

The so-called single tax in Vancouver looms large in Professor Selig-

man's eye. As a matter of fact, Vancouver never adopted the single tax, and although improvements there are now entirely exempt from taxation, land values are taxed at a lower rate than they are in New York city. The entire exemption of improvements was adopted in 1910, in which year the building permits amounted to about thirteen million dollars, and increased to seventeen million dollars in 1911, and nineteen million dollars in 1912. Professor Seligman gloats over the fact that they dropped to ten millions in 1913. He probably does not know, however, at least he fails to note, that the figures for 1913 are three times as great as those for 1902, when buildings were still taxed. He also fails to note that although both land and building values in Vancouver have increased more than 500 per cent since the policy of partially exempting improvements was adopted, rents in that city have decreased 15 per cent, and the wages of ordinary laborers are three dollars for an eight-hour day, with no unemployment.

He also ignores the experience of Houston, Tex., which has begun to exempt improvements from taxation. In two years the population increased enormously, as did both improvements and land values, but rents fell one-sixth; and the tax commissioner writes that there are no unemployed in that city.

Professor Seligman claims "that the more sumptuous residences are precisely those that cost more than the land on which they stand." Again does he demonstrate the admittedly unscientific nature of his article, for a perusal of the assessment rolls would have shown him that the great majority of the mansions on Fifth avenue and Riverside drive will pay more taxes under the proposed system than they pay today; for the land is more valuable than the improvements.

So, too, with the exception of perhaps a half dozen skyscrapers, there is no large office building that is not worth less than its site. But the owners of the half dozen are active in opposition to the Herrick-Schaap bill. According to Professor Seligman, they should favor it. Having studied the subject scientifically, however, they realize that they will lose more in the reduction of rents than they will gain in the reduction of taxes.

"What we need in our large cities is more revenue not less revenue." I heartily endorse this, and I am glad to have found one statement in the article with which I am in accord. Our present system of discouraging the erection of more buildings by penalizing people who have the temerity to attempt it, *does* reduce our natural taxable base. With more buildings and more people to occupy them, the greater the land values.

Professor Seligman claims, however, that the reduction of the rate on improvements would endanger the constitutional limitation of indebtedness, which is 10 per cent of the assessed value of real estate. He does not attempt to prove it, but merely admits it. The constitution states that such indebtedness shall not exceed "ten per centum of the assessed valuation of the real

estate of such county or city subject to taxation." Under the Herrick-Schaap bill, at the end of five years, on the basis of the present budget, the rate on land would be about 2.20 and improvements about 1.10. Are they not both "subjects of taxation"?

Professor Seligman suggests "two remedies" for congestion: increased transportation, restriction of height and depth of buildings, broad streets and more parks and playgrounds. It is unfortunate for his attitude as a friend of the poor that each of these suggestions, if adopted, would increase the land owners' profits. The land owners will be glad to sell their land to the city for parks, playgrounds and wide streets, at several times the assessed value, and those who are not fortunate enough to own the sites selected would benefit in the increased value of their land. I think that the various land speculators' associations and their coadjutors in Wall street, who welcome city bond issues and who own and have their offices in the skyscrapers that the professor claims should, but do not, favor the Herrick-Schaap bill, will heartily second his suggestion.

The gist of Professor Seligman's argument is in the sentence: "Heavier taxation of land values than of buildings is confiscation." Of course, he is entitled to his opinion on this, but so is every other voter who creates land values. The only way 99 per cent of the voters can record their opinions is by a referendum.

FREDERIC CYRUS LEUBUSCHER.

[President, Society to Lower Rents and Reduce Taxes on Homes.]

New York.

TO THE EDITOR: Professor Seligman has started his article in your issue of March 7 by stating that the agitation in favor of the Herrick-Schaap bill has been "ingenuously managed" to "identify it in the popular mind" with a project for lowering rents. The Herrick-Schaap bill will reduce rents and Professor Seligman admits it later on in his article, although he questions to what extent they will be lowered. We, therefore, do not think that the implication contained in this sentence is just or fair.

The reason why no mere building boom will occur, as Professor Seligman fears, was pointed out to him at a hearing before the special committee appointed by the Chamber of Commerce to look into the merits of the Herrick-Schaap bill, and neither then, nor in his article did he make any reply to the facts presented. Aside from the wearing out of old buildings, and the necessity for better buildings due to improvements in the art, the only reason for the erection of new buildings is the increase of population. If the Herrick-Schaap bill were in force, people in the slums would no longer be forced to crowd many into one room, or many families into one apartment, but they would occupy considerably more space than at present. It is a conservative estimate that each individual would occupy twice as much space. Consequently, the increasing population would continue to require twice as much building as here-

tofore, provided the increase in population continued the same.

It will therefore be seen that far more building would go on under the Herrick-Schaap bill than before, even after the present needs of the city had been provided.

While in the first part of his article Professor Seligman declares that there would be a building boom, followed by a collapse, and that there would then be no greater amount of building than at present, later on in his article he points out that the removal of the tax from buildings would cause the city to be built up solid with lofty apartments, and adds that we would soon have a "repetition throughout the whole length and breadth of the city" of conditions that we find in Manhattan. These two statements do not completely harmonize, and we think the correct conclusion is that they are both in error.

Again, the professor argues elaborately on the relative merits of congestion per room and congestion per acre, and represents that if anything, he believes congestion per acre is the worst of the two. May we suggest that the growth of tuberculosis in the city, for example, is caused much more by congestion per room than by any other cause? The habits of people living where congestion per room is the order of the day, are apt to be neither sanitary, moral, honest or in any way praiseworthy, although this is through no fault of their own but due entirely to the environment in which they live.

Professor Seligman points out that, in his opinion, the Herrick-Schaap bill would produce congestion per acre, high buildings, buildings close together without any garden space, land advantages for the rich and against the poor, high rents in the centre of the city, a gradual change from private house owners to apartment dwellers, and similar evils.

We wish to call Professor Seligman's attention very strongly to the fact that the present system of taxation in New York city, as it exists today, has caused the very evils which he predicts, in a more aggravated form here than in any other spot in the world, and yet Professor Seligman asks us to stick to our present system which experience has proved does cause these evils rather than change to another, which, in the opinion of many who have studied the matter carefully, would decrease these evils.

Professor Seligman has offered no satisfactory alternative proposition to the Herrick-Schaap bill, and consequently he is presumably satisfied with present conditions, including congestion per room, high buildings, and the rest.

Personally, we think that the settlement of so simple a question as to whether labor and land shall be taxed at the same rate, had better, under the circumstances, be referred to the people, as required by the Herrick-Schaap bill, especially in view of the fact that Professor Seligman has, as yet, made no objection to their voting next year on the delicate points involved in a new constitution.

E. VAIL STEBBINS.

[Vice President, Business Men's Association to Untax Industry.]

TO THE EDITOR: To judge from the asperity of the attacks on my modest contribution, I feel almost as if I had fallen into a hornet's nest. The stings are, however, less virulent than they seem to be, either because my hide has been a bit toughened by a long experience or perhaps because the poison is a little less venomous than it appears. As the communications seem to have been prepared according to a concerted scheme, whereby each writer takes up successively different points, an adequate rejoinder would necessitate an essay of at least as much bulk as the original. I shall therefore content myself with a few reflections. And I shall not endeavor to vie with the writers in personalities or in courteous charges of stupidity, ignorance, lack of logic, inhumanity and the like, with which the letters are replete.

In the first place, let me call the attention of my critics to the fact that a sound criterion of criticism is clearly to understand what the person criticised actually states. Thus the gravamen of several of the objections is that I assert one thing on one page and the opposite thing on another page, as for instance that buildings will increase and not increase, or that land values will fall and rise, etc.

A careful perusal of my paper would show that in the one case I was discussing a hypothesis and in the other a fact. Thus, in answer to my opponents' statement that more houses would be erected, I argue first on that hypothesis and contend that if more houses are built, the result would be only a temporary boom; whereupon secondly I leave that hypothesis and state my reasons for believing that as a fact more houses will not be built. So again, in reply to the argument that rents will fall, I contend that if the building zone would be enlarged by reason of the change in taxation land rents (and land values) would rise; but since I take the position that the hypothesis is untenable and that the building zone will not be enlarged (for reasons that I give) I conclude that as a fact land values will not rise, but on the contrary fall, because of the capitalization of the increased tax on land. A little more attention to the exact steps of my argument would have obviated a large part of the criticisms.

To come now to the specific points which do not rest on the above misconceptions. One writer maintains that the new law will enable each individual to occupy on a conservative estimate twice as much space as at present, and that there will therefore be a permanent need for twice as many additional buildings every year. That is to say, he asserts that after the present fringe of boarders and lodgers come to occupy apartments of their own (which he thinks will be the effect of the bill), not only would every possible future boarder or lodger permanently occupy such apartments, but every tenant that now occupies for himself 2, 3, 4 or 5 rooms would in the future occupy 4, 6, 8, or 10 rooms of the same size, and for every man who now builds a 10 room house to live

in, there would be a man in the future to build a 20 room house.

It would follow that if the tax on buildings were completely removed, instead of being only halved, every tenant would occupy from 8 to 20 rooms, and every owner build a 40 room house. But this we are told, is a conservative estimate; so that if we desired to be simply normal and not conservative we should be justified in looking forward to the tenants occupying apartments up to 40 rooms, and owners building houses of from 60 to 80 rooms. And all this would be the result of a change in taxation. Surely, great is the power of generous enthusiasm!

Another critic quotes Professor Johnson to the effect that economists differ about almost everything. But she fails to quote the real point sought to be made by him, namely that notwithstanding disagreements on well nigh every possible subject, there is not a single economist of note who approves, or who has ever approved, of the single tax. We may have our sins, but that heinous charge at all events cannot be laid at our doors.

Another fair critic thinks that there is no difference in principle between the unearned increment tax and the Herrick-Schaap bill, because the future value of today is the present value of tomorrow. But she fails to realize that if I invest my money today on ample notice of what is to happen tomorrow, this is a very different proposition from having allowed me to invest my money in the past *without* notice of what will be done today. It makes all the difference between taxation (which can be allowed for) and confiscation.

Still another critic selects certain houses on Fifth Avenue which stand on plots which are considerably larger and more expensive than the houses. If he had selected some of the many houses which, as is customary in New York, occupy as much of the plot as the law allows and which are none the less of a costly and luxurious nature, the figures would have been very different.

Several of the writers credit me with the delightful doctrine that I favor overcrowding. What I said was that the bill in question would in my opinion not appreciably relieve congestion per room, and would surely increase congestion per acre. The first result is problematical, the second result is certain—so certain, in fact, that not a single one of the critics has even attempted a reply thereto. My point is this: is it wise to endeavor to secure a very doubtful relief from one kind of congestion at the cost of a certain increase of congestion of another kind; especially when better methods are possible to secure the reduction of both kinds?

Many of the critics refer to Vancouver. They now take refuge in the statement that even if there has been a great falling off in building permits more houses are being built than 10 years ago; but they tell us nothing as to the comparative ratio, now and then, of houses to population and wealth. Nor do they compare Vancouver with other Canadian cities, or even with American cities across the border. Were this the

proper place to do so, interesting figures might be presented to show that the change in tax methods in Vancouver had virtually no effect one way or the other, and that all the alleged consequences can be duplicated in cities of a similar economic position where no such changes in taxation took place.

My critics are of two classes—the professed single taxers and the social workers. With the single taxers it is useless to argue—for no argument can change the burning enthusiasm of the zealot. To the social workers, however, I would say: do not play with fire. Every tax scheme is a fiscal as well as a social proposition, and whatever its social implications, it remains primarily a fiscal matter. Do not let your zeal for social reform run away with your appreciation of the fiscal considerations; and before you take a public position on the subject, decide to make as profound a study of public finance as you have already made of social reform.

EDWIN R. A. SELIGMAN.
[Columbia University]
New York.

SUBJECTS WANTED

TO THE EDITOR: Your readers are asked to suggest to the committee on organization of the National Conference of Charities and Correction for 1915, such topics of special interest as they would like to have discussed at that conference. Will they please send suggestions promptly, direct to the chairman?

HOMER FOLKS.
105 East 22d Street, New York.

TO THE EDITOR: In my note on juvenile courts in THE SURVEY for December 27, 1913, I sought to emphasize the direction which the development of the court might conceivably take in the future.

In connection with the item, Judge Ben. B. Lindsey of Denver calls my attention to the fact (which I knew) that covering a period of ten years he has had a woman assistant sitting with him in all girls' cases and that these cases are heard in private. Judge Lindsey argues that inasmuch as he is sitting as a chancellor he has the power, regardless of any express provision of law, to designate a woman to hear just such cases. He makes the further point that the court over which he presides is clothed with ample civil and criminal jurisdiction to reach all of the cases referred to in the item by me and is actually doing so.

In the light of the foregoing, it may appear as if I have done the Denver court an injustice in referring to the Chicago court in the item, and to the extent to which any injustice may have been done the Denver court I want expressly to correct it. Aside from the work that Judge Lindsey is doing in Denver, the whole juvenile court movement is indebted to him far too much for any of us interested in the movement to detract, even in the slightest degree, from what he has done and is still doing.

BERNARD FLEXNER.
Chicago.

Calendar of Conferences

APRIL AND MAY CONFERENCES

ADVANCEMENT OF COLORED PEOPLE, National Association for the Baltimore, Md., May 3-5. Sec'y, Miss May Childs Nerney, 70 Fifth Avenue, New York.

AGRICULTURAL COMMISSION OF THE AMERICAN BANKERS' ASSOCIATION, Hot Springs, Va., April 30-May 1. Chairman, B. F. Harris, Champaign, Ill.

BACKWARD, TRUANT, DELINQUENT AND DEPENDENT CHILDREN, National Conference on the Education of. Memphis, Tenn., May 6-8. Sec'y, F. Leslie Hayford, 274 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Arkansas State Conference of. Fort Smith, Ark., May 5-6. Gen. Sec'y, Murray A. Auerbach, City Hall, Little Rock, Ark.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Colorado State Board of. Denver, Colo., May 12. Sec'y, William Thomas, State Capitol, Denver, Colo.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Connecticut State Conference of. Bridgeport, Ct., April 26-28. Gen. Sec'y, Charles P. Kellogg, Waterbury, Ct.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Fifth New York City Conference of. Manhattan, Brooklyn and Lincolndale, Westchester County, May 19-21. Sec'y, John B. Prest, 287 Fourth Ave., New York.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, National Conference of. Forty-first Annual Meeting. Memphis, Tenn., May 8-15. Gen. Sec'y,

W. T. Cross, 315 Plymouth Court, Chicago.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, New Jersey Conference of. Asbury Park, N. J., April 19-21. Sec'y, Ernest D. Easton, 45 Clinton St., Newark, N. J.

CHILD-HELPING CONFERENCE, Lehigh Valley. Fifth Annual Meeting. Allentown, Pa., May 9. Sec'y, Mrs. Jere Schindel, 124 S. Fifth Street, Allentown, Pa.

CHILD, Third International Congress on the Welfare of the; Under auspices of National Congress of Mothers and Parent Teachers' Associations, Washington, D. C. April 22-27. Secretary Mrs. A. A. Birney, 806 Loan and Trust Bldg., Washington, D. C.

CITY PLANNING, National Conference on. Toronto, Can., May 25-27. Sec'y, Flavel Shurtleff, 19 Congress St., Boston, Mass.

FIRE PROTECTION ASSOCIATION, National. Chicago, Ill., May 5-7. Sec'y, Franklin H. Wentworth, 87 Milk St., Boston.

JEWISH CHARITIES, National Conference of. Memphis, Tenn., May 8-15. Sec'y, Louis H. Levin, 411 West Fayette St., Baltimore, Md.

KINDERGARTEN UNION, International, Springfield, Mass. April 20-24. Corresponding Sec'y, Miss Catharine R. Watkins, 1720 Oregon Ave., Washington, D. C.

LIBRARY ASSOCIATION, American. Washington, D. C. May 25-30. Sec'y, George B. Utley, 78 E. Washington St., Chicago.

NEWSPAPER CONFERENCE, National. Lawrence, Kan., May 11-14. Under auspices of the University of Kansas. Sec'y, Merle Thorpe, University of Kansas, Lawrence, Kan.

PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING, National Organization for. St. Louis, Mo., April 23-29. Held in connection with the American Nurses' Association and the National League for Nursing Education. Exec. Sec'y, Ella Phillips Crandall, 54 East 34th St., New York.

SOCIETIES FOR ORGANIZING CHARITY, American Association of. Memphis, Tenn., May 8. Gen. Sec'y, Francis H. McLean, 130 East 22d St., New York.

TUBERCULOSIS, National Association for the Study and Prevention of. Washington, D. C., May 7-9. Sec'y, Dr. Livingston Farrand, 105 East 22d St., New York.

WOMEN, International Council of. Rome, Italy, May 5-31. Sec'y, Alice Salomon, Neue Ausbacher Str. 7, Berlin W. 50, Germany.

WOMEN WORKERS, National League of. New York City. May 14-17. Sec'y, Miss Jean Hamilton, 35 E. 30th Street, New York.

TRIP TO THE MEMPHIS CONFERENCE

THE MONDAY Evening Club of Boston is this year following its usual custom of arranging its trip to the National Conference of Charities and Correction so as to include points of interest en route. Under the leadership of Parker B. Field, who had charge of the trip to Seattle last year, the club plans to leave Boston on May 3. The route will be through the Shenandoah Valley with stops at the Luray Caverns and the Natural Bridge. A day will be spent in and around Chattanooga with opportunity to visit Look-Out Mountain. Missionary Ridge and the battlefield of Chickamauga. The arrival at Memphis will be on May 8 just in time for the opening of the conference.

Returning, after the conference ends on May 15, Sunday will be spent at Asheville and then after a day at Old Point Comfort travel will be by boat to Boston, arriving May 21. Those with shorter time may return directly by an all rail route.

Registration must be accompanied by a \$5 fee and deposit should be made before May 1 with Mr. Field, 279 Tremont Street, Boston. It is expected that the total cost will be about \$110, not counting the expenses of the week in Memphis or the side trips while in Chattanooga or Asheville.

Other tours in connection with the conference providing a sea trip from New York to Savannah and thence by rail via Atlanta and Chattanooga, have been arranged by George E. Marsters who may be addressed in New York at 31 West 30th Street, and in Boston at 248 Washington street.

THE "THIRD MAN" IN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES

[Continued from page 71.]

tration board' under the Hart, Schaffner & Marx agreement in Chicago and following the crisis in the clothing trades in New York last March, he was called also to the chairmanship of the committee on immediate action under the New York cloak and suit protocol. In New York and Chicago together he has 60,000 people under his jurisdiction. It was Mr. Williams who, in the Cherry Mine disaster without a court order or any other authority, induced the president of the Coal Mining Company to set aside a half million dollars for the dependents of the victims.

This "third man" told the commission that he was at one time a coal miner. Then he was interested in a theater, and after that was in business (insurance). Now, in his sixties, his occupation is that of mediator. "I used to be an arbitrator," said Mr. Williams, "and I can't help agreeing with practically everything that has been said here against arbitration. It is the old formal method to which I am opposed. The arbitrator sat as a sort of Supreme Court and rendered a decision in accordance with his own personal ideas of economics and justice. That is a mistake. Such arbitrations fail of their purpose because they do not get the moral support of the workers. I don't decide cases any more if I can help it. I get the two contending parties to come together and agree and make their own decisions. It is difficult for an outsider to arbitrate, but it is absolutely necessary that a mediator should be an outsider and free from the material interests which affect the contending parties.

"The mediator must first of all be a firm believer in unionism. He must help to build up the union in order to have such discipline as will secure the observance of an award. Then he ought to be continually on the job. The party he decides against today he may decide for tomorrow. Thus he has opportunity as time goes by to prove his fairness and to establish confidence.

"The reason why he should be an outsider is that he can put first the social interests. The two conflicting parties are too concerned with their contentions to remember any interests but their own. They must be checked. Someone should be there to say 'You can't be permitted in your passion to make ducks and drakes of the points at issue.' There must be built up a force that will conserve an agreement that has social value and say to the two parties 'You can't smash this agreement. The public has an interest.'

"This third man has an unparalleled opportunity for the exercise of ingenuity in finding the point where the interests of the two parties run parallel. I do not think that the interests of capital and labor are identical but at any given moment of time, there is a community of interest. It is the mediator's work to find this and bring the parties together on that basis.

"Thus it is possible to bring about without revolution some of the goals that



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A SUPERINTENDENT for the Junior Republic, Annapolis Junction, Md. Apply National Junior Republic, 703 American Bldg., Baltimore, Md.

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INFORMATION DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but memberships not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. *Always enclose postage for reply.*

Children

CHILD LABOR—National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

CHILD HELPING—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence, printed matter and counsel relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS—National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth Ave., New York. Charles E. Powlson, Gen. Sec'y, Anna Louise Strong, Director of Exhibits. Bulletins covering Results, Organization, Cost, Construction, etc., of Child Welfare Exhibits. Will assist cities in organization and direction. Exhibit material to loan.

CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE—American Assoc. for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knapp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request. Traveling Exhibit. Urges prenatal instruction; adequate obstetrical care; birth registration; maternal nursing; infant welfare consultations.

Health

SCHOOL HYGIENE—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., Dr. Henry M. Bracken, Chairman State Board of Health, St. Paul, Minn. Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York. Yearly congresses and proceedings.

MENTAL HYGIENE—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City. Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

PUBLIC HEALTH—American Public Health Association. Pres., Wm. C. Woodward, Washington; Sec'y, S. M. Gunn, Boston. Founded for the purpose of advancing the cause of public health and prevention of disease. Five sections: Laboratory, Vital Statistics, Municipal Health Officers, Sanitary Engineering and Sociological. Official organ American Journal of Public Health, \$3.00 a year, published monthly. 8 months' subscription, 50 cents. Address 755 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

NATIONAL HEALTH—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Exec. Sec., Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

TUBERCULOSIS—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

SOCIAL HYGIENE—The American Social Hygiene Association (Inc.), 105 W. 40th St., New York. Division Offices: Chicago, 1632 McCormick Building; San Francisco, Examiner Building. Full information on request. Individual and society membership. The Association is organized to promote sound sex education, the reduction of venereal diseases and the suppression of commercialized vice. Executives, James B. Reynolds, Counsel: William F. Snow, M.D., General Secretary.

SEX HYGIENE—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies. Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Object: to stimulate the extension of public health nursing; to develop standards of technique; to maintain a central bureau of information. Publications: Pub. Health Nursing Quarterly, \$1.00 per year, and bulletins. Address Ella Phillips Crandall, R. N. Exec. Sec., 54 East 34th St., New York City.

LIFE EXTENSION INSTITUTE, Inc., E. E. Rittenhouse, Pres. Gives life extension service to subscribers. Service No. 1 \$3.00 a year; Service No. 2 \$5.00 a year. Consists of periodic health examinations, inspection service, and health bulletins on disease prevention. Head office 25 West 45th St., New York City. Phone—Bryant 1997—1998.

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THE SURVEY



PROBING *the* CAUSES *of* UNREST

Mutual Misunderstanding *of the* Efficiency Engineers
and the Labor Men

By JOHN A. FITCH

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Vol. XXXII, No. 4

Contents

April 25, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

AMENDING THE MARYLAND CHILD LABOR LAW	87
CITY AND COUNTY WELFARE BUREAUS AT CHICAGO	87
SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN NEW YORK	88
WIDOWS' PENSIONS ADOPTED IN CINCINNATI	89
VENEREAL QUACKS, THE LAW AND THE NEWSPAPERS	90
PUBLIC SERVICE TRAINING AND THE UNIVERSITIES	91

INDUSTRY

MUTUAL MISUNDERSTANDING OF EFFICIENCY EXPERTS AND LABOR MEN	John A. Fitch	92
INCREASE OF COAL MINE FATALITIES IN 1913		93

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY, Edited by Graham Taylor

TANNENBAUM IN THE LARGE	John Haynes Holmes	94
THE FIRST SOCIAL SERVICE CONGRESS OF CANADA	Hugh Dobson	95
A CHURCH ORGANIZATION TO WORK FOR SOCIAL AND INDUS- TRIAL WELFARE		96
RELIGIOUS VALUATION OF ALMSHOUSE WORKERS		96

THE TREND OF THINGS

BOOK REVIEWS		97
------------------------	--	----

FINGER PRINTS

"A SICKNESS"	D. Lucile Field Woodward	101
OLD BEES IN YOUNG BONNETS	Fred Brush	101

PERSONALS

COMMUNICATIONS		102
--------------------------	--	-----

JOTTINGS		103
--------------------	--	-----

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The GIST of IT—

THE four gunmen, whose lives in the public schools and on the public streets of New York were described in THE SURVEY of April 4, were electrocuted at Sing Sing on April 13. Some burning sidelights on the social results of capital punishment are given by John Collier, page 88, and Harry L. Hopkins, page 89. There seems to be a growing feeling that the ancient law of a life for a life has not been repealed. Rosenthal's life took not one, but four. How many lives will the four require in satisfaction of the law?

EFFICIENCY engineers and labor men seem to have adopted a policy of watchful waiting. Neither fully understands nor trusts the other. A review of last week's hearing before the Industrial Relations Commission, by John A. Fitch. Page 92.

NEXT week, the special Red Cross issue of THE SURVEY—emergency relief and rehabilitation following earthquake, fire, flood, tornado, shipwreck.

WHATEVER their motives or methods, the march of the unemployed on the New York churches made the whole country sit up and take notice of unemployment, writes John Haynes Holmes. Are not churches the first places for those in need to turn to? Page 94.

TO organize the forces of good for action—not for principles or resolutions—is the object of the Religious Citizenship League. Dr. Rauschenbush is president. Page 96.

CANADA'S first social service congress boxed the compass of social and civic advance, drew up a program, and called upon the government for various forms of social legislation. Page 95.

REVIEWS of recent books, including Dr. Crother's latest lectures and the South End House study of the city Negro. Page 98.

IF all the newspapers would follow the lead of the better ones, old Dr. So-and-so would soon pass into fakes' limbo. Venereal quacks, Samuel Hopkins Adams shows, cannot live without printers' ink. Page 90.

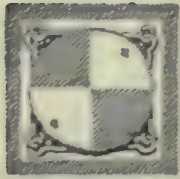
OF the 2,800 bills introduced in the last New York Legislature, about 100 may be classed as social. The fate of the more important of these. Page 88.

CINCINNATI has started to pay widows' pensions under the new Ohio law. An advisory committee representing private charities and additional probation officers will have charge, under the juvenile Court judge. Funds are so limited that only the most pressing cases can be relieved at once. Page 89.

THE Kern-McGillicuddy bill, providing compensation for every civilian employee of the federal government for accident or occupational disease, was reported favorably by the House judiciary committee on April 21.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



AMENDING THE MARYLAND CHILD LABOR LAW

PASSED BY a Democratic Legislature and signed by a Republican governor, after having been urged by a newspaper owned by a prominent Progressive, a new amendment to the child labor law in Maryland reduces the age limit for newsboys from 12 to 10.

The Legislature two years ago established the 14 year age limit for most occupations in which children are employed, though, in order to get the bill passed, the age limit was made 12 years for canneries, mercantile establishments, places of amusement, and for newsboys.

The Baltimore *News*, a Munsey newspaper, has been in prolonged controversy with the officials of the Bureau of Statistics, who enforce the child labor law. Before the Maryland Child Labor Committee had completed its plans for the amendment of the law in the right direction, the management of the *News* got a bill introduced in the Legislature lowering the age limit for newsboys from 12 to 10. No effective protest was made against this measure until it had passed the Legislature, and then an ineffective effort was made to induce Governor Goldsborough to veto the measure. Since child labor reform is one of the prominent and popular planks of the Progressive Party platform, it is expected that Frank A. Munsey, who was given sufficient knowledge of the matter, will be criticised as inconsistent by child labor reformers.

Following this successful attack upon the child labor law, the owners of canneries in the country came to the Legislature with the plea that they ought to be allowed to employ children as young as 10 years of age. They made the usual claim that they did not want such children in the canneries, but that unless permitted to employ them, they could not get from Baltimore the families they need in this work during the canning season. They also claimed that it was a great blessing to the children to be taken to the country from the heated city pavements.

There was earnest but ineffective protest against this measure to allow 10

year old children to be employed for unlimited hours in the canneries. At a meeting of the Civic Club addresses were made by the secretary for the southern states of the National Child Labor Committee, and by a Baltimore canner who protested against the favoritism of the law. A Sunday mass meeting held in a theater was addressed by the same speakers and Congressman David Lewis of Maryland.

The bill was then pending in the Senate, having passed the House. A public hearing was arranged in the Senate chamber for a Tuesday afternoon, but on Monday night the bill was put upon the third reading, and, despite the protest of certain senators, it passed. Governor Goldsborough listened to earnest pleas against the bill and vetoed it, the House failing to pass it over his veto.

Later the amendments to the law, endorsed by the Maryland Child Labor Committee, restoring the 12-year age limit for newsboys, were favorably reported by the House committee, but, through an apparent combination between the Baltimore *News* and the Democratic city machine of Baltimore, the bill was indefinitely postponed.



AMELIA SEARS
Director Cook County Bureau of Public Welfare.

CITY AND COUNTY WELFARE BUREAUS AT CHICAGO

PUBLIC WELFARE DEPARTMENTS have been established simultaneously by the city of Chicago and the county of Cook. The ordinance introduced by Prof. Charles E. Merriam, as reported in THE SURVEY for March 14, was passed by the City Council, with an appropriation of over \$30,000. It provides for two bureaus; one to operate municipal lodging houses for men and women and to collect information on working conditions and the relief of unemployment; the other, a bureau of social surveys, to investigate living conditions, facilities for recreation, causes of vagrancy, crime and poverty, as the basis for ordinances or statutes to improve such conditions.

A group of representative and influential citizens presented to Mayor Harrison the names of several persons capable of serving as commissioner of the department, who were recommended for appointment by those interested in its establishment.

The county commissioners anticipated the City Council by appropriating \$10,000 for the maintenance of a bureau of public welfare. Leading the way to this action were several demonstrations of the value and practicability of such work as the bureau is intended to do. The Illinois Training School for Nurses had successfully co-operated with the county hospital in the after-care of convalescents following their discharge. The Society for Mental Hygiene had supplemented the work of the county court and of the detention hospital most effectively. Social workers had been added to the staff of the court as official investigators for the judges with the co-operation of the Bureau of Personal Service.

The Juvenile Protective Association had kept a trained worker among boys over juvenile court age incarcerated in the jail awaiting trial, which led to the appointment of this worker as assistant in the newly established boys' court. A worker with the women and girls in the county jail was also maintained by the Juvenile Protective Association.

This service has proven so successful

as to prompt the establishment of a distinct bureau of public welfare in the county administration. Amelia Sears was appointed director of the bureau. After gaining valuable experience in the Chicago public schools, she served the United Charities for ten years as superintendent of two districts and director of summer outing work. The varied case work she handled made her handbook, *The Charity Visitor*, a valued text for training visitors. For a year past, Miss Sears has served the Woman's City Club as its first secretary, which position she resigned to become director of the new bureau.

Under Miss Sears' direction, trained assistants will be provided to do personal work with inmates of public institutions and their dependent households. Two such assistants will be assigned to the county infirmary at Oak Forest to work among the patients in the tuberculosis hospital and their families, as well as among the aged poor sheltered at the infirmary. Personal work for prisoners in the county jail and their dependents will also be undertaken, thus taking over the voluntary work done there by the Juvenile Protective Association.

An inquiry into the home conditions of children cared for in institutions to which they are committed by the county, and from which they are subsequently released, is to be another function of the new bureau. Interest in the commitment of children to these institutions is emphasized by the fact of the increasing drain upon the county resources in paying for their care. Formerly \$70,000 was appropriated annually for this purpose, but during the fiscal year ending December 1, 1913, the care of children in institutions cost the county \$300,000.

The after-care of these children which the bureau may exercise, it is hoped, will result in the permanent re-establishment of family homes and check the in-and-out drift which now increases, at least in the number of cases reported as paid for by the county. The bureau adds a staff of thirteen new employees to the social service of Cook county.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION IN NEW YORK

OF THE 2,825 bills introduced into the New York State Legislature this year, approximately 100 may be classed as social legislation. A few are still in the hands of the governor but, unless indicated, all reported here have received his signature.

Of the labor laws the most far-reaching is the re-enactment of the workmen's compensation law, already reviewed in *THE SURVEY*. Another important labor measure, which the governor signed last week is the Patton bill creating a bureau of employment in the state De-

partment of Labor and providing for vocational guidance, following the English system of school and labor exchange co-operation. Special committees composed of employers, workmen, and persons experienced in the training of children are to be connected with each exchange to give advice about the management of the employment office and to assist boys and girls leaving school

THE SURVIVAL OF BARBARISM

By JOHN COLLIER

During the past week, while the drama of the four New York gunmen has been moving to its hideous conclusion, I have been among various kinds of people—among public officials, teachers, lawyers and workmen—and have been thrown with an almost equal variety of women. Till last week I had kept the entire subject out of mind, as being one where I could effect nothing and whose influence on my own thoughts could only be morbid.

The past week has shattered my common sense intention because I have found that apparently the greater part of humanity in New York city is in the grip of an emotional horror. Our Easter time has been invaded by a nightmare. We are able to realize that capital punishment matters little as it affects a few murderers each year, but that it matters greatly, inasmuch as it pollutes the imagination, fans the hysteria and shakes the faith in organized society among millions of people.

We care little for life in America, with our twelve thousand annual homicides and our hundreds of thousands of deaths from preventable diseases and industrial accidents. Whether the gunmen died or stayed on for a living death in Sing Sing need not have concerned the public at large.

But what ought to concern us Americans is the survival of barbarism, of savage emotionalism, of the blood-theory of law, and of the black, hideous superstition, which is infinitely more pervasive in its influence today, when everybody reads, than it was in England when they hung corpses by the roadside.

And ought we not to be concerned when organized society maintains a practice which makes organized society hideous, fiendish, as we see it moving, as the main agent in the nightmare of the past week? For the chief actor in this horror of the gunmen is society which produced the gunmen and which now expiates its own crime by inflicting upon humanity this spectacle of organized blood-thirst and primitive revenge which we call capital punishment.

between 14 and 18 with respect to choice of occupation and the securing of suitable positions.

Those interested in labor conditions in New York were much relieved when the governor signed the bill appropriating \$50,000 for the continuance of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission. The opposition in the assembly led many to fear that after a year's work the data collected by the commission on wages, hours and sanitary conditions might never be brought before the public.

The most radical change in the labor law this year is the measure reducing from 9 to 8 and from 54 to 48 hours the daily and weekly employment of children under 16 years of age in mercantile establishments, including offices, messenger service, theaters, hotels, etc., and limiting to 9 hours per day and 54 hours per week the employment of women over 16 years old in such establishments. The bill makes 6 p. m. instead of 7 p. m. closing time for children, and provides one hour instead of 45 minutes as the lunch period. Mercantile employes are further protected by a law backed by the Retail Clerks' Union and other organizations, prohibiting mercantile establishments from compelling employes to contribute to a benefit or insurance fund.

A much criticised amendment to the labor law is the newspaper carriers' bill permitting the employment of boys 12 years of age and upward from 3 p. m. to 6.30 p. m., and boys 14 years of age and upwards from 5.30 a. m. to 8 a. m. on prescribed routes if they have newsboy badges. This bill was enacted this year after four years' struggle, despite active opposition and request for a hearing from social workers and organizations.

Two other amendments weaken the one day's rest in seven law by exempting cheese factories, dairies, creameries, milk condenseries, milk shipping stations, butter factories, ice cream manufacturing stands, and milk peddling plants; and also, when warranted in the discretion of the commissioner of labor, employes engaged in any continuous industrial or manufacturing process in which the regular day's work is not more than eight hours. These bills have not yet been approved by Governor Glynn and he is being urged vigorously to withhold his signature.

Minor changes were made in the labor law dealing with ventilation and sanitation of mercantile establishments. The standard of the mercantile law was raised to conform to that covering factories.

Some drastic changes were made in the prison laws. An entering wedge for making prisoners more useful to the community is provided in two laws. One authorizes the construction of state and county highways by counties and

towns, as contractors, with convict labor. The other, already signed by the governor, appropriates \$25,000 for a brick making plant at Elmira Reformatory and for the acquisition of agricultural land. It is believed the experiment of making vitrified brick in Elmira will lead to the manufacturing of brick for state highways in all the state prisons.

More rapid improvement in county jails is sought in a bill not yet signed giving the State Prison Commission power to close unsanitary jails and those which are inadequate to provide for the separation and classification of prisoners.

Changes in the public health law cover a wide range. Following similar legislation in other states, a "red light injunction law," urged by the Committee of Fourteen in New York city, provides for abatement of houses of prostitution as public nuisances through the issuance of a permanent injunction on complaint of any taxpayer or organization for the suppression of vice.

The bill appropriating \$25,000 for the creation of a division of rural hygiene and authorizing the commissioner of health to employ rural sanitary agents with duties prescribed by the Public Health Council, is said to be the first of its kind ever passed. It has yet to receive the governor's signature. It was backed by the state grange which offered startling statistics as to high rural death rates.

Health measures successfully advocated by the State Charities Aid Association include a law permitting boards of supervisors to submit to voters the question of building county tuberculosis hospitals and employing field tuberculosis nurses, and one permitting any nurse, employer, teacher, head of family, landlord or other person to report cases of tuberculosis.

Among the bills relating to foods and drugs, one which has had wide publicity is the Boylan bill. This forbids a druggist to fill prescriptions containing opium, morphia, coca leaves, cocaine, eucaïne, chloral, canabia or other derivatives or preparations except upon written notice of a physician. It also provides for the treatment of persons addicted to the use of habit-forming drugs. This bill, signed by the governor April 17, goes further than any existing law in preventing the illegal sale of drugs.

Two much-needed laws in relation to the feeble-minded were passed. One permits any court of record, on application of a parent, guardian, friend, relative, poor law official, probation or parole officer, or superintendent of schools, to commit a feeble-minded person to an institution if after a hearing the judge is convinced that it is for the best interests of the individual and the community.

The other makes it possible to retain the feeble-minded in custodial care de-

spite the demands of relatives. If he decides that it is for the best interests of a patient, the superintendent of the institution may apply to a court of record for a hearing and the court may commit the patient to the institution until discharged by the board of managers. These two bills are fortified by a third appropriating \$5,000 for a commission of five to inquire into the subject of

CAPITAL PUNISHMENT AND BOYS

By HARRY L. HOPKINS

"I move that the whole club stand for two minutes in honor of the four gunmen who died today."

The scene was the meeting of a club of small boys in a settlement on the Lower East Side of New York on the evening of the day that society had taken its revenge on four gunmen for the murder of a fellow criminal. It was a slip of a boy, scarcely fifteen, who spoke, learned in all the vices of city streets, the recognized leader of his gang, yet highly responsible in that at this early age he is the main support of a large family. Tonight there was no sign of his usual rollicking deviltry.

"Aw, what 'yu talkin' about. Dago Frank went to the chair first."

"They had a hard time killin' Gyp"—this last from an underfed youngster whose widowed mother is trying desperately hard to keep him straight.

"They was all dressed in black, and they poured water over 'em to make the electricity work better."

"They sure died game," was one sentiment to which all agreed, for didn't every newspaper in New York announce that fact in glowing headlines? These and many other gruesome facts had fixed themselves firmly in their impressionable minds.

These boys were exceptionally keen, ambitious and clean-minded, a few of them wage earners, most of them in the public schools—a club formed by the union of two gangs from rival streets, now welded together with a fine club spirit. The basket-ball championship won the previous week, the club's annual play now only a few days off, the debate of the evening were all overshadowed tonight, for the gunmen had been electrocuted, and the details of their death must be firmly impressed on the minds of each one.

What is responsible for the fact that thirty-five boys, all under sixteen, should wish to rise to their feet to pay homage to four men whose crime their keen sense of right and wrong would naturally condemn under normal circumstances?

mental defectives and methods of their treatment in New York state.

Of the bills dealing exclusively with amendments to the New York city charter, two at least should be mentioned. One, drafted by the Height of Buildings Commission, provides that the Board of Estimate and Apportionment shall appoint a commission to recommend zones and regulations for the size of buildings, yards and open spaces and for restrictions as to industrial uses of buildings, in each zone, as is required in German cities. Although the bill has been signed by Mayor Mitchel, the mayor questions its constitutionality on the ground of confiscation of property rights. It is now being considered by the governor. Aside from a law authorizing the governor to appoint a commission to investigate housing in second class cities, this New York city bill is the one important piece of housing and city planning legislation.

The other important measure affecting New York city is one authorizing the Board of Education to establish a bureau of compulsory education, school census and child welfare and to appoint a director, an assistant director and other employees.

Measures which failed to pass include the bill granting allowances to widows with children; the Seeley bill regulating the practice of nursing; the bills authorizing the appointment of two women assistants in the children's court and the appointment by the police commissioner of twenty patrolwomen; the bill vetoed by the governor extending the parole privileges of convicts; the bill prohibiting the issuance of marriage licenses without a physician's certificate; the bill requiring a poison label for methyl alcohol in any form; several factory investigating commission bills relative to the enforcement of the labor laws; and certain bills simplifying court procedure in New York city.

WIDOWS' PENSIONS ADOPTED IN CINCINNATI

THE MOTHERS' pension act enacted by the 1913 session of the Ohio Legislature is to become effective at once in Cincinnati. Under the provisions of the law, a special tax levy, which cannot be assessed until 1915, must be made before funds are generally available throughout the state. In Hamilton county, however, comprised chiefly of Cincinnati, the county commissioners have recently appropriated about \$60,000 for pensions. Judge Frank Gorman of the Juvenile Court, under whose direction the pensions must be granted, announces the following plan which he hopes will assure efficient administration.

Additional probation officers are to be appointed for investigations and constructive social service with families securing allowances. These must be ap-

WHACK THE QUACK

Copyright, 1913, by John T. McCutcheon



The Immigrant—"At last! Safe in this glorious land of promise."



Where he soon becomes the prey of men who will promise anything.

Since the expose of quackery last fall by the *Chicago Tribune* the publishers of many foreign language newspapers have removed all quack advertisements from their columns.

Commenting editorially on this action, the *Tribune* said:

"The immigrant stands in greater need of enlightenment with regard to these medical pirates than the average American of the same social stratum, because of certain traditions which he has brought with him from the old world. The peasant from the Slav countries, for instance, trusts a physician fully as much as he does a priest. . . . When the immigrant reads in his weekly family paper, black on white, that Dr. So and So guarantees a cure, he takes it as gospel truth. Frequently he does not even realize that the statement he reads is a paid advertisement. He thinks it is an announcement made by the journal itself purely for the benefit of mankind. The quacks know the credulity of the great bulk of immigrant laborers. And they turn it to good advantage. However, the foreign paper cannot be severely blamed for accepting these advertisements when they are so readily accepted by a portion of the American newspapers."

pointed from civil service lists, but as an eligible list recently created includes a number of trained relief workers, excellent material is at hand. Private agencies have been asked to assist the investigators. A serviceable investigation and family record form has been prepared, which is really the Russell Sage Foundation's form modified for local needs.

Judge Gorman has appointed an advisory committee of five citizens who have had active connection with organized charities. Before this committee, the members of which have agreed to give as much time as necessary for thorough-going work, will be laid the results of each investigation; and from this committee will go definite recom-

mendations to the judge for the disposal of each case.

The Ohio law classes as eligible for pensions women whose husbands are dead, imprisoned, permanently disabled for work by reason of mental or physical infirmity, and deserted women when the desertion has extended over a period of three years. In addition to the usual requirements of morality, poverty, competency, and school attendance of children, the woman must have been a resident of the county for at least two years, and shall not perform labor outside of her home except with the consent of the court.

Allowances are limited to fifteen dollars a month for a woman with one child, and seven dollars a month each

for other children. Pensions may be reconsidered at any time and they must be reconsidered every six months.

More than 600 applications are already on file. The limited funds available cannot provide for more than one-third of the applicants. It is the plan of the court to have all applicants investigated before pensions are granted, and to make allotments to those in greatest need who will use the money to the best advantage.

This sudden influx of applicants to be investigated at one time has given the community its best test of how a confidential exchange saves labor and expense. About 40 per cent of the cases are on record in the exchange maintained by the council of social agencies.

VENEREAL QUACKS, THE LAW, AND THE NEWSPAPERS

THE ACTIVITIES of venereal quacks in practically all communities and of some communities against venereal quacks furnished forth the program for the April meeting of the Society for Social and Moral Prophylaxis in New York city.

Samuel Hopkins Adams was the chief speaker. His words have the convincing power of personal experience, for he has had many adventures in quackdom, recorded in his book, *The Great American Fraud*, and elsewhere.

Mr. Adams prophesied that of all charlatans the venereal quack will first become extinct. This is because he fights alone, and hence timidly. There is no organization behind him such as the patent medicine quacks possess, and he has no special support from the press, not being a national advertiser.

And finally, some of his practices bring him within reach of law—if the law can catch him. He goes through his victim's clothes, not for money only, but also for information. He learns who is the man's employer, what are his social connections, then, when the patient does not want to continue treatment, turns blackmailer.

Yet, in spite of it all, he operates all over the country, advertises in any paper that will take his money, makes his thousands of dollars, because it's nobody's business to oust him.

Thus far, the "ousting" has been done most successfully by individual newspapers in all parts of the country. Mr. Adams told of several great dailies that made it their business to turn publicity upon quacks. In every case there had resulted a decrease of quackery; in some cases the "doctor" had been put to rout entirely.

One dramatic story was that of the clean-up in Portland, Ore. The Social Hygiene Society of that city had been waiting to determine the best method of using the evidence they had accumulated against quacks there. Suddenly the op-

portunity came. A young man who had spent all he had on a certain "cure," and was in nowise better but always worse, entered the doctor's office, shot the doctor, the assistant and finally himself. This was too big a story to be suppressed even by papers that carried advertisements of this very quack.

Then the Social Hygiene Society called together some prominent citizens at a luncheon. The evidence was presented. The company resolved itself into a meeting which in personnel might almost have been a meeting of the Chamber of Commerce, organized a committee, and sent letters to every newspaper in the city, urging that they drop all ads of these fake "cures."

The Portland *Oregonian* had already weeded out its columns, and presently there remained in the entire state only one paper that failed to respond to the facts. The proprietor of that paper said he "wasn't in the business of safeguarding fools."

Not less vivid was the story of the more recent campaigns of the Chicago *Tribune*, reported in *THE SURVEY* for January 10.

"In New York," said Mr. Adams, "twenty years ago there was only one paper that refused ads of venereal cures [that was the *Evening Post*.] Today there is only one paper that will take them. That is the *Evening Telegram*."

Apparently it is in the press that greatest power over quackery is vested. A. C. Vandiver, counsel for the New York County Medical Society, had for his part in the program to answer the question, "What can be done with the venereal quack under the present law." He summarized his answer in two words: practically nothing.

There is at present in New York state no law against the advertising practi-

tioner who is a duly licensed and registered physician. A quack can be reached under the public health law if he practices under a name other than his own. But usually these quacks are really doctors, or in the instance of a corporation, the company employs doctors who use their own names in doing its work. The quack can be reached under the medical practice act and his license revoked for "fraud and deceit," or under the penal law for taking money under false pretenses.

The great need, Mr. Vandiver held, is for a stronger public health statute to define what shall constitute unprofessional conduct and to provide for the adequate enforcement of its terms.

PUBLIC SERVICE TRAINING AND THE UNIVERSITIES

WHAT SHOULD be the relation of the university to the state? Of the municipal university to the municipality? What is the nature of the public service now being rendered by the various types of universities? Should post-graduate students in universities be trained by doing things that need to be done, wherever the need is greatest? What should be the kind of service rendered by a national university? Why should a democracy have a trained public service? What can the university do for such training?

These are among the subjects on the program of the first national conference on universities and public service which has just been called by Mayor John Purroy Mitchel of New York city.

The committee on practical training for public service of the American Political Science Association is charged with the organization and management of the conference. This committee was created at the Boston (1912) meeting

of the association to examine places where laboratory work for graduate students in political science can be done; to recommend to faculties that graduate credit be given to such places; to use its best endeavors to obtain scholarships for this laboratory work, and to secure an endowment for building up a trained body of public servants, and to make, if possible, a system of records and efficiency standards for graduates doing practical work in political science.

The immediate purpose is to provide means for giving graduate students in political science opportunities for training by doing, under adequate supervision, things that need to be done by various governmental departments.

During its first year the committee made a study of present opportunities for practical training for public service. It showed in its report to the association, the wide range of opportunities, and extensive beginnings in utilizing them.

The committee began an investigation of agencies where practical training for public service may be had by post-graduate students. It has just about completed its investigation of bureaus of municipal research. It has been collecting information regarding legislative reference libraries and regarding one department of both state and national government. The material regarding bureaus of municipal research will be shortly submitted to the universities.

During the present year it is continuing its activities of the first year.

The following compose the committee: Charles McCarthy, chairman, Madison, Wis.; Albert Bushnell Hart, Harvard University; Benjamin F. Shambaugh, University of Iowa; William F. Willoughby, Princeton University, and Raymond G. Gettell, Trinity College.

HOW WILL THIS SIGHT INFLUENCE THE BOY?

Photograph of a gang of chained prisoners entering the penitentiary, from the annual report of the Wheeling, West Va., Associated Charities.



INDUSTRY

MUTUAL MISUNDERSTANDING OF EFFICIENCY EXPERTS AND LABOR MEN—BY JOHN A. FITCH

ONE FACT of surpassing importance stood out at the hearings before the Industrial Relations Commission last week in Washington—the fact that efficiency engineers and labor men misunderstand and distrust each other.

To be sure the efficiency men started off blithely with the assertion that they were working first of all for the welfare of the employe and that they believed heartily in collective bargaining—a position they have never taken publicly before. Under cross-examination, however, matters took on a different aspect. It became clear that however excellent mathematicians they may be, or however dexterous with the slide rule, they are not economists.

In fact, before the end of the hearings one could hardly avoid the feeling that labor understands the efficiency experts better than the experts understand labor. Which is unfortunate, considering everything, for what labor does understand about efficiency only increases its distrust, but what each doesn't understand about the other is just what each needs most of all to know.

Frederick W. Taylor, Harrington Emerson, H. L. Gantt, Carl G. Barth and other efficiency engineers appeared and explained their methods. Officers of the American Federation of Labor and of unions affiliated with it presented an unbroken line of opposition to the movement, and two interested onlookers or non-combatants appeared in the persons of Robert G. Valentine, formerly Indian commissioner, who has hung out his shingle in Boston as an "industrial counsellor," and Louis D. Brandeis.

Frederick W. Taylor opened the discussion for the efficiency men, and to his statement of the case nothing material was added by the others, except as one detail or another was emphasized the more, and as each revealed his personal attitude toward industrial relations.

Mr. Taylor laid down four principles as the basis of scientific management:

First, the reduction of rule-of-thumb knowledge to systems and scientific formulae.

Second, the scientific selection and development of every man in the shop, with the determination to make every man a better workman and a higher wage-earner.

Third, the bringing of scientific management and men together in a spirit of co-operation and friendliness, and

Fourth, an almost equal division of work between employer and employe.

He explained the fourth principle as involving such planning on the part of the employer, and furnishing such addi-

Probing the Causes of Unrest

II

The second of a series of interpretations of the hearings before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission by a staff representative of The Survey.



tional men as will relieve the worker of some of the details for which he is ordinarily held responsible.

The development of these principles, Mr. Taylor told the commission, will result in friendliness and co-operation between employer and employe, and the workman will be immeasurably better off. It will end industrial strife, he declared, because it involves a complete change in working relationships. The old ground of contention has been the division of the surplus that remains after the overhead charges have been paid. "Scientific management has shown that it is possible, through co-operation, to make this surplus so large that there will be no occasion to quarrel over the division," said Mr. Taylor.

Mr. Garretson of the commission asked what guarantee there would be that the employer wouldn't cut the wage rate and try to keep most of this surplus as before.

"No guarantee," was the reply. "But if he did, the scheme would go to smash. Production would fall off, costs go up, and the employer would have to come back to the high rate to save himself. But there is no insurance against the darn fool."

"Hasn't the darn fool been most prevalent in the past?" asked Mr. Garretson.

Mr. Taylor thought not.

"Is justice usually maintained?" persisted the inquisitor.

"Yes," said Mr. Taylor with energy. "In 999 times out of a thousand justice is done. If it were not so this would be a horrible world to live in."

In spite of this the representatives of organized labor were frankly suspicious and hostile. The thing most apparent in the opposition was the most human sort of feeling in the world. There is some-

thing about being timed by a smart young man with a stop-watch that seems humiliating. The whole attitude that seems to say, "My good fellow, we don't blame you for not being efficient; you don't know any better, but now we are going to teach you," is exasperating in the extreme. To be sure, this may not be a fair statement of the way the thing is done—tactful men wouldn't do it that way, of course. It may be, too, that the idea is more intolerable to the labor leader who doesn't work under the system than it is to the employe who does work under it. The efficiency men declared that wherever the system has been installed the men like it. But it was evident from the testimony that somehow the system has roused the bitter antagonism of the labor leaders, and it is essentially a class antagonism.

"We object to being reduced to a scientific formula," said one of the labor men, N. I. Alifas, president of that branch of the Association of Machinists to which machinists in government employ belong. "We object to this investigation to see just how much work we can stand it to perform, and then being required to do that much. We don't know when they will begin to make tests to see just how much food we can get along with and then base wages on that."

"If a husband, on leaving home in the morning doled out to his wife just the amounts of salt and flour and sugar she could use during the day, instead of leaving it to her judgment she would think he was getting pretty close-fisted. In the same way we resent being asked to explain just what we did with the last fifteen seconds."

So it was with the other labor men. There was a temperamental hostility to the movement and in addition the frankly expressed belief that what it really means is a new form of speeding up. John F. Tobin of the Boot and Shoe Workers' Union and James Duncan of the Granite Cutters' Union both insisted that no form of scientific management could beat the kind of efficiency now being practiced by their members. To increase production beyond what it is would be more than the workers could endure.

Back of it all was a deeper motive, however, and that was the feeling that scientific management is hostile to unions. The efficiency men had blamed the unions for not studying their methods and trying to co-operate. But the labor men seemed to think there is another side to it.

"If the experts believe in collective bargaining as they claim," said A. J. Berres, of the Machinists' Union, "it is peculiar that they have never knocked at the door of labor conventions and asked for an opportunity to explain their system. If they are so solicitous for the

welfare of labor and they believe that scientific management is going to bring on the millennium, why don't they go out of their way to explain it? They never have gone before even a local body to my knowledge."

It was just at this point that the efficiency men were most unsatisfactory. For the first time they announced themselves as favoring organization and collective bargaining on the part of the workman. But it was apparent that they had not grown fully accustomed to their new clothes. Charles W. Mixter, a "time study man" from New Haven, believes in collective bargaining after the efficiency system has been installed, and has been running a few years—not when it is being installed.

The expert has his hands full convincing the foreman, he said. "If he had to convert the men, too, the thing would be impossible." Unions die out under scientific management, however, he declared. The advantages under that system are so much greater than the union can get that the men do not feel the need of a union. The unions are therefore jealous. "The efficiency man and the labor leader are like rival tradesmen, trying to dispose of the same kind of wares—shorter hours, higher wages, better conditions."

Carl G. Barth of Philadelphia would require the labor leaders to study scientific management a few years before he would give them a voice.

Robert G. Valentine and Louis D. Brandeis both spoke against this idea. "The first essential is democracy," said Mr. Valentine. "After that, though a close second, comes the best way of doing things. The individual workman should not only participate in the installation of scientific management, but he should do so as a part of a union. I believe in collective bargaining because I prefer confusion to catastrophe. There is no benevolent despot who can make the world as it should be at a stroke."

Mr. Brandeis stated that without organization, labor is not safe. "I wouldn't depend on the good will of the employer," he said. But, with organization, he declared that there is nothing in scientific management that does not accord with the interests of labor.

Mr. Brandeis and Mr. Valentine are not efficiency engineers, however, and we shall have to get our ideas as to just what scientific management means from the men who are installing it.

Scientific management, it becomes evident, must be examined from two points of view. As a scheme for efficient production the test must be that of the accountant, the engineer and the manager. So far it is a business proposition.

But the efficiency experts now tell us that it is also a scheme for harmonizing the differences between capital and labor. That makes it the concern of the social economist. Not all the philosophies together have been able so far to determine exactly what justice is. Neither have they found a way by which justice—if it could be found—might be enforced.

It may be, then, that the labor leaders are not so far astray when they ask the efficiency men to give them some assur-

ance that under their new scheme the rate of payment will not be cut. The earning of a bonus by accomplishing a definite piece of work in a given time looks to the labor man very much like the old piece rate which, as the engineers admitted, was cut every time the workers seemed to be making too much.

How can scientific management guard against that? The answer that the efficiency men gave, that to cut the rate would be unscientific, can hardly be considered sufficient. Mr. Taylor may be perfectly sure that only a fool would cut it and that most employers are not fools and that justice is done 999 times out of a thousand. But a brother expert stated in private conversation that while it was the act of an idiot to slash the rate, most employers are idiots.

If the second estimate should happen to be correct instead of the first, what assurance would the working man have? One of the engineers frankly stated on the stand: "Of course, a rate may be so fixed as to enable a man to earn too much."

Sanford E. Thompson of Newton Highlands, Mass., pointed out that those employers who have adopted scientific management are able to share the benefits derived from it with both consumers and employes in the form of lower prices and higher wages. This is for the simple reason that their costs are so much lower than their competitors, that they can undersell them and get a larger market.

Professor Commons, of the commission, wanted to know how the manufacturer would be able to continue to share the rewards accruing from this form of management when the science has become universal and all the plants in a given industry are operated scientifically. Having come to that point, the only way by which they could compete with each other through underselling would seem to be by cutting the bonus or the base rate of payment. In the last analysis, he inquired, can scientific management do anything but postpone the final contest that must come between capital and labor over base rate, bonus and task?

Mr. Thompson's reply was that there would be no contest, if by contest anything approaching war is meant. There will be a peaceful arrangement, he thought, although he had not given deep study to that side of the question.

But if this peaceful contest is to come, Professor Commons inquired, will there not be a necessity for the organization of the workers before the final contest? Is it not necessary to have fundamental principles in mind from the beginning?

"We haven't come to that yet," said Mr. Thompson: "we mustn't cross bridges before we get to them."

And that in essence was the answer made by Mr. Taylor and the others to a similar line of questions. It does not seem to be a satisfactory answer. It would probably be asking too much of the efficiency men to require them to be economists as well as engineers. But if they are coming forward with a proposal which they say will end a fundamental economic conflict, it is not too much to ask that they face the plain facts of

the situation so that their program, when it comes to the test, shall not fail.

In the absence of that, it is very difficult to see how labor can safely place its interests in their hands. As was pointed out at the beginning, the labor man in his refusal to do that has seemed to understand the experts a little better than the experts have understood him. The efficiency men seem to view the suspicion of the workers with a certain impatience as if it were due to stupidity.

What the labor men do not seem to understand about the efficiency men, however, is that there can be an efficiency which, properly regulated, can bring large benefits to them as well as to their employers. They cannot afford to remain in ignorance of this movement which on the side of practical economies in human effort, leaving problems of distribution out of account, does seem to be worthy of all respect and confidence.

All in all, it was a great week in Washington, and the outcome must inevitably be a better understanding on the part of the representatives of labor and the advocates of scientific management as well. But one further conclusion is inescapable. The problem is too big and too fundamental to be studied in public through the medium of cross examination on the witness-stand. It is certain, in the first place, that absolute frankness will not be possible under such circumstances and, in the second place, that the subject is too difficult for examination by that method. The testimony will not present the subject in its true perspective. The commission, however, has done a service in bringing the matter into the open and will undoubtedly pursue it further through the employment of competent experts.

INCREASE OF COAL MINE FATALITIES IN 1913

THERE WERE 2,785 men killed in the coal mines of the United States during 1913, according to a report issued by the United States Bureau of Mines.

This is an increase of 425 deaths over 1912 and gives a fatality rate of 3.82 in every thousand men employed as compared with 3.27 in 1912. In 1913 there were 6,000 more men employed and the increase in production was between 30,000,000 and 40,000,000 tons. Thus there was an increase of 18 per cent in fatal accidents, with an increase of only about 8 per cent in coal production.

Joseph A. Holmes, director of this bureau, is quoted as saying that little comfort is to be found in the suggestion that this increase may in part be accounted for by the occurrence during 1913 of four large mine explosions. While the total deaths from mine explosions was 213 greater in 1913 than in 1912, the number of explosions in which more than five were killed was only seven as compared with ten explosions in 1912.

The four biggest explosions of the year and the number of deaths at each were: April 23, Cincinnati mine, Finleyville, Pa., 96; October 22, Stag Canon mine No. 2, Dawson, N. M., 263; November 18, Acton mine No. 2, Acton, Ala., 24, and December 16, Vulcan mine, Newcastle, Colo., 37.

CHURCH and COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

TANNENBAUM IN THE LARGE—BY JOHN HAYNES HOLMES, CHURCH OF THE MESSIAH, NEW YORK CITY

JUST WHAT Tannenbaum intended to accomplish by his spectacular invasion of the churches of New York with the "army" of the unemployed, seems still to be doubtful after weeks of discussion. As to what he actually *did* accomplish, there is nothing doubtful whatsoever.

He placed stories of his activities day after day on the front pages of the newspapers—set every editor in the city jabbering in his sanctum like a magpie in his cage—had every minister, like every settler in the Indian massacre days, trembling at the fall of night lest his church be the next one selected for assault—and forced ninety millions of people in the United States to know that there is a question of the unemployed, and to ask what can be done about it.

Most people think Tannenbaum a criminal; the rest probably write him down a fool. But however this may be, he at least did more to start people thinking all at once and hard upon one very immediate and hard problem than anybody else of whom I know. If this be crime or folly, he may well be content to have men make the most of it!

As to the specific challenge which Tannenbaum hurled at the churches, I am very clear in my own mind. Thus, I believe that, however unworthy his motives or rash his methods, this boy did a right thing in bringing the helpless and hopeless to the churches' doors. Indeed, although several weeks have passed since these dramatic events took place, I have not yet recovered from my amazement that anybody should be ready to assert that the churches are not properly to be turned to by those who find or even think themselves in distress.

Are the poor and wretched to understand that the churches are not ready to hear their cries and serve their needs? Has it actually come to the point that men are to be taught that the churches are the last places to go to for help, and not the first? Must saloons, gambling dens, even gutters, all be tried, before appeal is made to churches? Or shall we give precedence only to the Municipal Lodging House and its overflow piers and ferry-boats? For myself, I answer No! to all of these specifications, and claim rightful primacy for the church of God in the work of ministering to the outcast and friendless among God's children.

And as Tannenbaum and his men did the right thing in appealing to the churches, so also I believe that St. George's, St. Mark's, St. Paul's, the Labor Temple, and the Church of the Messiah, as contrasted with St. Alphonsus's alone,

did the right thing in answering their request according to their wisdom and to the extent of their ability. I find my authority for this judgment first, in Christianity, as witness the words of its founder, "Give to him that asketh thee"; and second, in the fundamentals of modern scientific charity, as witness the words of its leading exponent, Edward T. Devine: "The only thing that we are warranted in taking for granted when a family asks for assistance is that they believe themselves to be in need of assistance. They may be right or wrong about the fact; they may have very imperfect notions as to where their assistance should come from, if they do require it; they may be totally unable to give any clear and consistent account of the reasons why they require it. If, however, they are not mistaken about the fact, and have come to an appropriate place to ask for it, it is fair and reasonable that nothing whatever should be taken for granted except the need which has been revealed by the application."

These men may have been as worthless as you please. I myself saw them at close range in my own church and found them only helpless. But the churches had no right to assume anything as true except the need for aid expressed by the application, nor act upon any other supposition as to the true facts involved. That these churches were wise in the kind of help they gave, is a fair question for argument. But that they were true to the best tradi-

tions and highest ideals in receiving the men and helping them as best they could at short notice, is, to my mind, beyond dispute.

And yet, as I happen to know on good authority, of two hundred ministers directly consulted on these two points, less than 10 per cent expressed the opinion here laid down!

So far as I have been able to gather, from the information at my disposal, the opposition to this startling movement is based upon two facts: first, that the men were organized and voiced their appeals through leaders; and second, that the call for help was not so much a request as a demand. I venture to say that no minister, either Catholic or Protestant, would refuse to hear the appeal of any single man who might come knocking at his church door, or to give such aid to such a person as might seem practicable and wise. But when not one man alone but two hundred men together did the knocking, and spoke not their desire but their right to be given assistance, the situation seemed suddenly to change.

Thus, one clergyman, asked what he would do if the "army" came to him, replied that he would treat "this hold-up like any other hold-up." The rector of All Saints, visited one night by the men, replied (according to the newspapers) that he would receive them if they came singly one by one, but not if they remained together under organized leadership. And the priests of St. Alphonsus's turned the men over to the police and charged them with rioting and disorder.

Now here, to my mind, is a strikingly impressive situation. What do we have here, after all, but the appearance, on another stage, of that same battle, which was inaugurated by the trade unions years ago, for the right to organize and to deal with employers on the basis not of charity requested but of justice demanded? When a minister is willing to deal with one man as an individual but not with two hundred men as an organization, and to listen to appeals for charitable relief in the single case but not to formulated demands for just conditions of life and labor for the general group, what is he doing but going through the same performance as the employer who refuses to recognize the union or to consider a formal program for new and better relations between himself and his men?

It is the same situation all over again on another plane of experience—and therefore the same larger problem of social justice calling for settlement! These church invasions constitute something more than a mere flash in the pan, a merely clever ruse of labor agitators, a merely sporadic outburst of desperate men. Involved in it, of course, are such



Phil Porter in Fargo, N. D. News

"MARTYR THE HAND RAISED TO PREACH A NEW GOSPEL AND A THOUSAND HANDS WILL TAKE ITS PLACE"

elements as love of excitement, aimless "follow-the-leader," the irrepressible gang-spirit, and so on. But what we have at bottom is only the newest extension of that great awakening of the people to self-consciousness which was long ago made manifest in higher and more restricted sections of the social field.

Down, down, to the very lowest and darkest levels, the light is penetrating; and here, among the most forlorn and outcast of mankind, the sense of injustice is being stirred and the power of united action being learned. And woe to the church or to any other social institution, if, in the face of this vague and brutal turmoil of the spirit which is ever generated by the sudden discovery of wrongs long endured and rights long denied, it takes refuge in any such hoary subterfuge as that of dealing with individuals as contrasted with organizations, or plants itself in the seat of the scornful by insisting upon requests for charity as contrasted with demands for justice!

What matters it whether one man asks for help alone, or a hundred men ask together? What matters it, if the request is spoken in the whining tone of the beggar, the wailing cadence of the sufferer, or the mad outcry of the rebel? The church is rightly concerned with nothing but need, and where need exists, the church must act. Like the God whom it pretends to worship, it must find what is sought of men, give what is asked by men, and open the portal when men knock!

But what church, or group of churches, is there which has the means, even if it has the will, to meet such a problem as is presented from this viewpoint? The men who organized the campaign of invasion numbered at most a few hundreds, and the churches which opened their doors, met the needs of this little group for but a few nights. Behind the "army" stand tens of thousands of unemployed equally deserving of aid, and equally entitled to an answer if they could organize and speak together their agony and protest.

It is thus that the churches are confronted here by a problem infinitely bigger than they can handle,—a problem so

big, indeed, that no institution short of society itself can hope to cope with it! The plight of the churches, when Tannenbaum's "army" came knocking at their gates, is typical not of their weakness, but of the weakness of all the ways and means we have today, in this twentieth century civilization of ours, for dealing with this stupendous wrong. All we are fitted to do at present is to give, through our churches, charity societies, and municipal agencies, such food to the hungry, clothing to the naked, and shelter to the homeless as we can, while hoping fervently for the return of "good times" and the resulting ebb of the tide of destitution.

In the matter of unemployment, as in the matter of sickness, old age, and until very recently industrial accidents, we have not yet advanced beyond the kindly sentiment of old-fashioned individualized charity to the reasoned efficiency of modern social science. Still are we giving doles, investigating cases, helping separate individuals and families, instead of stopping the evil at its source, which is nothing short of the industrial system itself, and of meanwhile establishing national agencies for the care of those who are the victims of the unjust social process.

Unemployment, like every other great social wrong, is a problem to be handled by society as it is a problem created by society. The churches, like every other private agency, are only swamped by the volume of its sweeping flood. But this very fact indicates the more clearly the duty of the churches to raise the cry of alarm and stir society to act. Here is the true work of the church which would truly serve our civilization in this hour of its need. This church must help the helpless, lift the fallen, save the lost, as always. But more than this today—it must speak the social message, and thus convict men of their sin; and initiate the work of social reconstruction, and thus show men the way of salvation.

This, as I see it, is the larger aspect of Tannenbaum's invasion,—a society sick unto death! This is the larger aspect of the church's response—the constructive ministry of healing!

pose was quite worthy of special notice. One of the leaders present stated that it reminded one of an old-time revival with the right kind of sinners present. No less noticeable and sometimes very interesting was the diversity of views expressed by those whose views shaded off from the merely palliative to the more radical methods of dealing with social ills.

The themes for discussion included: A Weekly Rest Day and National Well Being; The Canadian Indians and Their Relation to Canada; The Church and Industrial Life; Child Welfare; The Problems of the City; The Problem of the Country; Commercialized Vice and the White Slave Traffic; Immigration, Political Purity, Temperance; Gambling, and Crime and the Criminal.

For the consideration of these themes some of the most eminent men in Canada came together: the Duke of Connaught, Canada's governor general, Premier of Canada R. L. Borden; Sir Wilfred Laurier, liberal leader of the House of Commons; and the mayor of Ottawa all brought greetings and expressed themselves on the development of society from the humanitarian standpoint. Addresses were given by a number of members of the Canadian cabinet, city aldermen, professors in the universities, general superintendents of the Methodist church, bishops of the church of England, Socialists, labor men, slum workers, doctors, lawyers, farmers and others.

A statement of the attitude of the Social Service Council of Canada was expressed on the program as follows:

THE SOCIAL SERVICE COUNCIL BELIEVES

THAT RIGHTEOUSNESS CAN BE REALIZED IN THE COMPLEX CONDITIONS OF MODERN LIFE ONLY THROUGH THE APPLICATION TO ALL HUMAN AFFAIRS OF THE PRINCIPLES OF THE KINGDOM OF GOD.

DECLARES

FOR THE APPLICATION OF CHRISTIAN PRINCIPLES TO THE OPERATIONS OF INDUSTRIAL ASSOCIATIONS WHETHER OF LABOR OR OF CAPITAL.

FOR A MORE EQUITABLE DISTRIBUTION OF WEALTH.

FOR THE ABOLITION OF POVERTY.

FOR THE PROTECTION OF CHILDHOOD.

FOR THE SAFEGUARDING OF THE PHYSICAL AND MORAL HEALTH OF WOMEN IN INDUSTRIAL LIFE.

FOR THE ADEQUATE PROTECTION OF WORKING PEOPLE IN CASE OF INDUSTRIAL ACCIDENTS AND OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES.

FOR THE SUNDAY REST FOR EVERY WORKER.

FOR CONCILIATION AND ARBITRATION IN INDUSTRIAL DISPUTES.

FOR PROPER HOUSING.

FOR THE ADEQUATE CARE OF DEPENDENT AND DEFECTIVE PERSONS.

FOR THE RECLAMATION OF CRIMINALS.

FOR WHOLESOME RECREATION.

FOR THE PROTECTION OF SOCIETY AGAINST CONTAGIOUS DISEASES.

FOR INTERNATIONAL PEACE.

Two distinguished guests from the United States were among the speakers, adding fuel to the fire and helping by their inspiring messages to kindle the glow of a common brotherhood. Charles Stelzle, consulting sociologist of New York, spoke on Labor Problems, and Prof. Graham Taylor of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy and THE SURVEY, dealt with the Problems of the City and Training for Social Service.

On such themes involving issues so vital, with representatives of every shade of opinion and almost every method of social betterment, the unanimity of spirit and the domination of the idea of the Kingdom of God was quite

THE FIRST SOCIAL SERVICE CONGRESS OF CANADA —BY HUGH DOBSON

THE FIRST congress of its kind to be held in Canada was most representative, including delegates from the federal Parliament, a number of the provincial parliaments, municipalities, the Trades and Labor Congress, the Dominion Grange and Farmers' Association, the Canadian Purity Association, the Church of England, Presbyterian, Congregational, Methodist and Baptist Churches, the Salvation Army and the Evangelical Association. The object of the congress was "to arouse interest and enlist all Canadians in behalf of social righteousness with the purpose of improving social, economic, and ethical conditions in Canada."

Representing such diverse elements as the delegates did in the national life of Canada, the unity of feeling and pur-

remarkable. This first social service congress in Canada marks a new epoch of more constructive society building than has hitherto prevailed.

The value of the congress was enhanced by the fact that the House of Commons was in session, in the same city at the same time, and by the fact that many of the subjects were under discussion in the Parliament of Canada coincidentally with their presentation at the congress.

Several resolutions were passed by the congress which were later presented to the dominion government calling upon Parliament:

To appoint a royal commission to investigate and make a report on the coal miners' strike on Vancouver Island;

To prevent the manufacture, importation, and sale of cigarettes in Canada;

To establish free employment bureaux;

To appoint a royal commission to investigate the unemployment problem;

To enact a policy that will raise the Indians to a level of citizenship;

A CHURCH ORGANIZATION TO WORK FOR SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL WELFARE

THE RELIGIOUS Citizenship League, "national, non-partisan, non-sectarian," is the latest advance of the churches in social reform. It is a distinct advance, too radical for some church people, but already winning the support of a surprising number of people of various schools of ecclesiastical and economic thought.

This is what the league aims at: To get the religious people to stand together for definite measures. The considerations at the basis of the league are stated as follows:

"1. A large share of our modern social problems cannot be worked out on a personal, parochial, denominational, or other sectarian basis. We are being forced to realize that we are all one.

"2. The forces which make for righteousness in the community are more in number and far mightier in power than the forces for evil. Only the forces for righteousness must act, and must act together.

"3. If we have bad laws, poor enforcement, corrupt legislation, it is largely by the consent of the forces for good through indifference, apathy or lack of unity.

"4. This united effort must be applied to concrete legislative measures. Legislation can by no means do all; yet legislation is the chief way by which the will of the whole community can be expressed. The churches of the land, through their Federal Council, and other bodies have united upon many important principles; but principles unapplied solve no problems. The question is, Can the various forces now unite for measures? To develop such concerted

To adopt a closer inspection of immigrants from southern Europe;

To create a department of child welfare, to give pensions to mothers;

To initiate an old-age pension scheme; and

To assist the extension of co-operative societies.

The congress also went on record as being in favor of woman suffrage, labor unions, total abstinence, and social survey work.

It seems manifest that the churches in Canada give social service its rightful place, and recognize that religion is concerned with all that is in life—industry, commerce, housing, sanitation, politics. One result of the congress is the decision of the Social Service Council of Canada to establish a bureau of surveys and exhibits similar to that of the Russell Sage Foundation.

The feeling prevailed at the close of the congress that though there was much diversity of opinion and a rich variety of methods backed by very strong convictions, that such a gathering was a promise of mighty changes that will be wrought out in Canada through its inspiration.

action is the aim of the Religious Citizenship League."

The league proposes to practise what it preaches by having its officers and its program of measures adopted each year by a referendum vote of the members of the league. This will make the league a vital thing, and bring its platform each year up to date. It is not necessary that every member accept each plank in the platform, provided that he or she is in sympathy with the objects of the league and is willing to work for those measures which the majority vote for.

The league will use *The Gospel of the Kingdom*, published by the American Institute of Social Service. This magazine will be devoted this year to a study of the measures adopted by the league, and as the lessons it publishes now have a circulation of 10,000, besides reaching 30,000 more as published in the *Homiletic Review*, it will give the league a large constituency.

The dues of the league are \$1 per year, and this will entitle each member to the magazine.

Responses to the efforts of the league have already come from all portions of the land and from all churches, and from some of no church.

The league, while adopting broad aims, has voted to concentrate its immediate efforts on the problem of unemployment, so that it is already doing a large educational work and getting down to immediate practical efforts.

It is enrolling church people interested in unemployment throughout New York state, and will then work in other states. The league believes that very little can be done by starting new employment bureaux but that a system of free employment bureaux through the state, with connections in every town,

would be effective. This connection can be made, the league states, through the churches. If every church in the state had an employment bureau connected with the state bureaux, then a great many of the unemployed could be placed in the country.

For the unemployable, the league advocates state farms or colonies, on an adequate scale. A New York industrial farm has been voted, but without sufficient appropriations. The league desires, therefore, a state-wide organization to work for a vote of sufficient appropriations. Those interested should send their names to the secretary, W. D. P. Bliss, 80 Bible House, New York.

RELIGIOUS VALUATION OF ALMSHOUSE WORKERS

OSCAR LEONARD, secretary of the Missouri State Conference of Charities and Correction, in these telling words to the Association of Infirmary Officials magnified their office by placing a distinctly religious value upon them:

"I wish to tell you that you are integral parts of the conference. I understand that some of you have an idea that you are of no importance as an organization and that your jobs are small, insignificant jobs. Let me assure you that the Association of Infirmary Officials is an important part of the conference. All instruments in a large orchestra are necessary. If any instrument be missing the music would be faulty. The same applies in social work.

"Now as to your own jobs. I know that you are hidden away in corners of the state where you seem to be forgotten. I know that your wives work hard to help care for the poor and decrepit. I know that you neither expect nor receive thanks. Gratitude in social service is a rare thing. I know that kicks are more frequent. I know that you are often heartsore and ready to give up. I am one of you and I know my problems. But our work is done not for gratitude nor is it done for money. There is precious little money in social service work for the social worker. We do it because we wish to serve and serve well.

"Yours is the most difficult job, too. You are handling the old, decrepit, feeble-minded. Some of them have had to come to you because of their early transgressions. Some seem bereft of the divine spark which is hidden somewhere in each human breast. They are a helpless, hopeless lot, for the most part, these poor old men and women you are handling. It takes a great deal of optimism, a great deal of deep love and quite a bit of superhuman effort, to serve them without becoming discouraged.

"Do not allow yourselves to despair. Do not allow anyone to tell you that your work is sordid and uninteresting. It is you who make the job. The job does not make you. As you serve these poor men and women remember that a Hebrew prophet of old, whom you worship, said: 'Inasmuch as ye have done it unto one of the least of these my brethren, ye have done it unto me.'

The Trend of Things

PROFESSOR ROSS discusses The Celtic Tide in the latest of his series on immigration in the *Century* (April). Meanwhile, the pro-immigrationists have a champion in Mary Antin who has begun a series in the *American Magazine* on They Who Knock at Our Gates. Her point of view is well illustrated by the April instalment, in which she compares the "new immigration" with the old, going back to the Pilgrim Fathers as the original immigrants:

The predominant virtue of the Pilgrims was idealism. The things of the spirit were more to them than the things of the flesh. May we say the like of our present immigrants? Of very many of them yes; a thousand times yes. Of the 8,213,000 foreigners landed between the years 1890 and 1900, 930,000 were of that race which for nineteen centuries has sacrificed its flesh in the service of the spirit. It takes a hundred times as much steadfastness and endurance for a Russian Jew of today to remain a Jew as it took for an English Protestant in the seventeenth century to defy the Established Church.

If it was a merit in 1620 to flee from religious persecution, and in 1776 to fight against political oppression, then many of the Russian refugees of today are a little ahead of the "Mayflower" troop, because they have in their own lifetime sustained the double ordeal of fight and flight, with all their attendant risks and shocks

* * *

MARY ANTIN compares the immigrant to the Pilgrim in his attitude toward civic affairs and education, his desire to build up a home, his virility, shown "by the fact that the great majority of them make good," and his value to the nation. "They supply the animal strength and primitive patience that are at the bottom of our civilization." She continues:

"In the whole catalog of sins with which the modern immigrant is charged, it is not easy to find one in which we Americans are not partners—we who can make and unmake our world by means of the ballot.

Oh, that the American people would learn where their enemies lurk! Not the immigrant is ruining our country, but the cheap politicians who try to make the immigrant the scapegoat for all the sins of untrammelled capitalism—these and their masters."

She concludes:

"From all this does it follow that we should let down the bars and dispense with the guard at Ellis Island? Only in so far as the policy of restriction is based on the theory that the present immigration is derived from the scum of humanity. But the immigrants may be desirable, and immigration undesirable. If statecraft bids us lock the gate, and our national code of ethics ratifies the order lock it we must, but we need not call names through the keyhole.

Mount guard in the name of the Re-

public, if the health of the Republic requires it, but let no such order be issued until her statesmen and philosophers and patriots have consulted together. Above all, let the voice of prejudice be stilled, let not self-interest chew the cud of envy in full sight of the nation, and let no syllable of willful defamation mar the oracles of state. For those who are excluded when our bars are down are exiles from Egypt, whose feet stumble in the desert of political and social slavery, whose hearts hunger for the bread of freedom. The ghost of the "Mayflower" pilots every immigrant ship, and Ellis Island is another name for Plymouth Rock."

* * *

THE New York World Almanac and Encyclopedia for 1912 gives a table showing the commonest surnames at the present time in England and Wales, Scotland and Ireland, arranged in the order of their frequency, according to a compilation made by the London *Pall Mall Gazette*, also the fifty commonest names in the cities of New York, Chicago, Philadelphia and Boston specially compiled for the World Almanac.

With this and Who's Who in America to work from, Frederick Adams Woods of the Massachusetts Institute of Technology has made a study of The Racial Origin of Successful Americans (published in the *Popular Science Monthly*). Admission to Who's Who depends either on "special prominence in creditable lines of effort," or on official position, civil, military, etc. Dr. Woods gives in detail statistics for the most frequent names in four cities. Granting that name is not always a correct indication of nationality and that some immigrants anglicize their names, he summarizes as follows:

In the four leading American cities, New York, Chicago, Philadelphia and Boston, it is safe to say that, at the present time, those of English and Scotch ancestry are distinctly in possession of the leading positions at least from the standpoint of being widely known, and that, in proportion to their number, the Anglo-Saxons are from 3 to 10 times as likely as are the other races to achieve positions of national distinction. The cities contain most of the foreign elements. The cities are also the concentration points for most types of ability. They are also the breeding grounds of future leaders. Therefore this study of the 4 cities ought to suffice to throw light on a number of important questions.

* * *

RAY STANNARD BAKER in Seeing America, this month, writes of The New Pioneering and Its Heroes (*American Magazine*). Despite the fact that there is a large stretch of wilderness in the Middle West that is just being developed, Mr. Baker refers not so much to these latter-day settlers as to the pioneers who are open-

ing a new era in farming, by conservation of the land.

This is the movement which is so interesting to the visitor in the West—though it is going on also in the South and East. Men of vision have looked upon this new wilderness and found it wonderful with promise. Seventy years ago the cry that thrilled Americans was "Westward, Ho!" It developed poetry, songs, a literature of its own. It had its own heroes: Daniel Boone, Davy Crockett and John C. Frémont. It attracted the flower of youth and captured the imagination of the whole land. Well, a new cry is now arising that is likely to be as persuasive as that older one. It, too, has a thrill in it; it, too, is developing its own songs—and its own heroes. It might be called, "Inward, Ho!" for that it rouses men to use the powers within them, or it might be called "Downward, Ho!" for that it asks men to look for the miracle of adventure, for the joys and hardships of pioneering, not to the West, nor the South, nor the North, but into the common soil on which they stand. One of its favorite cries, though it expresses only one phase of a vast movement, is "Back to the Land!"

* * *

THIS month sees the conclusion of the story of one of these western pioneers—a woman homesteader in Wyoming—in Letters of a Woman Homesteader (*Atlantic*). Left a widow with a two-year-old daughter and no means of support, she tried, first, working by the day, then went to Wyoming as housekeeper for a Scotch homesteader whom she afterward married. The letters were written to a former employer in Denver and reveal the frontier as a place of adventure where a wonderful spirit of brotherhood keeps life wholesome and happy in these far spaces.

Besides this story of an American pioneer, two notable autobiographies have been running in the magazines, the past winter—those of Abraham Mitrie Rihbany, just ended, in the *Atlantic*, and of S. S. McClure in *McClure's*. Whether it is the penniless Syrian immigrant from the shadow of Mt. Lebanon, or the Irish immigrant boy entering school in the third preparatory year with a determination to go through college and fifteen cents in his pockets, it is the same story of ideals and aspirations, of struggle and privation, and finally of success. Here are two of the "old immigration" who have "made good."

* * *

A TEACHER engaged in social settlement work was chatting at the settlement center one afternoon with a number of her small Polish and Hebrew charges, says *Harper's Magazine*. One youngster proudly announced:

"We gott new brudder to our house today!"

"You have!" exclaimed the teacher. "Where did you get him?"

"Oh, Dr. Goldberg fetched him," asserted the youth, with a knowing look on his face.

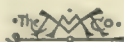
At this juncture a Polish lad (one of a family of ten) eagerly broke into the conversation: "Teacher!" he cried, "we take of him, too!"

BOOK REVIEWS

ROUND ABOUT A POUND A WEEK

By Mrs. Pember Reeves. The Macmillan Company. 231 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

Family Budgets of English Working Men



This latest contribution to the study of the cost of living may be recommended quite as much for its apt phrases, its power of portraying the homely charm of these English workingmen's homes, as for its unpretentious but painstaking presentation of individual family bud-

gets.

A committee of the Fabian Women's Group in London has been studying the effect on both mother and child of sufficient nourishment during the periods immediately preceding and following the child's birth. The thirty-five families chosen for the experiment were visited for about three months before the birth of the child and until it was a year old. As part of the investigation the women were asked to keep a budget of expenditures and on these figures and the intimate knowledge gained by frequent visits this book is based.

To the American reader the standard of living seems more limited though not necessarily lower than that of workingmen here. These families whose expenditures are "round about a pound a week," we are repeatedly assured, are not the poorest people of the district. "They are respectable men in full work at a more or less top wage, young, with families still increasing, and they will be lucky if they are never worse off than they are now." "Dreadfully decent" is the phrase which characterizes their lives and their homes. Throughout the budgets are evidences of thrift and foresight; instead of our way of mortgaging the future by buying on the installment plan there are contributions of 6 d or 1 s to coal clubs, boot clubs, even to stocking clubs, to provide for these necessities which cannot possibly be bought out of any single week's income.

The food expenditures, too, indicate meager living. For breakfast and tea there is tea and bread spread with jam, though for the husband there is as "reluctant to his tea" a bit of bacon or fish. Is it peculiarly British, this careful provision of an extra for the man, in which the family does not presume to share? A joint for Sunday which lasts half the week and perhaps a mid-week stew of "a pound of pieces" is all the meat provided. That the situation cannot be remedied by instructing wives in household management is the theme of the chapters on Buying, Thrift, Mother's

Days. There is the illuminating incident of the mother who was advised to give her family cheap and nourishing porridge. But, alas, there is only an old kettle to which the porridge sticks and it is hard to keep stirring when there are a baby and an "ex-baby" to care for and there is neither milk nor sugar to make it palatable. "And my young man 'e says ef you gives me that stinkin' mess I'll throw it at yer."

The book can be surely recommended to all who are trying in model flats or cooking classes or house visiting to help women meet their problems. It is a word picture of the hopes with which the households are started, the ambitions which live on in spite of discouragements, the rigid economies, the dull monotony and loneliness which is the share in life of these women.

The conclusion is a sober one, that the children in these and thousands of other homes are undernourished because of inadequate income and not because of lack of skill in household management. The solutions proposed are the further extension of minimum wage laws or, if wages are still insufficient, the provision of adequate nourishment for the children of the state through public guardians whose chief concern is to be the well being of the children of the nation. There is much that is suggestive for us in the description of conditions in workingmen's homes, even though we are not willing to admit in this country so total a failure of our industrial system as is implied in this second proposal.

MARGARET F. BYINGTON.

THREE LORDS OF DESTINY

By Samuel McChord Crothers. Houghton Mifflin Co. 129 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.09.

The Fatalistic Doctrine



With each great advance in science come new or revised theories of existence. Old boundaries of knowledge and of action are thrown down or passed over. But new limits appear which are felt to be even more inevitable.

There are certain problems of human existence which continually recur. They seem new to those who propound them but they seem new only because they are newly expressed. Among them is the age-long conflict between free will and necessity.

Dr. Crothers' three lectures on Destiny face the fatalistic doctrine bravely. He states it as strongly as any of its professed adherents: "To the fatalist earth is a prison house and we are cap-

tives condemned to life imprisonment. Knowledge is only the knowledge of our bars . . . and walls. . . . We are acted upon but we do not truly act. We originate nothing; we change nothing."

"At some time or other, every one must face the fatalistic conception of life and hear the old refrain 'Vanity of vanities, all is vanity'! But it makes a great difference whether we recognize this as a kind of thought from which mankind has been slowly emerging or as the sad, inevitable conclusion toward which all severe thinking tends."

"Of course, man seems to be the helpless creature of circumstances which are beyond his own control. That seems evident enough at the first comprehensive glance at his environment. Every glimpse which we have of the working of the primitive mind reveals the mingling of fear and apathy. Above the passions of angry men and angry gods is the impassive Fate against which there is no contending."

But the writer continues: "The great significance of human history is that we have been slowly emerging from the fatalistic habit of mind. The doctrine of the futility of effort, once universal, has not prevented effort being made. And that portion of mankind which has made the most determined and conscious effort, has come to believe in itself and to claim the lordship of the earth. Out of the accumulations of human endeavors there has grown a great human faith which characterizes the progressive portion of the race."

Mr. Crothers tells us that this Faith, which is Courage, is one of the Three Lords of Destiny, the other two being Skill (or Efficiency) and Love. He says of these three, "We are not dealing with a metaphysical theory, but are choosing a way of life."

His definition of Faith as Courage is the finest passage in the book: "Faith may be conceived of as a kind of courage or as a kind of knowledge. In the great texts of the New Testament in its praise, it is clearly conceived of as a kind of courage. It is that which conquers the fear of the darkness. It deals boldly and aggressively with the uncertain. . . . By faith men chose to live the life of pilgrims and strangers. . . . Obeying this inner impulse they went through fire and flood and put to flight the armies of aliens."

The great words of religion—Repentance, Forgiveness, Renunciation, Worship—are defined in terms of courage, and the lecture on courage ends with this fine paragraph:

"To one who has felt himself to be a prisoner of Fate the liberating moment comes when he turns from the uncertainties of the outward world to something which he discovers within himself.

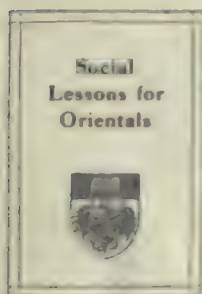
He feels a spiritual impulse and dares to trust it. He has seen a great light; he resolves to follow it. Whither it will lead him he, as yet, knows not. He will take the risks. In that choice is his first experience of freedom."

It goes without saying that the delightful humor which irradiates the essays Dr. Crothers writes for the *Atlantic Monthly* and publishes in the annual volume which we hope for about Christmas time every year, is not so evident in these grave lectures on such a serious topic, delivered at a great University. But even here a glint sparkles occasionally as when he says, "Human history from this standpoint (the fatalistic) has only the same kind of interest that pertains to a weather report."

ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

SOCIAL PROGRAMS IN THE WEST

(The Barrows Lectures, 1912-1913.) By C. R. Henderson. The University of Chicago Press, 184 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.38.



Dr. Henderson has worthily fulfilled the purpose and spirit of his lectureship, which was founded "to promote the highest interests of humanity."

His aim has been to advise the people of the East what to do, but rather to tell them what is being done in the West to

deal with our economic and social problems, and to disclose the best purposes and methods of social work, and the highest ideals of the western world.

It would have been difficult, if not impossible, to find another so suitable ambassador of scholarship and religion to carry such a message to Asia. Foremost himself in the preparation of these social programs, and active in the efforts that have been made toward their fulfillment, Dr. Henderson has served half a lifetime in the ranks of social reformers, and has been an active official in many of the most important national and international organizations for social betterment.

The lecturer is permeated, as his every utterance shows, with a pure Christian faith, yet is the most tactful and tolerant of interpreters of Christianity to men of other beliefs. He does not go so far as to say to the heathen "You're a better man than I am, Gunga Din," but in generous spirit he comes near it. We should not like him to be jeopardized by heresy trial before theologians of the old type. He is wholly concerned with salvation, not with damnation, and loves the Orient because it gave us Christianity, rather than condemns it because it does not yet know Christ.

In his interpretation of the Christian culture of the West, the lecturer has, with his genial spirit, idealized the picture. He has dwelt on the good that is being done rather than on the evils that call for remedy. The honest Occidental must read many of these hopeful and inspiring pages, written not for his eyes,

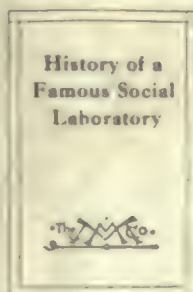
but for those of the Oriental, with the mingled sensations of a man who by chance gets to read his own obituary, knowing his unworthiness but highly resolving to deserve these things the next time they are said.

In substance, these six lectures are little less than a comprehensive account of the plans of social amelioration now in actual process of application in Europe and America. They unite the qualities of conciseness in the statement of facts with literary finish in their comment and social philosophy. Nowhere else in equal compass is so good a survey to be had to put into the hands of one who would understand the meaning of modern, constructive, democratic, and scientific social reform.

FRANK A. FETTER.

DEMOCRACY IN NEW ZEALAND

By André Siegfried. Translated from the French by E. V. Burns with an introduction by Wm. Downie Stewart. G. Bell and Sons, London, The Macmillan Co., New York. 396 pp. Price \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.86.



The last decade has been one in which New Zealanders have been making history fast and in unexpected ways. The capitulation of the government to those who demanded freehold tenure of lands, the formation of a Parliamentary labor party with a definite labor

program, the rise of industrial unionism, the overthrow of the Liberal labor party after twenty consecutive years of power, are events none of which could be recounted, and few of which could be foretold, in André Siegfried's *Democracy in New Zealand*, written ten years ago and now first translated into English.

But if his is not the latest chapter and the one of greatest interest to those already familiar with this famous social laboratory, M. Siegfried's is for all perhaps the most penetrating and surely the most brilliant of the many interpretations of New Zealand history and of the New Zealand point of view. None but a Frenchman could expose with such keen yet gentle raillery the conservatism of these radicals, the trappings and respect for titles of these democrats, the abiding conviction of these remote islanders that not alone are they the chosen of the Lord but that He and all his less blessed peoples are guiding their actions by New Zealand precedents.

Few who have seen the New Zealand workingman in his native habitat will disagree with the author's conclusion: "There are three things which sharply distinguish him from the worker of the European Continent: he has scarcely any or no class hatred; he is not a revolutionary; he is only vaguely socialistic. . . . He has retained a certain curious innate admiration for money and for the man who lives in the grand style. Nor has he any greater

passion than to be like a middle-class man, and in his private life, in his dress, in his habits, to imitate those who are more fortunate than himself."

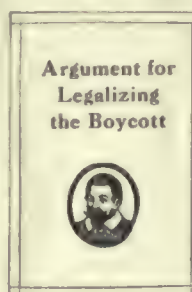
As good Anglo-Saxons carefully reserving the right of contradicting themselves whenever it seems useful to them, M. Siegfried altogether correctly finds "New Zealand reformers setting out with enthusiasm in the name of the loftiest principles, and we expect them to go right through with it and found a new heaven and earth. And then to our surprise, they call a halt; they change from revolutionaries into radicals; and the pretended Socialists become mere Democrats." Right again is the conclusion that "the result of the government's work is the very opposite of socialistic." "Is it socialistic," he asks, "to change exploitation on a large scale into exploitation by a multitude of less powerful men? This was all the French Revolution did. Is it socialistic to establish small holders on the crown lands and make them to all intents and purposes owners? Is it socialistic to create a class of small cultivators whose interests might well differ at some point from those of the workers in the large industries?"

A singularly discerning yet sympathetic criticism is this delightfully written account of a people who with unshakable confidence in their manifest destiny have initiated some and copied more.

PAUL KENNADAY.

BOYCOTTS AND THE LABOR STRUGGLE

By Harry W. Laidler. John Lane Co. 488 pp. Price, \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.16.



The general public is keenly interested at present in all phases of the labor movement. The interest is by no means merely theoretical. It has dawned on the average citizen that the labor movement carries within itself possibilities which may have grave consequences

and a careful consideration of which is of great practical importance.

Of all aspects of the labor movement the question of methods of struggle is the most fundamental. Upon the answer to it hinge not only immediate victory or defeat for either side, but such large matters as standards of living, growth of organization, social relationships, and ethical ideals. Regardless of its significance, however, it is probably the least understood part of the whole labor problem. In this field in particular, empiricism rooted in partisanship reigns supreme.

Because of this Mr. Laidler's book is especially valuable. It is a sincere and successful effort to describe the nature and effects of a weapon of industrial warfare which has aroused particular antagonism. The reader will find in it a description of all forms of the boycott, a history of the most im-

portant cases, and an analysis of the legal, economic and social questions involved. All this is done in a clear and readable style and in a spirit which must arouse even in the prejudiced reader a desire to see both sides of the question.

Mr. Laidler's main contention is that the boycott should be legalized. The legal argument in favor of this conclusion seems to me of minor importance. As Mr. Laidler himself shows in the hundred odd pages devoted to legal aspects, the principles involved in the boycott lend themselves to various legal interpretations. Experience has shown that the legal justification of a new attitude toward an economic or social problem is one of the easiest things to supply as soon as the attitude has come into existence. To create the latter something more than legal reasoning is necessary; society must open its eyes to the economic and social necessity of the new attitude.

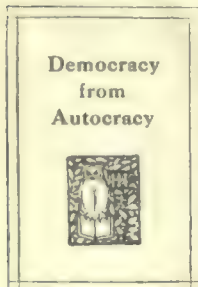
On this point in particular will Mr. Laidler's book be of help to its readers. In fact, this seems to me the most valuable part—a real contribution to the subject. Mr. Laidler shows the intimate relation between various methods of industrial warfare and points out the consequences which the legalization of the boycott would have on strikes, trade agreements and other industrial problems.

One point suggested by reading the book may be indicated here. No matter what attitude the courts and public opinion take, the labor world is mainly interested in the economic possibilities of the boycott. Mr. Laidler has rendered a valuable service by analysing the conditions under which boycotts succeed or fail. Some of his conclusions on the point may serve as guides in the practical application of the boycott. Yet it would have been very helpful, had he made a more specific analysis of the statistics of boycotts in their relation to the conditions of industry, locality, organization, etc. This would have strengthened his general conclusions with which all who come in contact with labor problems will find it to their advantage to familiarize themselves.

LOUIS LEVINE.

CO-PARTNERSHIP AND PROFIT-SHARING

By Aneurin Williams. Henry Holt and Company. 256 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.56.



and with profit in the long run to all concerned." The practical qualifications of the writer are evidenced by the fact that he has devoted about twenty years of his life to the direction of the co-

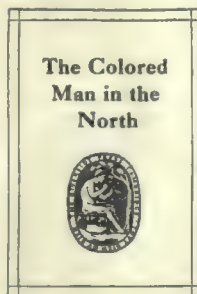
partnership movement in Great Britain. The book considers both simple profit-sharing and the more promising movement of employers to associate employees in the ownership of share capital. It deals with firms of France, England and the United States only, beginning with the famous cases of Leclair and Owen and with the story of Guise, and then treating more recent instances of co-partnership.

The descriptive and expository chapters are clear, often quite detailed, and highly suggestive. The running comments are frequently of practical value. No critical attempt has, however, been made to measure the effect of co-partnership upon the interests of either employer or employee. The relative merits of the different types of co-partnership are not brought out. The prophecies seem unwarranted. The major value of the book lies in that it has placed an up-to-date compilation of important instances of profit-sharing and co-partnership in a concise and accessible volume.

JAMES FORD.

IN FREEDOM'S BIRTHPLACE: A STUDY OF THE BOSTON NEGROES

By John Daniels. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 496 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.



This is unquestionably the best study that has been made thus far of the Negro in a northern community. One thing that marks it off from similar studies on the same theme, is a painstaking effort to distinguish and characterize the two fundamental factors in the problem—race and environment—New England and the Negro—and to trace the effects upon each of their mutual reactions. The effect of the contacts of these two moral entities, an emancipated race and community in which, if anywhere, liberty had become a fetish, has been to apply to the claims of the one and the standards of the other the crucial test of practical life.

Reviewing results we may ask: First, What has the Negro done with his freedom where he has had it in the largest measure? Second, What has become of freedom itself in the country of its birth?

Naturally, to ask and answer, with resolute frankness, questions of this kind means that we shall receive some painful answers. There are judgments in Mr. Daniel's book—all the more poignant because of the deliberation and impartiality with which they are delivered—which are so searching as to suggest moral vivisection! However, as long as the ability of the Negro to live and prosper in an American environment is still so much a matter of speculation as to affect the attitude of his fellow citizens toward him, studies of this kind will be necessary.

This volume is not a mere compendium of facts but traces the growth and decline of the sentimental attitude to-

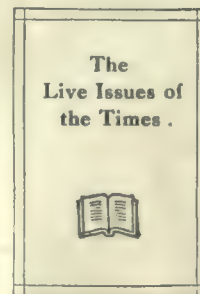
ward the Negro, growing out of his connection with the struggle for free institutions. Perhaps the actual extent of the change that has taken place is best represented in some words by Robert A. Woods, of the South End House, in the introduction to this volume. Mr. Woods speaks, among other things, of the "relative futility of scattered pleas for a flat parity of opportunity" and suggests that "a certain sort of segregation is, for the Negro, as for the immigrant, a provisional blessing," an expression which sounds almost shocking to those of us who have been bred in the anti-slavery sentiment of fifty years ago.

But they fairly represent the change which fifty years of freedom has made in the attitude of Boston toward the blackman and his cause. In fact, In Freedom's Birthplace is itself an evidence of this change. Still, neither these views nor this book should be taken as an indication that there has been anywhere in New England a surrender of the principles of fifty years ago. In Freedom's Birthplace is rather one indication that there has been no flagging in the determination to have in this country a democracy which shall ultimately include the Negro. What the volume does express, however, is the conviction that, in the light of later wisdom, it is necessary to face and meet the old problem in a new way.

ROBERT E. PARK.

LOOKING FORWARD

By Isaac Roberts. Roberts & Company. 315 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.



The purpose of Looking Forward is stated to be to bring "to the attention of average men and women" the advantage offered by co-operation. It consists of eight "conferences"—brief expositions of the principles of woman suffrage, public education, welfare work, co-operation and applied Christian ethics, woven together by means of a slight narrative presented almost invariably in the form of dialogue.

The book as its author clearly states "has not been written for the scientific mind." It offers no contribution to the subject. It unfortunately perpetuates the old American error of using the term "co-operation" in a loose, general sense. The book may be of value, however, in interesting untrained minds in a few of the live issues of our times.

JAMES FORD.

BOOKS RECEIVED

FORTY YEARS OF IT. By Brand Whitlock. D. Appleton & Co. 373 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

PROGRESSIVISM AND AFTER. By Wm. English Walling. The Macmillan Co. 408 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.63.

TRAINING THE GIRL. By William A. McKeever. The Macmillan Co. 341 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

ARROWS IN THE GALE. By Arturo Giovannitti —Introduction by Helen Keller. Fred'k C. Bursch. 108 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

OTHER PEOPLE'S MONEY—AND HOW THE BANKERS USE IT. By Louis D. Brandeis. Fred'k A. Stokes Co. 223 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

SELF-TRAINING FOR MOTHERHOOD. By Sophia Lovejoy. American Unitarian Assn. 182 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

RELIGION AS A PERSONAL EXPERIENCE. By William M. Brundage. American Unitarian Assn. 96 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.56.

AN ADDRESS TO YOUNG MEN. By Charles W. Elliot. American Unitarian Assn. 20 pp. Price \$.10; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.12.

TEN SEX TALES TO GIRLS 14 YEARS AND OLDER. By I. D. Steinhardt. J. B. Lippincott Co. 198 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

ADVENTURING IN THE PSYCHICAL. By H. Adington Bruce. Little, Brown & Co. 313 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.45.

THE INSTINCT OF WORKMANSHIP. By Thorstein Veblen. The Macmillan Co. 355 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.61.

SOCIAL FORCES IN ENGLAND AND AMERICA. By H. G. Wells. Harper & Bros. 416 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.

CORPORATE PROMOTIONS AND REORGANIZATIONS. By Arthur S. Dewing. Harvard University Press. 615 pp. Price \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.70.

THE PRINCESS AND CURDIE. By George MacDonald—simplified by Elizabeth Lewis. J. B. Lippincott Co. 126 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.56.

FOR GIRLS AND MOTHERS OF GIRLS. By Mary G. Hood. Bobbs-Merrill Co. 157 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.09.

RHYTHMIC GAMES AND DANCES FOR CHILDREN. By Mrs. Florence Kirk. Longmans, Green & Co. 80 pp. Price \$.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.66.

BOYCOTTS AND THE LABOR STRUGGLE. By Harry W. Laidlaw. John Lane Co. 488 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.16.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE. By James Puffer. Rand McNally & Co. 306 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.

TEACHING SEX HYGIENE IN THE PUBLIC SCHOOLS. By E. B. Lowry. Forbes & Co. 94 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.55.

IN BLACK AND WHITE. By L. H. Hammond. Fleming H. Revell Co. 244 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.

THE INDUSTRIAL SITUATION—ITS EFFECT UPON THE HOME, THE SCHOOL, THE WAGE-EARNER AND THE EMPLOYER. By Frank Tracy Carlton. Fleming H. Revell Co. 159 pp. Price \$.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.83.

IDLE WIVES. By James Oppenheim. The Century Co. 426 pp. Price \$1.30; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.41.

THE RISE OF THE AMERICAN PEOPLE. By Roland Greene Usher. The Century Co. 413 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.12.

THE GOLDFISH. Being the Confession of a Successful Man. The Century Co. 340 pp. Price \$1.30; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.41.

VOCATIONS FOR THE TRAINED WOMAN. Vol. I, part II—Studies in Economic Relations of Women. Women's Educational and Industrial Union. 175 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.66.

CHALLENGE. By Louis Untermeyer. The Century Co. 144 pp. \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.

CITY SCHOOL SUPERVISION. By Edward C. Elliott. World Book Co. 258 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

"Yes," she continued, "we were always strong, except that I was not very well for about a year after we were married."

It seems that then she had grown very thin and had feared tuberculosis, but had recovered and was again healthy. There was, she declared, no epilepsy in her husband's family nor in hers, she felt sure. The boy's father was never sick, "but once," she added as an afterthought. Before their marriage he had "a sickness," but a doctor cured him and said that it was all right for him to marry.

"You see, lady, there is nothing," and again she almost sobbed. "Don't you think that my boy may be cured?"

What could one do but gladden the heart of the mother with praises for little Gloria? For in the boy's case there was no hope to give.

OLD BEES IN YOUNG BONNETS

Fred Brush

THEIR first impulse to serve beyond the home came through love of flowers. A woman householder at the edge of the hamlet was prevented, by injury, from starting her flower-beds that spring. For years her yard had been a show-place in the valley, and filled a large part in the woman's own rather lonely life.

Jane got seven girls together and went there one morning. "We've come to start the flowers—some of them; it's a little late, but we're bound to make the big bed, anyway; the folks can't really do without it," they announced.

Passers-by paused to see the group all in work-a-day attire, so busily and happily stirring the earth, and a man asked what the party or ceremony was called.

"A bee," laughed Jane.

There had come to her at the moment memory of the last of the old "bees" in that section, where as a little girl she had watched from a window thirty men and boys putting in a crippled neighbor's late hay, with noise and cheer, early finish, wrestling, and outdoor eating at the close.

"This isn't work at all; it's a bee," she called, and then had to tell most of her work-mates about the custom once so prevalent.

Before noon they stood astonished at what had been accomplished by their combined efforts.

"We could do it all, in another morning or two," they cried jubilantly; "let's finish it, and then tend it till she can be out."

Home they went to eat well and to talk of their new kind of bee-party.

They had several more such parties that year. The men joined in the third one. Half the cemetery, which sloped up from the main road in full view, had gone to neglect—was an eye-sore tangle.

Finger Prints

SINCE THE PURPOSE OF THIS COLUMN IS TO HELP, THE SURVEY REQUIRES THAT STORIES CONTRIBUTED TO IT SHALL BE ESSENTIALLY TRUE. ONLY AS PICTURES OF REAL LIFE CAN THEY HAVE ANY VALUE. THAT DOES NOT MEAN THAT ALL UGLY DETAILS MUST BE UNNECESSARILY BROUGHT OUT, BUT IT DOES MEAN THAT THE WRITER MUST KNOW HIS FACTS TO BE TRUE TO HUMAN EXPERIENCE AND SQUARE WITH THE RECORD, WHERE THERE IS ONE. ONLY WITH THIS ASSURANCE CAN CONTRIBUTIONS BE CONSIDERED.

Lucile Field Woodward

Contributing Editor.

"A SICKNESS"

D. Lucile Field Woodward

"CALL her Gloria," the mother said when asked the name of her little three-year-old girl, and added, "she is my bit of sunshine. Oh, lady," she almost sobbed, "if the boy were only like her! Don't you think he may some day be well?"

But the lady could give no hope. She could only say what she says to all mothers of epileptic boys who ask her that question: "All that possibly can be done shall be done."

Mrs. — came to America a few years ago with her husband and baby boy. The

husband, a musician, fell in love with another woman and with her returned to the old country, leaving his wife to make her way alone with her boy, who was then five years old. Gloria had not been born.

To make a living and prepare for the coming of the baby girl was hard enough, but when the boy began to have his "spells" the mother's courage almost failed her. The new baby, however, was so healthy that she soon took heart again and began to hope for the boy.

She took him to specialists and spent "much money." Finally one doctor said, "Take him to the seashore." Being a capable woman, Mrs. — soon found work in a seaside city. But the salt air did not help; the boy continued to have "spells."

Then one doctor said that she must not stay in the city, but should go into the country.

Again she moved for the baby's sake, and took a small garden farm. Here she lost all the money she had saved, and the doctor at last advised an institution for the boy.

When pressed for more history, the mother said, "No, there is nothing. None in the family ever had anything like it. My husband and I were both strong and all of our people were the same."

Additional space was needed; money for its betterment had several times been raised, but little done.

The girls proposed a bee, and a bee there was. All day the women were there with the men, and found a-plenty of lighter work to do. They built a fire in the rocks and served coffee and refreshment. The place was permanently reclaimed. No one was obliged to spend money; no one criticized others' use of it.

The bee had come back into that little community—a proven best way to accomplish certain good things. By this means running spring water was brought to the schoolhouse and the church above the hamlet, and their common grounds improved; the grange hall was repaired and added to, much of the interior work

done by the women. Three stretches of bad road were made good; the roadside trees were trimmed, some common walks laid, gardens planted and special crops "rushed" in at times for the handicapped or unfortunate.

Back on the hill a man and his boy fell sick in late autumn, and by midwinter the family was in distress. A "bee" got out from his wood lot and drew to the railroad enough ties and mine-timber to tide over the troubled times. The tree-remnants raised high his wood-pile.

These co-operations have bettered the spirit of the neighborhood, and notably upraised confidence in the strength of the community. The seven girls have continued to lead, until someone dubbed them "the bee girls." They rather like the name.

there was something I ought to understand, and did not, half terrified me, but usually I was indifferent about it. I had no other philosophy than that of doing today's work today—a philosophy that has this advantage, if industriously carried out: it gives one no chance to ask himself questions.

"I feel that when a man who has been imprisoned over four years with a wrecked body, and who has lost his home by fire, ventures to say that he is reasonably happy, and never enjoyed life so much, there is certainly some form of explanation due from him. And here you have it."

"Charlie" Willard had found the philosopher's stone.

MEYER LISSNER.

Personals

"CHARLIE" WILLARD was always my hero.

Even those of us favored with good health and strong physique have our off days, days of depression and discouragement. Charles Dwight Willard was always frail physically; for more than half his life he fought off the specter of the dread white plague. Through it all he was the cheery optimist. So long as he could hold up his head, he looked toward the sun. The world to him was getting better every day.

Willard was a trained newspaper man and writer. He came to California in 1886. On his arrival in the "land of sunshine" he was about "all in." As his health improved, he became active and for twenty-five years he did such effective work that at the time of his death it was generally recognized that his work and his influence had been among the most potent factors in the building up of the remarkable community in which he had made his home.

For a number of years he was secretary of the Los Angeles Chamber of Commerce, bringing it to a point where it became one of the admittedly leading commercial organizations of the nation. He organized the Municipal League of Los Angeles, the city's most powerful purely civic organization, and was still its secretary at the time of his death, although most of his time in later years was devoted to writing—mainly as contributing editor of the *California Outlook*, the organ of the progressive movement in California.

"Charlie" Willard's own words give a better insight to the character of the man than anything any one else could say. A year before he passed away he wrote a letter to some intimate personal friends in which he said:

"It is my good fortune to have almost the only profession in which a man can

earn a fair living and be sick-a-bed at the same time. How many of the hundreds of thousands who are afflicted with this disease are so fortunate? But after all, who are they in this world that really deserve pity? The unlucky? No. The sick? No. The poor? No. Who then? The unhappy—they and they only. And I am not unhappy. On the contrary, but for my knowledge that those who are dear to me are often troubled with fears on my account, I could truthfully say that this is the happiest period of my life.

"I have discovered that four years of illness coming to one who has led a life of considerable activity has one surprising form of compensation—it gives him a chance to think. Life was always an utter mystery to me—awesome and tantalizing. At times the sense that



T. J. EDMONDS
Chief Probation Officer, Cincinnati
Juvenile Court.

T. J. EDMONDS, since 1912 secretary of the Associated Charities of Cincinnati, is the new chief probation officer of the Hamilton county, Ohio, Juvenile Court. He was selected by the social workers of his city, who were requested by Frank Gorman, new judge of the court, to unite in nominating an experienced person for the position.

A native Ohioan, Mr. Edmonds, upon his graduation from Yale in 1906, was first employed by the Federation of Churches in New York and in settlement work. Later he did newspaper work in Pennsylvania. In 1910 he became business secretary of the Cincinnati Associated Charities, and a year afterwards general secretary.

Hamilton county is about to expend \$60,000 in the first widows' pensions it has ever granted. Plans are also on foot for the expansion of the court's activities next year when it will enlarge its functions under the court of domestic relations plan. It is the desire of those most interested to have made a successful demonstration of an idea which they believe will be copied.

It was because his training and record fitted him for these tasks that Mr. Edmonds was shouldered with his new responsibility.

THE trustees of the Philadelphia mothers' pension fund have chosen Helen Whitehead as chief investigator. Miss Whitehead has been for four years assistant superintendent of the Girls' House of Refuge at Sleighton Farms. Previous to this she had been a visitor for the Illinois Children's Home and Aid Society and assistant to the head worker at the Henry Booth Settlement, Chicago. She was graduated from the University of Chicago in 1904 and spent the following year in European travel.

WILLIAM A. Crossland, student in the department of sociology at the University of Chicago, has been elected executive secretary of the Social Welfare Board of St. Joseph, Mo. The Social Welfare Board is supported by funds from both city and county, and is practically free to inaugurate any sort of social work under the provisions of the law.

Communications

SOCIAL WORK AND ALCOHOL

TO THE EDITOR: May I express the deep gratification I feel on reading the eminently sane and timely article in your issue of March 21 by Elizabeth Tilton, and to voice the earnest hope that not only social workers but also teachers of economics and sociology in American institutions of learning may give earnest heed to the query, Are we neglecting the alcohol problem?

Permit one concrete suggestion: the introduction into the curricula of the schools of philanthropy, colleges and universities of the country of regularly accredited courses on the liquor problem. Would not this do much to hasten the day when the query, "Are social workers neglecting the alcohol problem?" may be confidently answered in the affirmative? The writer is at present conducting (for the first time) such a class, numbering nearly a hundred students, in the University of Southern California, where the subject justly attracts genuine interest.

ROCKWELL D. HUNT.

[Head of Department Economics and Sociology, University of Southern California.]

Los Angeles.

A QUESTION OF JUSTICE

TO THE EDITOR: Many church people believe that New York's unemployed were within their right in making an appeal to the churches for aid. The Carpenter of Nazareth gave food to the hungry. We, who profess to follow Him, ought not to resent the fact that hungry men enter church doors.

To suppose that hungry men would be arrested and adjudged criminals for making such a request for help, appears absurd. However, your issue of March 28 shows that this was done. No one, looking at the flashlight picture which you published, can deny that the men were orderly, and were retiring quietly at the time of their arrest.

Such court proceedings are not reassuring in the eyes of those who love justice. The heavy sentences imposed are liable to be taken as a condemnation, not of the men sentenced, but of the courts.

It would be well if through THE SURVEY we might become better acquainted with our courts and the men who influence them. What motives lie back of the decisions they hand down? Free government cannot long continue without courts that provide justice. It is no small matter for courts to render decisions which inspire public mistrust.

This letter does not say that the courts of New York are corrupt, or that any of her judges are dishonest. But it does say that we have a right to educate our courts in moral ideals, and to know that

every judge is honest. Many facts are unpleasantly disturbing. Rosenthal is dead, but it seems probable that Becker will be allowed presently to go free. Threats of bomb outrages among Italians are attributed to "black hand" society, but it is strangely unsafe to report these threats to officers who are not Italians. And, somehow, the offenders are in many cases immune to court proceedings. Unoffending and innocent people, however, are jailed, when they ask at church for a little food and shelter.

DANIEL S. McCORKLE.

Sunrise, Wyoming.

SCHOOL LUNCHEES

TO THE EDITOR: There have been some good answers to what I wrote the other day about school lunches. The following brought forward by Mrs. George B. Twitchell in THE SURVEY for March 14 seem to me points well taken in their favor:

1. Children should have good substantial food rather than candy, pickles and the like.

I feel this so strongly that I have often thought there ought to be a society for robbing children on the way to school, so that they should not be able to buy candy, pickles and the like. Merely taking the money away from them would be a benefit. The school lunch, if charged for, is a pure extra to the good.

2. It is a good argument that children are found who cannot study unless the school does give them a lunch. Also that children get so tired walking home that they can't eat their lunch when they get there (though I should not suppose this last would often be the case).

3. Another good point is that small children need to be fed in the middle of the morning. For these the argument is much the same as that for providing lunch in the high schools—being simply that they have got to have a lunch at a time when they cannot be at home.

Of course a lunch in the middle of the morning is a wholly different proposition from lunch which takes the place of the midday meal. If the children in the lower grades need it, the schools ought to see in one way or another that they get it.

The question seems to be whether these balance the good arguments on the other side, which as I see them are:

1. Free school lunches take away from parents what is probably the strongest human motive to the maintaining of a successful and orderly life.

2. They deprive some children of the home meal which would otherwise be provided, and which could almost always be provided if the community made up its mind that the home rather than the

school was the better place for the children to be fed. Of course some families are, as Mrs. Twitchell has pointed out, inevitably and hopelessly broken, but even in these cases the best course often is to find some other home for the child and then to keep it whole. There are always families on the border line who would be pushed across by any weakening of motive.

It is important to observe that a lunch in school is not necessarily a school lunch. Most of us can remember when we carried sandwiches in a grub box. I am sure I shall never forget the day I started to school with a Bartlett pear in my pocket and what I found there when the hungry moment came. In Boston we take some pains to get the parents to furnish the children with mid-morning lunches, and to see that the lunch is not pickles and candy but some form of human food.

Of course it is also clear that a school lunch of either kind need not be a hand-out but may be paid for by the children. The trouble here is that soft-hearted teachers will surreptitiously put either extra sugar into the cocoa or pennies into the children's pockets, so that the hand-out feature creeps in, and the more wretched the child can be made to appear, the more free feed he gets.

To me the most important moral is:—if you are going to have school lunches, you ought to have a good school and home visitor to find out just what the circumstances are. Indeed every school should have such a visitor anyway, and should, through her, plan to secure from the proper source a radical and thoroughgoing treatment in each case.

JOSEPH LEE.

Boston.

THE HIGH COST OF TEACHING

TO THE EDITOR: I am compelled to renounce my subscription to THE SURVEY, resorting to library copies of your paper. When other sociological explorations have been completed, THE SURVEY might turn its attention to the teaching class. A survey of this group would reveal a condition of low wages, struggle against the high cost of living (unaffected by tariff manipulation), and an effort to reach a standard of living set and demanded by the community, which will go far to explain any shortcomings observed among this class.

JOSEPHINE M. BURNHAM.

[Wellesley College.]

Wellesley, Mass.

A PRISONER'S LETTER

TO THE EDITOR: I never fail to get a huge amount of enjoyment from THE SURVEY and I want to take this opportunity to voice my thanks. I see you, too, have been inoculated with the prison reform movement. Volumes are being written on prison reform. The time seems ripe for periodical outcroppings of sage advice and suggestions. We who are confined in the prisons of New York state anxiously, eagerly, scan the columns of the press—only to be doomed to inevitable, bitter disappointment.

All the "reforms" instituted in the last decade were purely theoretical, and be-

cause they were only visionary, evanescent, theoretical dream-thoughts, the vital question confronts us: Why do men return to our prisons the second, even the third time?

The "reform" wave in New York state, practically had its inception in 1897, when the contract system was abolished. In 1904, "stripes" were partially removed; two years later, all the prison population was clothed in gray, yet, in spite of these "reforms" it did not diminish the percentage of those who returned for the second time.

Mid the rattle and bang of committee meetings, of rippling reform waves and more or less grave and learned (?), mostly super-esthetic, but ridiculously maudlin, inadequate, wofully inconsequent theories, resolutions, and fancy stunts, served a la mode by the average, no doubt, earnest, but lamentably misguided and unqualified, prison reform society, the same old question is still going its senile rounds. Is the convict a product of regular, ordinary human clay, to be dealt with on the simple hypothesis that he is, perforce, prone to err? Or is he, mayhap, as some of our adolescent reformers would seem to imply, an extraordinary abnormality of nature, composed of pure, unadulterated gobs of re-inforced muck, with the further and, of course, natural conclusion that no possible good can emanate from such a course?

And yet, was it not said, "no good can come out of Nazareth"?

Theory is doomed. The real, the practical, the genuine, is surely, implacably superseding these moss-covered, stale, criminally silly platitudes. A vast amount of mushy sentimentality is being gratuitously thrown at the men behind the walls, tending to arouse the nauseous specter of self pity. That does not help, it degrades—and it doesn't answer the question: Why do the men return to prison again? and the answer: They are forced back.

The power of the human soul cannot be measured; no man guesses the real strength of his fellow man. It is an undisputed fact, that upon leaving prison, every man is prejudged. We are all damned alike—the foul rape fiend with the chap who commits a crime because he ignored the admonition, "vengeance is mine"; the fellow who leaves the big gate behind, who takes no thought of the future, with the man who sincerely, honestly, wants to be clean and straight. Ninety-nine per cent of the men who leave prison, really, sincerely, want to make good. The public will not let them.

Let me give you a glimpse of the "returning" process. I am an advertising expert, fully capable of earning at least \$3,000 a year. I apply to an agency for employment; I demonstrate my ability and, in spite of this, I am offered work at \$10 to \$12 a week, simply because I dare compete with my more virtuous brother. The sickly, petered out, bromide, "you'll have to start at the bottom" is a pitiful, unscrupulous, hypocritical lie. They will get the same quality and amount of work that a \$3,000 man gives for \$10 or \$12 and pocket the difference with smug complacency. I am

treated with scant courtesy. Every hour of the day I am shown, in a hundred different ways, that I am there on sufferance only. In reality, my employer is mentally shaking hands with himself, only he fears to show it—the glad hand of friendship isn't extended. He seems to fear contamination.

It takes a smashing good man to stand the razzle-dazzle of a prison term and stay sweet. The average prisoner builds mighty plans for redeeming the past. Prison-born ideas, however, when stacked against stern, relentless, immutable reality, somehow do not seem as alluring, as genuine, on the outside of the gate. His fight is against tradition, the community; and if he fails—will you not concede that the scrap was an intensely bitter one and pitifully uneven?

Reform! Why the very word itself is a paradox, a misnomer; it's so much larger and immeasurably more human and sentient than the great majority of men realize. Rather let the attitude of society reform, reform its vague, unreliable conceptions of the prisoner. Intellectual emancipation is the only reform that is really reform, and that only can come from without, from those who arrogate to themselves the lofty attitude of "I am holier than thou."

Intellectual emancipation! Aye, set the mind free, and out of chaos, will arise, majestically, benignly, reform. Psychologists have demonstrated that man invariably travels a round-about course in his mental gyrations, even with the most simple ideas; we scarcely ever think directly to them, but go off at a tangent. Isn't it ridiculous to hear every other person solemnly assert their belief that man—another animal, bear in mind—can be reformed and reshaped from his natural bent, this bent being the natural expression of his inherent instincts?

I refuse, most emphatically, the implication, that I will ever reform. To bring my contention home, I deny that there is anything in me to reform (I refer to the criminal aspect). I will reorder my life—get back to first principles—I realize that my scheme of things spells chaos, but, in redeeming my birthright—ye gods! that isn't reform.

Let those in prison work for men's wages; give them something to strive for; an end to appeal to their ambitions—make it part of the prison system to provide jobs for the home-going prisoner, and not require a friendless man—often an illiterate foreigner—to provide his own job. Work along these lines, and you will begin to realize something of the Utopian dream.

When June shall have arrived, I, too, go forth to do battle with the world. I shall not be forced back, because it's a labor of love that I have set my hand to; not all love, rather something on an infinite plane with love: power, prestige, money, rehabilitation; the cementing of ties I wilfully cut asunder; the making of true, genuine friends.

Lack of funds will often obstruct my way—temptation, prejudice, ostracism, mayhap, all these will make the fight long and tortuous—but I'll win in the

end, because right, not might, will be my guiding star.

The time is ripe for the emancipation of the prisoner, may the gods prove propitious. We, the prisoners of New York state, are pinning our faith on the Hon. John W. Riley, superintendent of state prisons. Nightly prayers arise, to the end that he be given strength and aid to do the things that are only just and proper. The state of New York has reason to be proud of such a man, it must come to his aid now, else his efforts will come to naught.

LEW M. DAVIS.

[No. 10294, State Prison.]

Dannemora, N. Y.

SOME INFORMATION FOR MOTHER

TO THE EDITOR: I like immensely Mr. Gavit's article on sex instruction. Mrs. Bruere read it to me one evening, as an example of an exceptionally sane and helpful way of giving children the right point of view toward sex functions. There was just a touch of romance in it, which may not be necessary, but the idea was splendid and many of us are in consequence indebted to Mr. Gavit.

HENRY BRUERE.

[City Chamberlain.]

New York.

TO THE EDITOR: Some Information for Mother puts very graphically what many of us have long felt.

The desire of the child to know how it came to be here is the most natural one in the world. It is a part of that great instinct of reproduction which in its force is second only to the instinct of self-preservation—both, indeed, really existing for the preservation of the race. Nature cares for the individual only in so far as the welfare of the race is wrapped up in him.

The gratification of this desire for knowledge on our children's part is their right, and, it is, moreover, their salvation, for if it is not gratified by those who should respond to it, the active-minded child will find other means of information, with the too frequent result not only of learning much that is untrue, but, what is much more serious, of learning the most sacred facts of human existence from the lips of those to whom these facts have no significance beyond the gratification of animal appetite, and whom the whole subject thrills with the disgusting fascination of forbidden delights.

Mr. Gavit's story is very delightful and true to life, both in the response of the child to the truth when it is told to it, and in the half-baked attempt of the mother to give this truth to the child. There are many such attempts today, for it has become the fashion to tell children the laws of reproduction—a fashion very excellent if it be done with knowledge and with reverence, but not unmixed with danger, if it be done stupidly and without co-ordination. Even so, it is probably better than the old stories of storks' and doctors' bags, but why go halfway when the whole road is such a beautiful one to travel with a child?

To the "Iconoclast's" statement that "the baby stays in the mother-nest until the time comes for it to be born," the child exclaims, "Isn't that beautiful! Now, why didn't my mother tell me that?"

The strength of the reproductive instinct is shown by the universal desire of children to play house—they are always playing at father, mother and children, and the normal child feels—just as Mr. Gavit shows it to—the beauty of the transmission of life. If a child is told the truth about this great gift which we have all received and which we may in turn pass on, it will feel the reverence which this transcendent function must inspire in an uncorrupted mind.

Even a young child can be appealed to on behalf of the future, not its future alone, but the future of those for whom it will some day be responsible. And if it is made to understand the proper purpose of the sexual organs, abuse of these organs and later abuse of their function will be next to impossible. This reverence it is the privilege of parents to impart. "Happy is the people that is in such a case."

MRS. WILLIAM LOWELL PUTNAM.

Boston.

"CONSIDER THE OTHER FELLOW"

TO THE EDITOR, I am glad to see that Mr. Joseph Lee (I wish I could say Cousin Joseph) agrees that I am right in saying that inventors are not recognized as they should be by capitalists, and that this is the key to the situation. Mr. Lee says that the real point is "What is there that can be done about it?" and Mr. Lee adds, "Tell us what to do and we are with you."

Of course, telling a world what to do is not an off-hand topic that one can take up in the form of a little hopeful reply to Mr. Lee or Major Higginson, but, in spite of a certain sense of humor which gets its chance once in a while, I was just being sorely tempted to try to do it, when suddenly it occurred to me that I had done it before, that I had just published a reply (five hundred and sixty-one pages or so) which I have spent some twenty years in growing up to write, and some forty years struggling to believe, and if Mr. Joseph Lee, instead of gracefully wishing to be my cousin, would really be serious, buckle down, saw wood, and read my book and not put me off as mere relative it would be, possibly, all thing considered, the best way out.

It is true, as Mr. Lee suggests, that there is nothing new in the world's failure to recognize inventors. The astonishing and revolutionary fact—the one I like to make a stand for, is, that in an age of machinery, a sweeping change is taking place before our eyes in regard to the world's attitude toward inventors. It is getting to be their world. Everybody (millions and all) is about to know to them.

It is this revolutionary attitude toward inventors, or men with imagination, social inventors, world engineers and others that I have been trying to begin to express in *Crowds*. It puts a

new face on the world for me, and contradicts all the expectations and beliefs I had thought I had since I have begun to reckon with it—especially since I have begun to apply it to what we can all personally do to help the inventors to hurry.

There is one thing I want to add, I hope my little article in *THE SURVEY* is not going to leave me mixed up in anybody's mind with the people who are "shooting the organist" as Mr. Lee intimates.

I would rather blow the organ for him, and indeed this very week am I not blowing the organ (*Harper's Weekly* for March 14) for Mr. Henry Ford, and I am sorry if my letter, to any one, seems to identify me with the war against capital just because it is capital. There is not a day passes but I rejoice in some rich man—even one who is not so violently rich, if he sees how he can do something.

Well, as I was going to say, Mr. Editor, I do wish *THE SURVEY* would start a movement to get Mr. Joseph Lee to read *Crowds*. If it cannot do better let it try to pry him through two chapters—the first two ones in the fifth book, *News and Labor* and *News and Money* ending like this:

"Religion can be expressed much better today in a stockholders' meeting than it can in a prayer meeting.

"Charles Cabot, of Boston, walked in quietly to the stockholders' meeting of the steel trust one day and with a little touch of money—\$2,900 in one hand, and a copy of the *American Magazine* in the other—made (with \$2,900) \$1,468,000,000 do right."

GERALD STANLEY LEE.

Northampton, Mass.

JOTTINGS

NEW SETTLEMENT IN HARLEM

The Henry Meinhard Memorial House, a social settlement, has recently been established at 100 East 101st street, New York city, by Morton H. Meinhard as a memorial to his father. The headworker is Morris J. Wessel. The district is Jewish, but the policy of the settlement will be non-sectarian. Among the activities announced will be an employment bureau to find work for the young people of the neighborhood in lines which have the greatest future, which the settlement believes will "lie in the relations between the producer, transporter and consumer."

DEMONSTRATING MORAL EDUCATION

Since coming to this country several months ago, F. J. Gould, demonstrator and lecturer of the British Moral Education League, has visited thirty large cities, seven universities and is said to have addressed 14,000 teachers and persons interested in the education of the

young. In bringing him here the International Child Welfare League co-operated with the University of Wisconsin.

Mr. Gould has demonstrated his methods with classes of children. One of the points he tries to impress upon them is that in being of service to others a kindly intention is not enough; they must be ready with specific suggestions and ways of making their willingness effective.

MAP OF CRIME

A map of Kansas showing the proportionate number of men received at the state penitentiary from all counties from 1909 to 1913 inclusive has been prepared under the direction of Warden J. T. Botkin. The nearer the penitentiary you get the more crime you find, the crime center being only forty-five miles west of the prison at Lansing. The so-called "wet counties," where prohibition laws are poorly enforced, show the most criminals. A new ruling of the Board of Corrections requires every prisoner to have a medical and psychological examination by the prison physician, J. T. Faulkner, and it is now possible to learn the number of mental defectives entering this prison.

AIDING STRANDED AMERICANS

The American Benevolent Association of Berlin, which grants relief to American citizens, aided 108 persons during 1913. Among them were two physicians, two civil engineers, one druggist, five music students, one lawyer, one student of philosophy, one locomotive engineer, six sailors, one university professor and one farmer. It has a budget of 6921.41 marks. An interesting paragraph in the report records that the association appealed to 500 Americans registered at the four leading hotels, suggesting that they spare the association one of their express checks. "Not a single pfenning or a single reply was received." The executive work is done by S. Miles Bouton, an American journalist in Berlin.

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The Golden Rule, for which Cleveland police once were famous, is to have a new lease on life under Thomas M. Kennedy, new judge of the criminal branch of the Common Pleas Court, a disciple of Brand Whitlock. Parole from the bench for first offenders where circumstances are mitigating, personal supervision of his own paroled subjects, man-to-man talks with those who come before him, the giving of sentences to fit the man rather than the crime, a new application of the indeterminate sentence law, restriction of police persecution and hearty co-operation with the county prosecutor—these are some of the elements of Judge Kennedy's Golden Rule policy. "Parole from the bench is the greatest weapon for mending the broken men and women of society that we have today," is his point of view.

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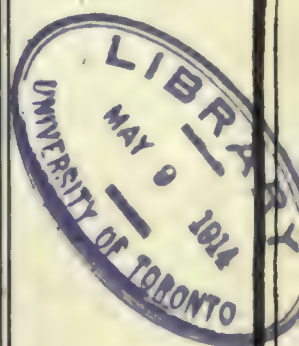
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Vol. XXXII, No. 5

Contents

May 2, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

PHILADELPHIA'S PRESCRIPTION FOR CLEAN-UP WEEK	107
WOMAN'S MASS MEETING TO PROTEST AGAINST WAR	107
FULL APPROPRIATION FOR THE CHILDREN'S BUREAU	108
TENT COLONY OF STRIKERS SWEEPED BY MACHINE GUNS	108
POLICE WOMEN'S EFFICIENCY IN DANGER	110
WISCONSIN TAXES AND STATE PUBLIC SERVICE	110
ONE COURT FOR THE WHOLE FAMILY	110
TRACHOMA IN OHIO SPREAD IN LODGINGS	111
CIVIC REFORMER CHIEF OF SEATTLE'S POLICE	111
TEN YEARS OF THE WOMAN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE	111
SAFETY AT SEA AND THE CONSUMERS' LEAGUE, Florence Kelley	112

WHEN DISASTER COMES

Part I. Types of Disaster

MODERN RELIEF IN GREAT EMERGENCIES	Ernest P. Bicknell	113
EARTHQUAKE RELIEF WORK AT MESSINA AND REGGIO	Reginald R. Belknap	116
HOW A MINE COMPANY HELPED ITS SUFFERERS	J. Byron Deacon	119
LAND RELIEF FOR SEA DISASTER	W. Frank Persons	120
APPLYING BUSINESS METHODS TO TORNADO RELIEF	Edith Grant	122
WHY NOT EMERGENCY RELIEF DRILLS?	R. L. Himes	123
FAMINE RELIEF IN CHINA	Guy W. Sarvis	126
CATCHING THE CHINESE TIGER	Winthrop D. Lane	129

Part II. The 1913 Floods

THEIR COMING, Introductory		135
THE STATE'S PART IN THE EMERGENCY	George F. Burba	137
ADMINISTERING A RELIEF FUND AT THE TOP	Lewis E. Stein	139
BRINGING RELIEF TO SCATTERED COMMUNITIES	C. M. Hubbard	142
A RED CROSS AGENT'S PERSONAL EXPERIENCE	Johanne Bojesen	143
FLOOD REHABILITATION IN A CITY	Edward T. Devine	147
FLOOD PREVENTION AND RIVER REGULATION	Morris Knowles	151

"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"—Chapter VIII HOUSING BECKONS	Albion Fellows Bacon	154
---	----------------------	-----

EDITORIALS

157

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The GIST of IT—

PROBABLY two score lives have been taken—two-thirds of them women and children—in pitched battles between the striking coal miners and the militia in Colorado. The troops, turned machine guns on the tent colony at Ludlow, where the men and their families had lived on leased ground since the strike began last September. Page 109. President Wilson has asked John D. Rockefeller to intervene. Page 160.

COOPER UNION, which has sheltered all sorts and conditions of protestants since slavery days, was the scene of the women's mass meeting to protest against war in Mexico and Colorado. Page 107.

NORMAN ANGELL, visiting peace plenipotentiary from Europe, has told vividly what war with Mexico will mean. Page 159.

SINCE January 1, 1905, the American Red Cross has administered relief in 60 disasters—an average of one every eight weeks for nine years. It has expended over \$12,000,000. Fifteen of these catastrophes caused direct injury to the person or property of 1,500,000 people.

HERE is cause enough for a special number of THE SURVEY. Disaster relief is coming to be as much a profession and an art as organized charity. To emphasize its importance and define its principles is the purpose of these articles.

MR. BICKNELL opens by differentiating between the kinds of disasters, stating principles of relief, and telling what each community can do for itself. Page 113.

COMMANDER BELKNAP tells how emergent and permanent help were brought to the Messina earthquake sufferers (p. 116); Mr. Deacon how a mine company applied the principles of workmen's compensation to the families of killed employes (p. 119); Mr. Persons tells how the Volturmo's survivors were cared for (p. 121); and Miss Grant how Omaha met its tornado (p. 122). Mr. Himes draws lessons from his experience with Mississippi inundations (p. 126); and Mr. Sarvis describes the manner in which China's latest famine call was answered (p. 126).

CHINA'S flood and famine calls go back to legend, but at this moment a project to reclaim her rivers and prevent her floods is moving to a head. Mr. Lane gives the details. Page 129.

PART II of this series deals intensively with the relief work following the great floods in the Ohio and Mississippi valleys last spring. What Ohio did is told by Mr. Burba (p. 137), while Mr. Stein describes the national response (p. 139). Mr. Hubbard tells how he carried relief to scattered towns in three valleys (p. 142), and Miss Bojesen (p. 143) and Mr. Devine (p. 147) dwell on Dayton.

TO round off, Mr. Knowles relates the latest news of flood prevention in this country. Page 151.

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THE SURVEY



COMMON WELFARE



PHILADELPHIA'S PRESCRIPTION FOR CLEAN-UP WEEK

"CLEAN-UP-WEEK" is getting to be almost as much of a civic institution as the Sane Fourth. Scores of cities and towns have entered into the effort this year. Their mayors have designated a given week in April or May when extra teams and men are added to the force of ash collectors.

In Philadelphia a leaflet for a "spick and span" city has been issued, containing directions for the householder. Here are the "chores": Remove all rubbish and waste material from your rooms, closets, hallways, garrets, roof, cellar, fire escape, and yard; don't overlook dark corners and out-of-the-way places; clean up vacant lots; use disinfectants after cleaning; white-wash cellar walls, out-houses, sheds and fences; clean and paint your screens and put them in place; sow grass seed on vacant lots and bare spots in your yard; plant flowers in back-yards and porch boxes; fill in low ground and spread a little kerosene on stagnant water to kill mosquitoes.

The last page of the leaflet is a sign with "rubbish" in big letters. This is to be hung in the window as a notice for the city collector. The school children were given buttons to wear, bearing the words "Help us clean up Philadelphia"; the Department of Health issued bulletins telling in detail how to prevent flies and mosquitoes; many avenues of pub-

licity kept the subject constantly before the people; and the challenge was put directly:

"Why don't they keep the streets a little cleaner?"

You ask with deep annoyance not undue, "Why don't they keep the parks a little greener?"

Did you ever stop to think that *THEY* means *YOU*?

WOMAN'S MASS MEETING TO PROTEST AGAINST WAR

MORE THAN 2,000 people assembled to condemn war—in Mexico and Colorado—at a protest meeting organized by the women of New York city at Cooper Union, April 24.

"Such a gathering," said Charlotte Perkins Gilman, one of the speakers, "represents the spirit of the masses who must do the dying and the paying in these wars instigated by economic interests, which proverbially seek protection, and fomented by other interests which make war and news of war a marketable product. When this spirit of protest makes itself heard above the interests, and the people stop, no power on earth can make them go on. Then war will cease."

All the speakers, Charlotte Perkins Gilman, Mary Shaw, Harriet Stanton Blatch, Helen Todd of California and Florence Kelley, emphasized the right of women who "suffer without any music" to denounce a war declared without their consent and demanding the sacrifice of their children. Mrs. Blatch pointed out that behind every man marching to the front is a vacancy in the industrial army at the rear which must be filled by brave wives and daughters.

The invasion of Mexico was coupled



CLEAN-UP WEEK—FATHER PENN ON THE JOB WITH HIS BESOM

by nearly every speaker with the civil war in the Colorado strike region. "Are we so humane, so advanced," questioned Florence Kelley, "that we should endeavor to teach foreign people?"

This resolution was adopted:

"RESOLVED: That this mass meeting of men and women assembled in Cooper Union on April 23, 1914, call upon the President to put the noble words he has uttered in the past into deeds. We ask him to withdraw our troops from Mexico and thus with true courage and the finest sense of honor repair the harm already done."

This resolution, prepared in advance, was proposed from the platform by the chairman, Mrs. Henry Villard. But the audience demanded that it be supplemented by a second resolution. Marie MacDonald, a well-known Socialist speaker, moved from the floor that "this assemblage go on record as denouncing the treatment accorded the miners and especially that brave unflinching woman, Mother Jones, by the militia of Colorado with the sanction of state and federal officials."

The appeal was cheered and adopted without a single negative vote. Copies of both resolutions were forwarded to President Wilson.

FULL APPROPRIATION FOR THE CHILDREN'S BUREAU

THE PASSAGE by the House of Representatives of the total appropriation requested by Julia C. Lathrop as chief of the Children's Bureau was good news to the large number of social workers and others who have shown keen interest in this new and developing social activity by the federal government.

Although, as reported in *THE SURVEY* for April 11, the appropriations committee had scaled the amount down from the \$164,640 asked to \$25,640, the sum appropriated for the first experimental period ending this June, the question was vigorously discussed on the floor and by a roll call vote of 276 to 47 the full appropriation was carried on April 17.

The expenditure of the money, according to the bill as passed, seems to be limited to investigations of the subjects of infant mortality and dangerous occupations. The law creating the bureau defined its work as to investigate "all matters pertaining to the welfare of children," and "especially to investigate infant mortality, the birth rate, orphanage, juvenile courts, desertion, dangerous occupations, accidents and diseases of children, employment, and legislation affecting children in the several states, and territories."

The friends of the bureau and its work are anxious that the Senate agree to the full appropriation but apportion it not only for the two purposes mentioned in the bill, but according to the plans proposed by the bureau, which have been carefully threshed out and formulated.

TENT COLONY OF STRIKERS SWEEPED BY MACHINE GUNS

MACHINE GUNS pumping 400 soft-nosed bullets a minute were turned on the Ludlow tent colony of coal miners in southern Colorado last week. Press dispatches report 25 to 45 people killed, two-thirds of them women and children, the complete destruction of the camp, and a new flare-up of the bitter hostilities between strikers on one side, the state militia and the guards hired



THE LEADER AT LUDLOW

An investigating committee reported some months ago that the militia would try to "get" Louis Tikas, a Greek miner and an organizer of the union. The *New York Times* reports his death last week as follows: "[He] was shot as he attempted to lead a group of women away from the camp in the direction of an arroya which offered shelter. According to witnesses of his death, Tikas threw up his arms to show that he carried no weapons. The troopers yelled at him to run and shot him as he fled."

The photograph, taken some time ago, shows Tikas at the well which formed the sole water supply for the 900 persons at the Ludlow camp. The barbed wire at the left had been rammed down the well to put it out of commission. The strikers charge the militia with doing it.

by the mining companies on the other side.

The trouble is in the district operated by the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, in which the Rockefellers hold the controlling interest. This battle—the first day's fighting lasted fourteen hours—is the latest clash of armed forces in an industrial warfare which has torn Colorado for thirty years.

For the information regarding Ludlow

which follows and the accompanying illustrations, *THE SURVEY* is indebted to Henry A. Atkinson, secretary of the Social Service Commission of the Congregational Churches, who has just returned from Colorado, where he made a careful study of strike conditions.

The Ludlow colony is one of the many tent colonies established by the strikers at the time the strike was called September 23, 1913. This colony, 18 miles north of Trinidad on the direct road to Walsenburg, was a strategic position for the miners, as it enabled them to keep watch on the station of the Colorado Southern Railroad at Ludlow where strike-breakers would detrain for several important mines.

The land on which the colony was located was leased by the United Mine Workers of America, who furnished the tents and have supported the colony. There were 178 tents, housing 900 people, of whom 271 were children, twenty-one babies having been born there since October. When the strike was called, the men and their families moved from company houses into the tents, and have lived there all winter in the snow.

The great majority of the people do not speak English. For the most part they are strike-breakers brought into Colorado during the bitter struggle of ten years ago, who have themselves become unionized. Twenty-one nationalities are represented, Greeks and Italians making up the largest number.

Last December, at the suggestion of Governor Ammon, a committee of five was appointed by John R. McLennon of the State Federation of Labor to investigate charges made against the militia in the Denver convention of the federation. This committee was a representative one. James H. Brewster, who wrote the report, was for years professor of law at the University of Michigan, an impartial citizen who had gone to Colorado for his health.

The governor empowered the committee to fully investigate conditions and take testimony. The stenographic records of 163 witnesses filled 760 typewritten pages. The testimony made a red hot union man of Mr. Brewster, and he consented to conduct the case of the unions before the Congressional Investigating Committee.

In their report, the five men on the committee unanimously agreed that Lieut. E. K. Linderfelt, who was in charge of the militia quartered near Ludlow, was doing all in his power to provoke the strikers to violence. It seemed to the committee that he was especially anxious to get Louis Tikas into trouble. Once he arrested him for some trivial offence and held him without lodging a charge against him. The report reads:

"We have reason to believe that it is his [Linderfelt's] deliberate purpose to provoke the strikers to bloodshed. Every



THE COLORADO TENT COLONY SHOT UP BY THE MILITIA

Ludlow, a canvas community of 900 souls, was riddled with machine guns shooting 400 bullets a minute. Then the tents were burned. The site is private property leased by the miners' union, which has supported the colony seven months.

decent member of the militia who knows Louis Tikas will testify that he is an admirable man for the place he fills; that he is fair, and that he will assist the militia in every proper way in policing the neighborhood, yet it is this man whom Linderfelt tries to provoke in order that some other members of the colony will be aroused out of sympathy, and it is this man whom Linderfelt is reported to have threatened to kill on the slightest provocation."

Louis Tikas was killed by the militia under Linderfelt in last week's attack on the camp.

The machine guns used against the strikers were brought into the state at the suggestion of A. C. Felts of the Baldwin-Felts Detective Agency, and they were paid for by the coal companies. The same guards and gunmen are being used in Colorado that were used in the West Virginia coal strike. These men were the first to shed blood in

this Colorado strike. Last August Gerald Lipiatt, an organizer for the United Mine Workers of America, was killed on the streets of Trinidad, and his death was followed immediately by serious disorder and more lawlessness.

Mr. Atkinson says:

"In every industrial war wrongs are committed on both sides, but it is difficult to see at this distance any justification in state troops being used to make war on women and children. This was the third attempt to take Ludlow.

"The Colorado miners have suffered. This is the fourth bitter strike in thirty years, and the causes of strife have been virtually the same in each instance. The companies do not obey the law. Miners are killed, their families suffer, they are defrauded of their pay, and denied the right to organize for their own protection.

"Governor Ammons offered a proposed arbitration agreement which was refused

by the strikers. The five propositions suggested by him were *prima facie* evidence of the lawlessness of the companies. Each proposition related to a law that was being violated. The whole proposal simmered down to a single statement is this: 'If you coal diggers will give up your union, the operators promise to obey the state laws which have been passed for your protection.'

"Script is still being issued by some of the companies, although Mr. Welborn, president of the Colorado Fuel & Iron Company, says its use was discontinued by his company on January 1, 1913. The miners feel under unjust obligation to trade at the companies' stores. Many of the mines have company-owned and other company-controlled saloons, and script is issued to the miners on these saloons. Accidents are common, verdicts against the companies by coroners' juries rare. The men feel that they do much work for which they receive no pay—that they are short-weighted in their coal and over-charged



A GROUP OF THE COAL MINERS AT LUDLOW

These are the striking miners and their families who were shot down wholesale by the Colorado militia last week. More than two-thirds of the dead are reported to be women and children. All had lived here in the open since September.

for their oil and powder. If they complain they stand a good chance of being discharged."

Mr. Atkinson summed up the situation by stating that in his opinion there are three fundamental wrongs involved:

"1. The miners are being denied their constitutional rights—law is a dead letter in a section of Colorado 100 miles square.

"2. The state militia is being used, not to restore and preserve law and order, but to break the strike.

"3. The coal companies, by controlling and dominating the political situation, deny the miners economic and social justice."

POLICE WOMEN'S EFFICIENCY IN DANGER

SOME OF THE most influential clubs and civic organizations of Chicago have protested vigorously against the action of Chief of Police Gleason in regard to the city's twenty policewomen. Under Second Deputy Superintendent Funkhouser, the civilian police official, they have proved effective in regulating public dance halls. Under Second Deputy Superintendent Schuettler, to whose command they have been transferred, they are assigned to regular police duty, scattered among various station houses, and can no longer be used for inspection of dance halls or other pieces of work requiring concerted action.

In making over 1,500 inspections of dance halls, in which they found many violations of law for which arrests might have been made, the women officers, being more intent upon prevention than punishment, determined to make no arrests at first, but to warn the managers and to win the girls who patronize the dances. This policy has proved successful in securing obedience to law and observance of propriety.

Such results in the dance halls made the second deputy's administration a shining mark for assaults from the underworld, just as his strict censorship of motion pictures has attracted opposition from those who make and promote films suggestive of evil. Such enemies of public safety and common decency are believed to have found aid and comfort at the hands of certain police officials and of others higher up.

It is feared that the *fine esprit de corps* of the new women police will suffer by being forced to conform to the varying standards of the stations to which they have been assigned.

The ostensible reason for taking them away from Major Funkhouser is that his use of their service transcends his function as the civilian deputy and belongs to the active force. But his squad of male officers is left under his command, apparently without fear of inconsistency, perhaps because under the surface it is not inconsistent with the purpose dictating the transfer of the women.

THE RED CROSS AND WAR

In event of war, the Red Cross activities will probably be substantially as follows:

Nurses will be provided for care of the sick and wounded at large hospitals located convenient to, but at a safe distance from, the field of military operations. To these hospitals, soldiers and sailors will be conveyed after preliminary care at field hospitals. Both army and navy are likely to require several of these base hospitals.

The Red Cross will supply physicians and surgeons for service at these hospitals, and men for transportation of the wounded.

Another important duty will be the preparation, collection and distribution of hospital supplies of a character designated by the army and navy medical corps.

Another duty required of the Red Cross by law is the organization and maintenance of an information bureau to serve as a link of communication between the army and navy and the people back home. This bureau will be expected to establish branches in connection with each important army base. It will keep a record of those killed and of those wounded or sick in hospitals, and will communicate the facts to relative and friends. This bureau will also be expected to answer inquiries which will doubtless be received in large numbers from every part of the country.

The extent of the Red Cross service in any event, will depend upon the magnitude of the military operations which call it into service. While it is hoped that the situation in Mexico may not assume such proportions as to require Red Cross participation, it is necessary that the society be prepared for instant action if called upon.

to localities for local purposes \$3,923,731, or 9.43 per cent of the total taxes, while for state purposes there was retained only \$3,731,587, or 8.97 per cent of the total taxes.

The more fundamental point is made, however, that those who cry high taxes do not take into consideration the measure of service rendered by the state government. To make this clear the exponents of the state's activities, which have commanded the attention of the nation, are starting a constructive campaign of publicity to analyze governmental expenditures in the light of governmental service.

ONE COURT FOR THE WHOLE FAMILY

UNDER THE leadership of the Council of Social Agencies, Cincinnati social and civic organizations secured enactment at the special session of the Ohio General Assembly, just closed, of two laws amending the juvenile court act to create a court of domestic relations for Hamilton County. By combining with the former work of the juvenile court all divorce jurisdiction and most of the failure-to-provide and non-support cases, Cincinnati secures the first court for dealing with the family status. A third law, which would have placed non-support cases now appearing in municipal and magistrates courts in the new jurisdiction was defeated by humane societies laboring under the misunderstanding that they would be eliminated.

The new court is made a branch of the Common Pleas Court, the highest judicial tribunal in the county, thereby gaining a dignity which the old juvenile courts of Ohio never attained. The judge is to be nominated and elected on a non-partisan ballot and to devote his full time to the work, a further advance over the former law. Uncontested divorce cases are to be investigated by probation officers.

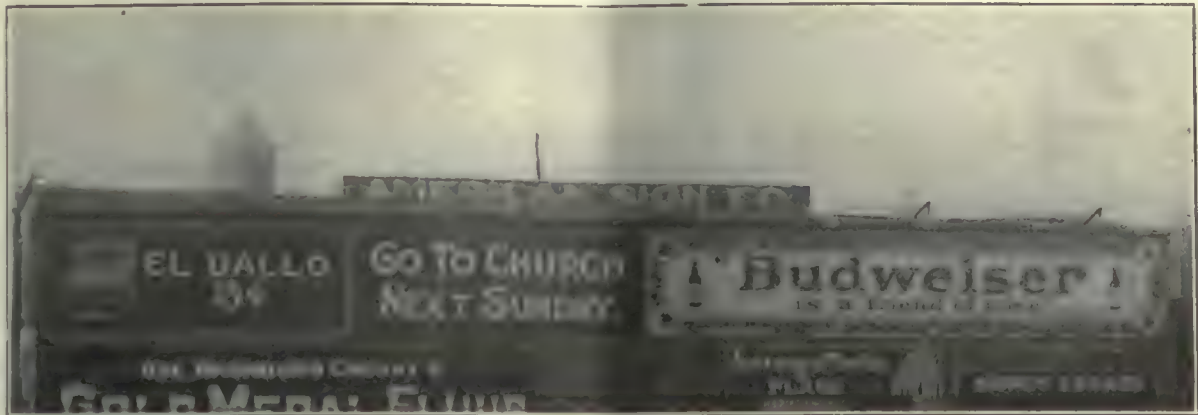
In a brief prepared by the committee in charge of the legislation, it was stated that divorce cases now tried in other county courts are subject to the most superficial investigation, resulting in the granting of numerous divorces for petty reasons that could be adjusted; an organized business of securing divorces exists which is ruinous to the best interests of the home; and divorces are granted in such numbers that protests from churchmen and others interested in the purity of the marital relation are almost weekly occurrences.

Jurisdiction over failure to provide cases by other courts has almost resulted in a nullification of the law. In 1912 2,861 children were deserted in Cincinnati by 1,466 fathers, and no effort made to locate a majority of the fathers. Only 33 per cent of bread-winners guilty of non-support and ordered to pay weekly amounts for the benefit of their fami-

WISCONSIN TAXES AND STATE PUBLIC SERVICE

OPPONENTS of the progressive activities of the state government and state university in Wisconsin are now raising the cry of high taxes and economy. The so-called "Home Rule League" has been organized to stimulate the feeling that the state government costs too much.

It is pointed out by those who are defending the state government against this cry of a high tax rate, that a large proportion of the taxes collected by the state was returned to localities. The total tax last year was \$41,596,960. Of this amount \$8,116,518, or nearly 20 per cent, was raised by counties for county purposes; \$25,825,123, or 62 per cent, was raised by villages, towns and cities; and \$7,655,318, or about 18 per cent, was raised by the state. Of the amount raised by the state there was returned

TIME EXPOSURES *by* HINE

BY THE SIDE OF THE ROAD

"Go to church" poster edging its message in between beer and cigar advertisements on a Baltimore billboard. But at night the Budweiser sign was lighted brightly while the church sign was dark.

lies obeyed the order. Homes are unnecessarily broken up as 48 per cent of the dependent children appearing in court in one year had been sent to institutions, although proper effort in many cases could have saved the family.

It frequently happens that members of a single family appear in insolvency court for a divorce; in police or magistrates' courts for failure to provide; and in juvenile court for delinquency of a minor. Each court adopting a different policy without reference to the others, creates a chaotic and hopeless tangle of the family affairs.

Those who were instrumental in securing passage of the laws propose to select a nominee for the judgeship to be entered in the fall election, and to conduct a campaign for him.

TRACHOMA IN OHIO SPREAD IN LODGINGS

THE FEDERAL Public Health Service has made an investigation of trachoma among the employees of the Youngstown Sheet and Tube Company.

It has discovered seventy-six cases among a force of 5,962 men, with 19 additional cases which were regarded as suspicious. The force employed in these mills is foreign born, except for 28 per cent who are Americans. The American trachoma rate was only 0.23 per cent; of Croatians, Servians, Roumanians and Magyars 3 per cent each. The disease, study of the cases has shown, was contracted, with few exceptions, after the men took employment in the plant.

The explanation of the infection was found in the unsanitary lodging houses in which the foreign workmen live, for the report on these places shows eight to twelve men occupying a single room, beds used day and night, no water supply for washing except buckets filled at a pump in the yard, and no health officer in the town but an untrained layman without any funds.

CIVIC REFORMER CHIEF OF SEATTLE'S POLICE

THAT MAYOR GILL of Seattle is in earnest in his announced desire to give a new and completely different meaning to "Gillism" is evident, all kinds of Seattle citizens say, in his first official act, the appointment of Austin E. Griffiths as chief of police.

As THE SURVEY pointed out in its issue for March 28, the very name of Mayor "Hi" Gill was synonymous with the most notorious of wide-open conditions. These so outraged public decency that he was recalled as soon as women received the vote. His election again in the recent campaign was in part due to his acknowledgment that the people want a clean administration and his promise to work toward this end.

Yet even those who credited him with sincerity were quite unprepared for his selection of one of the most vigorous civic reformers in Seattle, the "father of

Seattle's playgrounds," and the "pastors' candidate" against Gill in the last primaries, as chief of police.

Identified with practically every movement for social and civic progress, Mr. Griffiths is the sort of man who, in the words of one of his friends, "would get up in the middle of the night to speak on public welfare." An Englishman, a graduate in law at the University of Michigan, and a plain unassuming citizen, he went to the state of Washington in 1889 and has lived in Seattle since 1897. Among his other activities he served as president of the Playground Association of Seattle. Mrs. Griffiths is president of the local branch of the Congress of Mothers.

Already his work as police chief, which he accepted with much shrinking and personal sacrifice, has led Seattle citizens to foresee a new era in the treatment of offenders against the law. He has suggested a night school for training prisoners and he has asked the Central Council of Social Agencies to appoint a commission to help him in handling the problem of the unemployed.

Mayor Gill's action in appointing Mr. Griffiths, and his declaration that for the sake of his two boys he wants to merit the esteem of the good citizens of Seattle, have unified public sentiment and good-will.

TEN YEARS OF THE WOMAN'S TRADE UNION LEAGUE

ON MAY 4 the New York Woman's Trade Union League will celebrate its tenth anniversary with a mass meeting in Cooper Union. Founded in 1905 by William English Walling and Mary O'Sullivan of Boston, the league has become a familiar factor in the labor movement in New York city.

During this decade the number to whom the league has carried its message of trade solidarity has increased from 10,000 to over 150,000. Twenty-five trades



AUSTIN GRIFFITHS

The "father of Seattle's playgrounds" now at the head of the police force.

are affiliated and two interstate conventions have been held.

In its legislative work, the league has endorsed and, in many instances, actively campaigned for bills in the interest of working men and women. At all times it has shown unswerving devotion to the cause of women rebelling against unjust conditions and demanding a right to a voice in their work.

It was during the great shirtwaist strike in 1909-10 that the league gained an international hearing as the leader of the first militant movement among working women in this country. In that strike the league led the picketing, collected relief funds, bailed strikers, paid fines, published facts, petitioned the mayor for relief from police brutality, organized a parade of 10,000 girls, held mass meetings, and helped make settlements.

Five years later in the white goods strike, and again in the strike of the laundry workers and the straw and Panama hatters, the league rendered the same sort of tireless service. It also led in the movement against a recurrence of the Triangle fire tragedy.

But the quiet everyday work of the

league has been the force that has built up its strength. Six years ago the annual report stated that while the Woman's Trade Union League has been striving for the organization of workers into trade unions it has recognized that the direct work of organization will be done by the women themselves "and that its own work is largely educational." This year for the first time the league is officered entirely by trade union women themselves.

The new president, Melinda Scott, is a hat trimmer. Born in England, she brought to the working women of America the English traditions of organization. Rose Schneiderman, first vice president, is a cap maker. Susie Morgan, second vice president, a book binder, and Alice Bean, secretary, a stenographer.

These officers have the backing of the official trade union movement of New York. Under their leadership the league is setting itself the task of enlisting 100,000 women in trade unions in New York city before the next biennial convention of the National Woman's Trade Union League, to be held in New York in June.

SAFETY AT SEA AND THE CONSUMERS' LEAGUE—BY FLORENCE KELLEY

WHAT HAS the Consumers' League to do with safety at sea, asks the Chamber of Commerce of a leading city on the Great Lakes. The question re-echoes from the Senate chamber of the United States when the senator from that city receives letters asking him not to approve the international treaty now pending before his committee, lest the treaty supersede Senator La Follette's bill for safety at sea.

The answer to the question of the Chamber of Commerce and the senator is obvious. The National Consumers' League counts among its members men and women who travel by sea for business or for pleasure. They remember the *Bourgoyne*, the *Republic*, the *Titanic*, the *Volturno*, the *Monroe*. They prefer not to be drowned.

These members recognize, too, that on shipboard, they are served by stewards and stewardesses, cooks, stokers and seamen, in a far closer human relation than that which they have long acknowledged towards girls who sell them umbrellas and gloves in stores, or men and women who fashion their garments in tailor shops. And members of the Consumers' League accept their responsibility for taking a full share in demanding the common safety. There are, moreover, the thousands of humble fellow passengers who travel by steerage, voiceless and powerless to provide for their own safety.

For all the vast population in transit, the passenger is the natural spokesman. Hitherto he has, however, defaulted. It is

a national and international misfortune that, for twenty years, the struggle for safety has devolved upon the seamen, by reason of the passengers' shirking. Thus the struggle for safety has appeared to be a strife between the seamen's organizations and the shipping companies. In all the long series of hearings upon Senator La Follette's bill in the Senate and House, the writer is the only passenger who has appeared before a committee of Congress to urge the claims of passengers.

Naturally, it is the clauses bearing upon safety which interest the Consumers' League. These clauses resolve themselves into two groups—those having to do with lifeboats, and those relating to seamen. The La Follette bill for safety at sea provides that

"no vessel carrying passengers except those navigating rivers and harbors and the smaller inland lakes, exclusively, shall be permitted to depart from any port of the United States unless she is provided and equipped with a sufficient number of seaworthy life-boats to carry and transport at one time every passenger and every member of the crew licensed to be carried on board such vessel and unless she have a sufficient crew to man each lifeboat with not less than two men of the rating of able seamen or higher, who shall be drilled in the handling and lowering of lifeboats under rules and regulations to be prescribed by the board of supervising inspectors with the approval of the secretary of commerce."

There is clear provision, too, for life-

boat and fire drill [which does not apply to foreign vessels] and for training seamen in abandoning the ship and caring for passengers.

A place in a lifeboat is to be assigned to each passenger at the time of going aboard, and pointed out to the passenger.

Opposition to the bill was centered chiefly upon two provisions, the number and qualifications of seamen and the number of lifeboats. The companies urge that boats could not be lowered in such numbers if there were fire or an extra heavy sea, and that it is folly to require them.

The shipping companies also represent that stewards and stokers can be quickly trained for emergency service, and need no such long experience as that prescribed in paragraph 12. This is the famous provision requiring that three-fourths of the crew must be able to understand the officers' orders, and the deck crew must have a proportion of able seamen beginning immediately with 45 per cent and increasing annually until, after four years, they constitute 65 per cent of the whole deck crew. An able seaman must be nineteen years old and have three years' experience on deck at sea or on the Great Lakes, and these facts must be shown by a certificate issued by a board of local inspectors.

The shipping companies protest that it is impossible to obtain a sufficient supply of such able seamen. Their contention is not convincing, however, because a seaman's career should normally last many years, while one-fourth of every deck crew is permitted, under the bill, to be men in training, and a period of four years is allowed before the full tale of three able seamen in four of the deck crew is required. In view of the hazard incurred by every boat that goes to sea in the interval, this seems to a passenger a generous time allowance!

On the night last October when eleven transatlantic steamships went to the rescue of the survivors of the *Volturno*, the *Kroonland*, on which the writer was a passenger, carried 34 lifeboats and 26 seamen, less than one seaman for a lifeboat. There were approximately 1,700 souls on board. The sea was unspeakably terrible. There was at one moment imminent danger of collision with one of the rescuing steamships. If the threatened collision had occurred, the loss of 136 lives on the *Volturno* must have been far exceeded by the loss on the *Kroonland*. No one who lived through that terrible night can ever be convinced that the safety provisions of Senator La Follette's bill are excessive. Indeed, the report of the general secretary upon that experience suggested the endorsement of Senator La Follette's bill by the National Consumers' League at its annual meeting last November.

+ WHEN DISASTER COMES +

Part I. Types of Disasters

GREAT EMERGENCIES . . .	ERNEST P. BICKNELL
EARTHQUAKE	R. R. BELKNAP, Lieutenant Commander, U. S. N.
MINE EXPLOSION	J. BYRON DEACON
SHIPWRECK	W. FRANK PERSONS
TORNADO	EDITH GRANT
INUNDATION	R. L. HIMES
FAMINE	GUY W. SARVIS
CATCHING THE TIGER . .	WINTHROP D. LANE

Part II. The 1913 Floods

THEIR COMING	INTRODUCTORY
THE STATE ACTS	GEORGE F. BURBA
NATIONAL RESPONSE . .	LEWIS E. STEIN
RELIEVING SCATTERED COMMUNITIES	CHARLES M. HUBBARD
A RELIEF AGENT'S EXPERIENCES	JOHANNE BOJESEN
RELIEVING A CITY . . .	EDWARD T. DEVINE
PREVENTION TODAY . .	MORRIS KNOWLES

Modern Relief in Great Emergencies

Introducing Part I

Ernest P. Bicknell

NATIONAL DIRECTOR, AMERICAN
RED CROSS

EVERY disaster carries over into dependence some who have previously been able to maintain themselves. These may be families of men whose lives the disaster has destroyed, or those with little earning power whose income has been cut off by the destruction of the small properties in which their savings have been invested. They may be those of advanced years who have lost employment because of the disaster and cannot re-adapt their lives to new conditions of work. But whatever the individual story may reveal, the outstanding fact remains that all have been self-supporting members of society. Now, in an hour, they have been swept from their feet. Henceforth they are to be a burden upon society, hopeless, helpless.

A disaster also reduces the level of life in a community by destroying a part of the accumulated assets of the people, by crippling the machinery and interrupting the established processes of production and distribution, and by discouraging and depressing the individual loser who retains his independence at the price of years of struggle and anxiety. A disaster, therefore, increases the burden of dependence which a community must carry and at the same time decreases

the community's burden-bearing capacity.

Superficial study of this subject is enough to show its importance. Recall only a few of the disasters of recent years—the Galveston flood, the San Francisco earthquake and fire, the Messina earthquake, the Monongah, Cherry, Dawson and other mine disasters, the wrecks of the Titanic and the Volturno, the Washington Place fire, the Baltimore fire, the Michigan and Minnesota forest fires, the Mississippi river flood of 1912, the flood in the Ohio and Mississippi rivers, in 1913, the Omaha tornado—with their destruction of thousands of lives, their direct injury to the person or property of more than 1,500,000 men, women and children, and their annihilation of property worth more than \$1,000,000,000.

And though the disasters mentioned are among the greatest, scores of others which have called for the sympathy and help of the people of the United States have occurred within the last twenty-five years, each with an awful toll of destruction.

Continuing necessity for philanthropic

activity in our larger cities has made these places educational centers in which great advances in the scope and methods of social service have occurred in the last generation. Study, experience and publicity have awakened keen interest in measures for preventing and correcting conditions which produce poverty and disease. Social work has gradually become a well-defined profession, and the social worker must be a student of principles and causes as well as an efficient administrator.

During the earlier years of this intensive movement, relief operations following disasters were strangely exempt from its stimulating and progressive influence. This is probably to be accounted for by the fact that disasters are widely separated geographically, and differ greatly in character and extent. No community is likely to suffer from more than one or two great disasters in a life-time, and when these have occurred, all hands have turned out to form a temporary relief organization and get the task over as quickly as possible, with a minimum of attention to the principles involved, or to the comparative value of this method or that, in the restoration of normal conditions and the rehabilitation of individuals. The



method of procedure was somewhat analogous to the old systems of rough-and-ready surgery or dentistry.

It was not until the American Red Cross, after its reorganization in 1905, began systematically to study and direct disaster relief operations that principles and methods applicable to relief work of this character received serious attention. One of the earlier steps which the Red Cross took in the direction of greater efficiency, was the enlistment of strong charity organization societies in the larger cities under an arrangement by which these societies agreed to lend trained social workers to that organization for service in disaster relief.

The Red Cross, with these trained recruits and its existing records of methods and experience, began the accumulation of a body of knowledge to be drawn upon for suggestion or guidance with each new disaster. The consequent increase in efficiency in dealing with large problems of emergency relief has gradually become generally known, with the result that people everywhere have come to expect higher standards in methods of emergency relief administration and more rigid accounting for relief funds.

Directing Relief Operations

The Red Cross is more and more relied upon to direct relief operations. In the twenty-four years between 1881, when the organization was created, and 1905, the Red Cross was called upon to assist in twenty-one disasters; during the nine years between January 1, 1905, and January 1, 1914, it was called into

disaster relief service in sixty instances. During the twenty-four years first mentioned, the Red Cross is said to have received for relief purposes, money and supplies amounting to about \$2,300,000, of which \$300,000 was in cash, while during the nine years ending January 1, 1914, the money and supplies entrusted to it for relief purposes have amounted to over \$12,000,000, of which \$8,500,000 has been cash.

These figures illustrate the growth of an intelligent public interest in all matters of philanthropy and a readiness to respond to a serious attempt to introduce efficiency and accountability into the great field of emergency relief.

No general statement concerning disaster relief is complete which omits reference to the vital part performed by the people of the communities suffering from disaster. On them rests the responsibility for taking the first and instant steps toward rescue and relief. They must act without opportunity for careful consideration or for the preparation of plans of procedure. Though they themselves may have suffered the loss of property or friends, the leaders of the community must lay aside personal considerations and devote themselves unstintingly to the task of saving the lives and property of their fellows. The circumstances attending this work during the first hours following a disaster are of so distracting a character, the distress, confusion and uncertainty are so overwhelming, that I have been surprised, repeatedly, at the effective manner in which

relief committees have been organized and have set about their tasks.

Not alone the first work of relief following a disaster, but a great part of the entire relief administration from beginning to end, must usually fall upon volunteers drawn from the community itself. Representatives of the Red Cross or others experienced in emergency relief work, introduce system in investigation—keeping records and accounts, and laying out and executing plans which have for their purpose provision for each needy family, of the kind and amount of assistance best adapted to meet its particular circumstances. The trained leader gives direction and continuity to the work, conserves the relief funds so as to prevent their exhaustion during the emergency days, in order that a proper proportion may be retained for the time of rehabilitation, and guides operations through the difficult stage of transition from the period of dealing with people *en masse* to the period of dealing with them individually. The success with which all these important steps are carried out, however, depends upon the intelligence and devotion of the volunteers, who must always far exceed in number the experienced administrators.

First Aid Principles

A question often asked is, "What are some of the first steps which a community should take after the occurrence of a great disaster?"

It may be said that the first step in organization, no matter what the nature of the disaster may be, is to form a central committee, to which should be given complete control of all relief operations of whatever character. It is only by the establishment of one center of authority that order can be brought out of confusion and effectiveness take the place of futility. Personal opinions and ambitions must be completely subordinated to centralized direction and responsibility. In order that this central committee may command the respect and confidence of the community, it should be composed of representatives of all the strong philanthropic organizations and of the business, professional and wage-earning elements of the population. If the disaster has affected chiefly people of a single nationality or religion, it is well to give especially generous representation upon the central committee to the class most affected.

A central office or headquarters should be immediately opened, with a sufficient force of assistants and clerks to attend promptly to the great number of demands which will at once pour in. Nothing is more discouraging or more productive of complaint than long delay in obtaining attention or information. Promptness is vital. Quick decision at the risk of occasional error is preferable, in the first hours, to extended deliberation and discussion.

A bureau of records or registration should be established at the very first. The records need not be extensive, but an attempt should be made from the beginning to record the chief facts in regard to every person reported to be in need of help. The name, address, number of members in the family, with their ages, and some principal facts in regard to the losses sustained may be recorded in a moment. It is not unusual for persons without previous experience in such work to feel that the taking of this record is a cause of unjustifiable delay. It is often referred to as "red tape." As a matter of fact, experience has demonstrated that confusion, delay and unintelligent action are an almost invariable result of a failure to make the simple record described, at the first possible opportunity.

The people themselves not only do not resent the request for this information, but anxiously desire to give it. By providing a sufficient number of assistants to take down statements, the delay is scarcely appreciable and the central committee is given a solid groundwork for positive action from the start. These simple preliminary records can be expanded easily later, when the emergency relief period has passed and the time for deliberate consideration of each family's especial needs has arrived.

The central relief committee, though retaining supervision and direction of all relief measures and the control of expenditures, should not fail to take advantage of every man's anxiety and ability to hasten his own re-establishment. Individual initiative and industry should not be repressed, but as far as practicable, should be directed into the most effective channels. As a man's chief interest following a disaster is to restore his home or other property, it is natural that he will exert his maximum of energy and industry in relief operations if he can be set at the rehabilitation of his own affairs. While many men must be employed in relief work which has for its purpose the general welfare, this principle of directing an individual's activities toward his own greatest interest is of extreme importance and should be recognized whenever practicable.

Peculiarities of Disasters

It will be found that the idleness and discontent which often follow the occurrence of a disaster are most likely to occur among those who are unable to get at the work of restoring their own fortunes or those whose losses are of a character which they cannot personally repair. Time drags incredibly for the man whose home and property have been destroyed and who must helplessly await the action of a relief committee. It is not strange that he becomes impatient, nervous and discontented. Give him the

repairing or rebuilding of his own property, provide him with the simple tools and materials necessary, and industry and new hope will quickly take the place of pessimism and complaining.

Beyond these broad general rules and principles, it is obvious that methods which a committee may adopt in one instance may be inapplicable in another. Much depends upon the character of the disaster.

For example, a mine disaster does not destroy the home or property of a man, but destroys the man himself. The problem then becomes one of the proper care of the widow and her children. In the case of a flood, the waters may not subside for a considerable period, and the problem then becomes one of providing a temporary shelter. The people must wait until the water recedes and gives them an opportunity to begin the work of restoration. In the valley of the lower Mississippi river, flood waters subside so slowly, that it is sometimes necessary to provide for the shelter of refugees for several weeks.

IT will be found that idleness and discontent are most likely to occur among those who are unable to get at the work of restoring their own fortunes. Give them the repairing of their own property, and industry and new hope will quickly take the place of pessimism and complaining.

In the case of a cyclone or fire, destruction is quickly accomplished, and the work of clearing away and rebuilding can begin within a few hours. A disaster which not alone destroys a man's home but also takes away his employment, is doubly serious and brings into the work of a relief committee many difficulties and complications.

Every disaster brings its own peculiar problems, for which no ready-made solution is available. In their analysis, and in the discovery of simple and effective solutions for them, the value of the experienced executive is apparent. An incident illustrative of the adaptation of a solution to an unusual problem occurred in connection with the relief following the great storm in Key West, Florida, in 1909. Many of the sufferers from that storm were fishermen, whose loss consisted in the destruction of their boats. This loss entirely deprived them of a means of livelihood. The representative of the Red Cross sent to Key West solved the problem by employing them to rebuild their own boats. They were paid daily wages while employed, and were thus enabled to provide for themselves and families. As

soon as the boats were completed, the daily wages ceased and the fishermen resumed their usual occupation. There is no doubt that the principle involved in this instance is capable of a wider application in emergency relief operations.

Because of steadily increasing demands upon the Red Cross for assistance following disasters and epidemics, and in developing first aid instruction, town and country nursing and other activities, it has become necessary to strengthen its staff and to expand its organization in several directions. The most recent development of this character consists in the increase of the staff of the national director by providing for the appointment of four assistants. The United States has been separated, for administrative purposes, into four parts, to be known as the Atlantic, Central, Mountain and Pacific divisions. One of the new assistants has been assigned to permanent headquarters in each of these sections, with the title director of division.

The Division Directors

Charles Jenkinson has been appointed director of the Atlantic division, with headquarters in the National Director's office in Washington. This division includes all territory east of the Ohio and Mississippi rivers.

The Central division includes the states of Ohio, Michigan, Indiana, Wisconsin, Minnesota, Illinois, Iowa, Missouri, Arkansas and Louisiana. Headquarters for the Central division will be established in Chicago, but a director in that division has not yet been appointed.

The Mountain division consists of the states of Idaho, Montana, North Dakota, South Dakota, Wyoming, Utah, Colorado, Nebraska, Kansas, Oklahoma, New Mexico and Texas. S. Poulterer Morris has been appointed director of the Mountain division, with headquarters in Denver.

The Pacific division includes the states of Washington, Oregon, California, Nevada and Arizona. Charles J. O'Connor has been appointed director of the Pacific division, with headquarters in San Francisco.

The directors of divisions will ordinarily devote themselves to the organization of chapters of the Red Cross in the more important cities and towns, and to the promotion of continuing educational work, which is intended, through instruction in first aid, elementary hygiene, home care of the sick, and nursing in country and town, to reduce the number of accidents in industry and commerce, to minimize their disabling effect, and to improve standards of health, hygiene and sanitation among those to whom these subjects have not been presented in an effective manner. On the occasion of great disasters, the directors of divisions will represent the Red Cross in the organization and direction of relief operations.



HOTEL BUILT BY THE AMERICAN CONSTRUCTION PARTY IN QUEEN ELENA'S MODEL SETTLEMENT

Earthquake Relief Work at Messina and Reggio

ON December 28, 1908, southern Calabria and northeastern Sicily were visited by one of the most disastrous earthquakes of history. Much has been told of its shocking distress; but only those who were on the spot soon after the catastrophe could appreciate the ruin and horror, misery and madness of the first few days in Messina and Reggio.

The shock came at twenty minutes past five in the morning, as the ruined tower clocks mutely testified. Of the poorer classes, who were up and about, comparatively few suffered injury. But Messina had many wealthy residents, and more of them than usual were in town for the holidays. Thousands were killed instantly, buried beneath the ruins of their houses. Some escaped to the streets only to be struck down there or to die of exposure.

A city of 140,000 inhabitants, closely built, with narrow streets, was utterly destroyed in a few minutes. Five-story apartment houses were left a heap of rubbish; scarcely a building in the city escaped uninjured. Perhaps the most striking indication of the utter collapse is that no hint of the disaster reached Rome until nightfall.

How the Italian sailors and soldiers, in spite of their own heavy losses, began at once the rescue, and how relief soon came from all the world has been fully told. Practically every nation helped. France sent a complete hospital train to convey the injured. Germany, with her genius for preparedness, had a complete field hospital of sixty beds, with the necessary staff and abundant extra supplies, all shipped by rail within twenty-four hours. The English organized committees and took a prominent part in the first relief, as well as in the longer continued work of recovery that followed when the emergency had passed. It would be vain to attempt here to do justice to the generosity with which

Reginald R. Belknap

Lieut. Commander U. S. N.

FORMER NAVAL ATTACHÉ AT BERLIN
AND ROME

relief poured in from every side.

Especially from America and Americans the contributions came thick and fast; and it devolved upon Lloyd C. Griscom, our ambassador in Rome, to administer funds rapidly mounting to hundred thousands. From the hasty dispatch of immediate relief, he turned to organize other measures. From the first day, the American women in Rome had been gathering and making garments and collecting supplies of various kinds. These, with as much more as could be purchased, were needed at the front with the least possible delay. But could they be sent with all transportation already taxed to the utmost?

The Expedition

The plan evolved was to charter a ship and fit her out at Civitavecchia, which lies to the northward of Rome but nearby, and so would be clear of the traffic congestion. From there she could go to Messina or elsewhere, as the Italian authorities might indicate. This decision was taken Saturday morning, January 2. Before noon of that day Mr. Griscom had formed the American Relief Committee, and all of its members had set themselves industriously to work. The American Red Cross cabled approval of this plan and adopted the expedition as its own.

The following Monday at 6 p. m., the North German Lloyd steamer Bayern, then in reserve at Genoa, was secured. Consul General Smith at Genoa purchased provisions and supplies for her cargo to the amount of 85,000 lire, or \$17,000; and a report came from him

The cost of this expedition to the American Red Cross was over \$80,000.

Tuesday afternoon, saying that the Bayern would be ready at Civitavecchia, all loaded, Thursday morning. Thursday morning, therefore, the expeditionary party left Rome by special train and at four o'clock that afternoon, seventy hours after chartering the steamer, the Bayern sailed with us for Messina.

The ambassador, Mr. Hooper, Mr. Gay, and myself represented the committee, I being in executive charge of the expedition, Mr. Hooper treasurer, and Mr. Gay in general charge of the supplies. The eleventh day after the earthquake the Bayern arrived. As the situation in Messina was then well in hand, General Mazza, who was in chief command in the whole stricken area, recommended our going to Reggio, Catania, Palermo, and possibly also Syracuse, where there were many refugees and wounded but, so far, little help in proportion to their needs.

The wreck of Reggio was almost as complete as that of Messina; but close proximity to the larger place across the strait had caused it to be all but passed over. The Italian army and navy were, however, accomplishing great things. Captain Cagni had sent four-fifths of his crew of the cruiser Napoli away on relieving expedition, among the cutting small villages and into the mountains; and he wanted our supplies for a second series of these trips. As his eye ran down our list, he showed particular satisfaction over the women's and children's clothing. All his ship's signal flags had gone to make skirts for women. He took also shoes, oil stoves, tent canvas, cooking and table utensils, tools, and nails, besides large quantities of provisions.

Some of our party who went on shore at Reggio reported that groups of mourners were frequently encountered, and that the whole atmosphere was of controlled grief and stern activity. Search parties were still at work, and on the

day of our visit a little girl of seven years was rescued. No one paid any attention, however, to a house dog on the third floor of a half-ruined dwelling. One shot would have ended his misery, but the poor brute was left to run back and forth, howling, now and again preparing to jump, and as often shrinking back. When we returned a few days later, he was gone.

Visiting the Fugitives

At Catania, hundreds of fugitives crowded the city. In one building alone 780 of them were quartered. I shall not soon forget my visit to three hospitals. As we entered one large ward, our guide said "Here all are fracture cases," mostly head and shoulder injuries. In some other rooms, one needed no guide to read the blank look of a lost mind.

The authorities and the townspeople had worked hard and devotedly. It was a gratification to help them, and to be able to turn over to them large quantities of clothing, provisions, medical supplies, and miscellaneous articles to distribute, and a considerable sum in money. A good supply of provisions, clothing, shoes, blankets, medical dressings, and miscellaneous articles was delivered also to a committee of Americans and English that were working in the small towns along the coast just south of Messina, which had suffered severely but were too small to attract relief from outside. By this time it was known that the Bayern's hospital accommodation was not to be used; so all the clean bed linen in the ship was turned over to this committee. We lent them also one of our English nurses; and finally left 10,000 lire in their hands for relief purposes.

At Reggio Captain Cagni had asked if we had any lumber. We had none; but in Catania we bought for him enough for 25 shanties, 13 by 13 feet—all that could be obtained and loaded on board the steamer in one day. To this amount more was added by knocking down the steerage bunks, which would not be needed for refugees. The prefect said that the refugees neither wished to leave Sicily nor did the people and authorities wish to have them go.

Although the Bayern took no refugees from Catania, we were asked and officially authorized to take twenty-four orphan children to Genoa, for delivery there to a committee from the Province of Como. The Little Sisters of the Poor also were glad to avail themselves of the opportunity to send six of their number to Rome. They had either been hurt in the earthquake or were completely worn out by their subsequent exertions. Twelve old men and women were in their charge; and an Italian woman with three children came on board, on her way to join her husband in America.



WORKING ON A GROUP OF HOUSES

Returning northward, we spent two days at Reggio to raft our lumber ashore and deliver four more boat loads of clothing and provisions. That night we spent at Messina again, where we heard of a family rescued from the ruins after eighteen days' imprisonment.

Arriving at Palermo Saturday morning, our consul, Mr. Bishop, arranged to unload our remaining supplies quickly so that we could sail that evening. Holds and storerooms were emptied of everything remaining, including the steerage mattresses. These would furnish beds for 1,200 refugees, who were then sleeping on straw. Finally 30,000 lire were placed with the municipal authorities and the consul. By 7 o'clock nothing disposable was left, and the Bayern sailed away, homeward bound. Next evening, January 17, our party had disembarked from the steamer at Civitavecchia and by 8 o'clock were back in Rome.

Thus, in a tour of ten days we had delivered supplies for six places, amounting to 230,000 lire in kind and 115,500 in money. All was accomplished within fifteen days of the inception of the expedition, and with such quietness that many good people in Rome did not know an expedition was afoot until it had returned and disbanded. It was a dashing enterprise, almost spectacular, and

it made a great impression besides relieving much distress.

That was but one of several undertakings of the American relief committee. Fortunate was it that our ambassador was a man of such energy, ability, and tact. Two expeditions to Calabria (which suffered as much as Sicily, but received less attention in the distribution of foreign relief) were carried off with success and credit to those in charge.

If we are to pass on to the work of rehabilitation, in which America and her navy played an almost unique part, no space can be taken to tell how, without waiting for a congressional appropriation, the Celtic, Commander Huse, a naval supply ship lying in the Brooklyn yard, was loaded and dispatched in four hours after receiving orders, although many of her officers were off on vacations; nor how Admiral Sperry, who at the time of the earthquake was with our fleet in the Red Sea, dispatched two ships to Messina, where they arrived on the same day as the Bayern.

Of the United States government's gift of \$800,000, nearly half a million was devoted to the purchase and shipment of material for building some 3,000 small cottages. The Italian government had requested this, believing that our familiarity with wooden house construction would result in the most satisfactory outlay of that sum of money. This plan was agreed upon about January 15.

Relief Steamers

The navy pay officer in New York at once chartered four tramp steamers to load at New York, and a fifth at New Orleans. The New Orleans steamer and cargo were chartered for the American Red Cross, which contributed \$100,000 for steamer and cargo, afterwards adding \$60,000, which met the cost of



AMERICAN COTTAGES IN THE LEMON GROVE, MESSINA

constructing the cottages. Mr. Mudd, the pay director, had a sketch plan made of a 16 by 20 two-room, one-story cottage. On this he made contracts for about 11,000,000 feet of lumber, and doors, window sash, tools, nails, hardware, glass, roofing paper, wheelbarrows, shovels, picks, axes, fire extinguishers, stationery—all on the basis of constructing 3,000 of these cottages, working at several different places at the same time. The contracts were drawn up and placed in the space of forty-eight hours, yet all needs had been so well provided for that in the course of four months' work only a few supplementary purchases were found to be necessary.

Beginning to Build

Many persons have thought that portable houses were sent over to Italy. Forty-nine of these were donated by the Massachusetts Relief Committee, but it would have taken six months to manufacture 3,000. Moreover, as found in putting the 49 together, damage in handling or unequal exposure to weather made the parts join badly, so that they would not have answered the purpose.

Loading night and day, the British tramp steamer *Eva* was the first to sail, on February 1, with material for 500 houses, and two American carpenters to show how to build them. Meantime, the ambassador had designated me as his representative, to take charge of the distribution and erection of the houses. My instructions were to follow the wishes of the Italian authorities. Lieutenant Alfredo Brofferio was designated as my aide and the navy department lent the assistance of the Celtic temporarily, and the *Scorpion*, Lieut.-Commander Logan.

On Washington's Birthday, the Celtic, carrying the American construction party, moored in Messina. Fifty-six days had passed since the earthquake, forty-five of them cold, rainy days. Business was reviving, and the tide of recovery had begun to flow steadily. Our arrival was timely for quickening it.

The Italian civil engineers showed where we were to build, in a large lemon grove on the outskirts of Messina, one mile from the quay. A thousand houses were to be here, arranged in groups of twelve. Another thousand were to go up in Reggio—600 in the Palmi district, Calabria; 300 in the district between Messina and Tarmina, and 100 in the Queen's model settlement three miles away. Later, the number for Reggio was reduced to 500, and for Messina increased to 1,500.

The task was to convert the cargoes of four steamers into 2,500 standard cottages. The fifth steamer, with material for 500, was turned over intact to the Italian authorities at Naples, her

cargo to be shipped from there by rail to the various points in the Palmi district.

The outlook upon arrival was anything but encouraging. Ruin lay on every hand, clogging the thoroughfares and making passages at many points dangerous. Even the space on the quay for landing our cargoes was limited. The material had to be transported more than a mile over a crooked, difficult route, by slow-moving ox-carts, of capacity infinitesimal compared with the steamer's huge bulk.

At best the workmen were indifferent, little accustomed to American tools or wood-working. Many of them were unused to manual labor of any kind. And no one had the least idea of working quickly. So little was accomplished in the first two days that the task in contemplation looked hopeless. "We'll be here until September," said one. "About June 15," I returned. And though a mere guess, it proved a happy one.

Work began with two American carpenters, two of our own naval carpenters, and a dozen native carpenters and laborers. About thirty American sailors were used as leaders of native gangs, small and large, at various kinds of work in our unique construction party. Lieutenant Buchanan managed the work in Messina, where in eight weeks the force employed grew to over 800, with a weekly payroll of 25,000 lire. In Reggio, Ensign Wilcox was the head of a similar organization of nearly 500.

The Effect of a Bonus

Unloading cargo and carting to the building site were done by contract, but we had to follow it closely. During the first month a sailor accompanied each group of carts, in order to prevent loss by theft and endless delay on the road. The expedient of a copper coin to the driver, 2 cents for each load of lumber delivered on the building site, increased the rate of transportation three-fold. The first aim was to strike in deep quickly, so as to enlist every man's pride and determination to make a creditable outcome; and the second was to make a good showing early in the undertaking in order to give encouragement to our own party.

Only seven American carpenters had been originally engaged in New York; but a cablegram brought nine more within a month. For three weeks we worked at maximum speed, taking on new hands every day to the limit of our increasing ability to manage them. Difference of tongue proved less of a handicap than had been expected. A good many of the Messinese had worked in America, and these flocked to us for employment. Among them were found a few reliable leading men. Several boys too young to work made satisfactory interpreters.

It was not long, however, before our American carpenters found that the most effective way to deal with inefficient working was to jump into the midst of a group and with swift telling strokes of hammer or saw, show how the trick should be turned. After a few weeks the handling of their men by some of these carpenters was masterly. One man managed single handed two hundred men working in fifty separate groups.

176 Houses in One Week

While the first group of twelve houses was building, for the camp, the original plans and framing were studied and altered, so as to eliminate every unnecessary piece of material. Since each piece of wood had two ends to be trimmed, every piece that could be dispensed with from one house meant 2,000 fewer items of work for 1,000 houses, not to mention the considerable saving of labor in handling, and the saving of material itself for other purposes. In this way, except as to roof and flooring, we saved fully 10 per cent. That and other savings, and some extra material sent in the later cargoes, made up enough to build a hospital, two schools, a large work room, a church with monastery attached, and a good sized two-story hotel.

Another modification of the original house plan was the addition of a kitchen. This had a brick floor and two adjoining walls of brick, forming an angle in which was a fireplace with two iron grates, all of native pattern, so that a family would find everything familiar. But for this addition, the American cottages would have been distinctly inferior to those the Italians were building; and doubtless some houses would have been set on fire.

The most difficult part of the work was that of the enclosing gangs, four men to a house. These, therefore, became the pace-makers, and it was thought at first that two houses a week by each enclosing gang would be a good average rate. By gradually increasing the force to fifty enclosing gangs, we might in time build 100 houses a week. Such was the estimate; but after some discussion as to the probable result, a bonus of one lira (20 cents) was declared to every man of an enclosing gang for every house completed. The effect on the building rate was immediate; and instead of only 100 houses a week, there were 176 in the best record week, 174 the next, or 350 in a fortnight in Messina alone. The count for one day was 36 in Messina and 20 in Reggio. This was at the end of April and showed a well-sustained enthusiasm, after nine weeks' labor.

The site selected for Queen Elena's model settlement, called Villaggio Regina Elena, was a small suburban property,

about two miles north of the municipal palace and three miles from the American building zone. Under the leadership of Captain Bignami, a naval constructor, a party of Italian sailors and infantrymen built up a good-sized village, of small wooden houses, two or three stores, various workshops, schools, and a church. The streets were well laid out, lighted, graded, and guttered; there was a small park, with flowers and shrubbery; and provision was made for continued resident control, so that the settlement might really be an example in cleanly and well ordered living.

In accordance with invitation, we built 75 of our houses here; and as a special gift of the American Red Cross, a sanatorium, called the Elizabeth Griscom Hospital, was added. Our best workmanship was done on these buildings, to have them in keeping with the Italian part of the village.

Other and larger buildings were undertaken at the suggestions or with the approval of the Italian authorities—hotel, church, schools, and adjacent buildings, all solid, permanent structures. For this work the natives were not sufficiently skilled, so a request was sent to Switzerland for carpenters. Twenty-seven were sent down.

Outside Messina, Reggio, and Villaggio Regina Elena, we did no extensive work, merely erecting the 49 por-

tables and building a number of model houses for the local workmen to copy. For these places a special design of house was made, the simplest possible; because the native carpenters were unskilled, and in the mountainous localities the transportation problem was a serious one.

Occupying the Houses

Our work being practically finished, it was decided to withdraw our party on June 12. A few days before that, the construction gangs were reorganized, to continue as before, but at a less rapid rate, and under supervision of their own foremen instead of our carpenters. After our main body left, Ensign Spofford stayed on with a few carpenters until July 1, to see the paint and kitchen contracts completed and to tie up other loose ends.

Thus the American work ended. We had built 1,900 cottages, and 12 larger buildings, equivalent in labor and material to 270 cottages more; while other material, enough for 1,000 houses, had been delivered to the Italian authorities, for use at various points. For every day we had been in Messina, counting Sundays, holidays, and days of weather too bad for work, fifteen cottages had been built.

The occupation of the houses began about May 1, 307 in the first fortnight,

more than 800 by June 10. Their assignment for occupancy was in the hands of a local committee appointed by the prefect. Before leaving Messina, we had the satisfaction of seeing many of them filled, by needy families of all degrees of life. I have since learned from time to time of the continued usefulness of the cottages; of the wholesome influence of their orderly arrangement and attractive appearance. The church and the schools are in constant use; the hotel has become the center of the better class of life. But better than all that was the vitality that our enterprise contributed toward the restoration of the city.

The question has often been asked: "Are they grateful?" "Do you think they appreciated it all?" I have never doubted it. The houses speak for themselves. They were accepted with genuine pleasure and satisfaction, by both tenants and officials. What counted most, however, was the spirit in which the work was done. Our steady industry, energy, and cleanly and orderly living made a deep impression. And I think the genuine feeling toward us is well summed up in the parting words of the retiring prefect that "we had dwelt among them like brothers," and had rendered "great support to the cause of public order and tranquility throughout this trying period."

How a Mine Company Helped its Sufferers

THAT adequate compensation for industrial accidents, when they come singly, is justly chargeable to the operating cost of an industry has been accepted by many business men, but a holocaust is usually regarded as calling for community charity, for "disaster relief." Not always, however. The following account tells how a mine company met an explosion that killed ninety-six of its employees, by voluntary applying the principle of a workmen's compensation bill then pending in the state Legislature.

The explosion occurred April 23, 1913, in the Cincinnati mine located in Washington County, Pa., about forty miles south of Pittsburgh. This mine is operated by the Monongahela River Consolidated Coal and Coke Company, a subsidiary of the Pittsburgh Coal Company. The explosion was caused by gas liberated in a coal vein.

Within two days after the explosion the Associated Charities of Pittsburgh, an institutional member of the American Red Cross, had a representative on the field for the purpose of ascertaining whether Red Cross assistance

J. Byron Deacon

GENERAL SECRETARY, ASSOCIATED CHARITIES, PITTSBURGH

were necessary. Scarcely half the bodies of the victims had been recovered.

The representative tried first to learn whether the Pittsburgh Coal Company would pay the dependent survivors the sums due in wages earned by the deceased. The third day following the disaster was pay day. The entire mining force had worked full time between the last pay day and the time of the explosion. The minimum daily wage paid by the company was \$2.62. Sums varying from \$20 to \$35, therefore, had been earned by the deceased miners in this period. The company assured the Red Cross that prompt payment of wages due would be made.

These payments enabled the families to provide for their immediate needs. The company further assumed responsibility for burial of the decedents, limiting the funeral expenses to \$75.

The attitude of the Red Cross toward the company was consistently one of assumption that the company intended

and was prepared to recognize and discharge its full measure of moral responsibility. To what extent this attitude shaped the course pursued by the company can, of course, be only a matter of conjecture. The relations between the two were cordial and helpful throughout.

Shortly after the disaster, Monongahela City, Charleroi, Washington and several small mining villages near the Cincinnati Mine simultaneously formed relief committees and raised funds, in the larger communities by press and pulpit appeals, and in the villages by church collections and house-to-house canvases. Industrial organizations also announced the appropriation of funds for relief. Groups of women representing churches and relief committees visited the afflicted families. At the outset the chief work of these women was the provision of mourning apparel for the bereaved, although in some instances they made cash contributions to the families. They wisely ceased the latter when they found that the company was providing adequately for the families' material needs.

As a result of meetings called on the

initiative of the Red Cross, at which representatives of all parties interested in the relief work were invited to be present, the Cincinnati Mine Relief Committee was formed. This was an informal organization created to co-ordinate the activities of the constituent groups. At the earlier meetings of the committee the Red Cross representative emphasized the fact that the coal company was prepared adequately to care for the temporary needs of the afflicted families and would doubtless make subsequent provision for their continued care. Emphasis was also placed upon the importance of not appearing to assume a responsibility which rested primarily with the coal company and secondarily with the labor organization, with which the miners, apparently without exception, were affiliated.

A week after the explosion two experienced social workers entered the field as agents of the Red Cross. During the next month they obtained comprehensive information respecting the status, resources and needs of the families. This formed the basis of action by the Cincinnati Mine Relief Committee in such incidental relief-giving as was found necessary, and also proved useful to the company.

Of the ninety-six men killed, forty were survived by widows living in villages adjacent to the mine. Thirty-two of these widows had eighty-seven children, all but eight under fourteen years of age. The remaining eight widows were childless. Eleven of the thirteen who reside in Europe are supposed to have one or more children, while two are supposed to be childless. Ten of the decedents were survived by relatives other than widows and children, who are living in the United States; in four instances the relatives were in no-wise dependent for their support upon the earnings of the deceased. Nine of the victims were said to have rela-

tives other than widows and children living in Europe. The remainder passed as single men (immigrants) about whose relatives, if any, it has so far proved impossible to gain information. Thirty-six of the victims were members of lodges which pay benefits in case of death, and fifteen carried life insurance, the policies ranging from \$100 to \$1,000.

The Compensation

The Cincinnati Mine Relief Committee soon resolved itself into a "case conference." It was arranged that no constituent organization should provide material relief in any case until it had been considered by the committee. The Red Cross field workers formed a medium of contact between the relief committee and the afflicted families. The majority of the committee members showed quick appreciation and made intelligent use of modern methods of investigation and treatment employed by the Red Cross workers. Indeed, the experience of the Red Cross representatives persuaded them that in their few weeks' activity they lived through a century's history of the attitude of society toward dependency.

Beginning with the indiscriminate material-relief-giving phase they were led to a perception of the need of the organization of material relief agencies and the co-ordination of these with other social forces and a recognition of the fact that those immaterial forms of sympathetic enlightened personal service are quite as necessary as the giving of material relief. The process completed itself in the full recognition, on the part of the agency primarily concerned, of its responsibility for making provision for the future of the families as a matter of social justice.

Within six weeks after the explosion the Pittsburgh Coal Company proceeded to take releases and to settle with the victims' relatives. The basis of

settlement was substantially as provided in the workman's compensation bill then pending in the Pennsylvania legislature, but which subsequently failed of passage.

Those eligible for compensation were widows and children, or in the absence of both of these, fathers and mothers, or, in their absence, brothers and sisters. The compensation was to continue for 300 weeks, or in the case of full orphans or abandoned children, until such children reached the age of sixteen years. It was to be computed on the basis of the decedent's average weekly earnings, exclusive of overtime, and paid periodically as wages were paid. The childless widow was by the bill allowed 25 per cent of the decedent's wage; the widow with one child, 40 per cent, and so on to a maximum of 60 per cent for the widow with five or more children. In the event of the remarriage of a widow payments ceased. Lump sum settlements were to be made on the basis of the compensation discounted one-third.

The settlements made under these general provisions have involved appropriation by the Pittsburgh Coal Company of sums ranging from \$650 to \$3,600 per family on the pension plan of payment, and from \$350 to \$1,050 on the lump sum basis. The pension payments cover periods of from forty-one to sixty-nine months. The monthly grants amount to from \$8.50 to \$37.50. As between lump sum and pension settlements the division of choice has been about even. The company has used every reasonable effort to effect settlements on the pension plan. The work is now practically completed. A recent canvass of the families by a representative of the Red Cross indicates in virtually every instance a present economic status as favorable as that existing immediately before the mine explosion.

Land Relief for Sea Disaster

W. Frank Persons

DIRECTOR RED CROSS EMERGENCY RELIEF
COMMITTEE, NEW YORK CHARITY
ORGANIZATION SOCIETY

ROMAN JABOULETSKI, eighteen months old, was delivered in health and safety to his parents in Minneapolis by a Red Cross nurse on the tenth of January. This youngster was the last to reach his destination of those who survived the wreck of the S. S. Volturno. On the day of the disaster he was rescued by a ship which carried him and his four brothers and sisters back to Liverpool. His parents, rescued by two different ships, were landed in New York and Philadelphia but speedily reunited. The children did not know whether their parents had been saved

or not, and the parents were equally in doubt concerning the children.

Upon arrival in Liverpool the children were all sent to the offices of the Uranium Steamship Company in Rotterdam, where they had embarked, to await news of their parents. Inquiry by the Red Cross Emergency Relief Committee brought the news of their safety, and immediately arrangements were made to have the children sent on

to New York. Roman, however, became ill with the measles. His sickness was prolonged, and in November his four brothers and sisters were forwarded without him to New York, and thence taken by an attendant to the parents in Minneapolis. When, two months later, Roman was finally placed in the arms of his parents, he failed to recognize them and cried bitterly when separated from the nurse who had cared for him on the last stage of his long journey.

The care given to this infant during his lonely journeys by land and sea is typical of the relief which often fol-

lows shipwreck. It indicates also the sympathy and interest with which those in helpless suffering were treated by the agents of the steamship company and by all others with whom the Red Cross Committee has been associated in this relief work.

Perhaps the most affecting reunion was that of Mr. and Mrs. Valentine Posantz. They had started to the United States in their old age. They were saved from the *Volturno* by different boats. The husband arrived in New York first. His wife was landed at Philadelphia. Each was heartbroken, believing the other dead. They had no friends in this country and no relatives in the old country. It was late in the evening when Mrs. Posantz arrived in New York from Philadelphia. She was taken immediately to the Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society, where her husband was staying. He was told to come downstairs, that a visitor had come to see him on an urgent matter of business. When he was brought face to face with his wife he could hardly believe it was she. The old man and woman were so overjoyed that they could not think of sleep that night and sat up until morning talking over their experiences. Mr. Posantz had work in Nova Scotia. They were provided with transportation, clothing, and a small sum for the purchase of household effects.

Clothes and Shelter

The story of the *Volturno* disaster well illustrates how, in these days of preparation for every kind of emergency relief, the peculiar difficulties of shipwreck are met on land. The *Volturno* burned on Friday, October 10. The disaster became known to the New York newspapers on Saturday afternoon. It was immediately reported to the Red Cross Emergency Relief Committee, and by its chairman brought to the attention of Mayor Kline. An appeal for funds was published the next day.

On Monday afternoon (a holiday) a full meeting of the committee was held. To this had been added four persons whose positions gave them special opportunities to be of assistance. These were the acting commissioner of immigration, the director of the Uranium S. S. Company, the executive secretary of the Council of Jewish Women, and the president of the United Hebrew Charities of New York. The writer was made director and Edna J. Wakefield, assistant director. The former had active charge of the organization of the work. Miss Wakefield, with assistants, had charge of the case work, under the general direction of an advisory committee, which met often to discuss individual cases, each one re-

ceiving full consideration.

There were 562 passengers on the *Volturno*. One hundred and three were lost. Of the 459 who were saved, 347 eventually came to New York on fourteen different ships, and 82 others were landed in Canada. Twenty of the survivors who were landed in Europe returned to their former homes.

The plans for shelter and for other temporary relief were well organized before any of the survivors arrived. The Council of Jewish Women collected new clothing in ample quantity, especially for the women and children. Its trained agents rendered invaluable assistance in locating and establishing the identity of relatives and friends of girls and women, as was necessary before they could safely be sent to their destinations. The Clara de Hirsch Home for Immigrant Girls opened its doors and freely gave the service of experienced workers for the shelter and care of unmarried girls. The Hebrew Sheltering and Immigrant Aid Society received practically all other survivors in its ample and hospitable Home, and willingly and efficiently cared for their temporary needs.

Many other immigrant societies generously offered their accommodations and assistance, as did also St. Vincent's Hospital. Four or five of the survivors were met by relatives who took them at once to their homes.

Twelve ships rescued the survivors, many of whom were first landed in different European ports. Many families were thus separated and widely scattered. The difficulty of securing an accurate list of the passengers, and the greater difficulty of learning who had been lost, became almost at once serious obstacles to plans for permanent relief. Because of their unusual character, the names of the survivors who were taken to Europe were not transmitted to this committee accurately. Many of them indeed seem not to abide by any orthodox orthography.

The wisdom of sheltering the survivors, so far as practicable, in a single place was demonstrated by the greater speed and efficiency with which necessary personal information was obtained, and by the immediate reunion of relatives upon arrival at the first place of shelter in this country. A considerable number of single men were cared for, after their first day on shore, by homes maintained for the care of immigrants of their respective races. In each of these clothing, medical attention and advice, assistance in securing employment, and temporary help of many other kinds were provided.

The survivors were enabled to communicate with their relatives in this country and abroad. They were at once put in touch with those who understood

their language and customs and thus relieved as far as possible from anxiety and uncertainty. Each one was accompanied to his train, given food for his journey, and advised how to find friends or relatives upon arrival at his destination. Messages were sent in advance and matters of transportation so carefully managed that no one of these bewildered people had any difficulty *en route*.

All the ships bearing survivors were met at the dock as they arrived. The inspection by the immigration officials was made on shipboard, and the survivors were taken in automobiles directly to places of shelter. Many of them were obliged to remain in New York for weeks before missing relatives could be found and an appropriate adjustment of their family affairs could be made.

The Cost

Among the 439 survivors who reached America were 53 family groups, 36 single women, and 237 men. A few of the latter had left families in Europe, though the great majority were unmarried. Not a single full orphan, nor a widow, arrived among the survivors. One man, seriously injured by exposure and over-exertion, died of heart disease soon after arrival, leaving a widow and two small children. He received the best of care at the Beth Israel Hospital.

To this family \$2,000 was given from the relief fund; to 41 other families gifts amounting to \$4,034.59 were made. To 35 of the single women \$830 was distributed, and to 61 of the single men, \$1,602.55. The cost of shelter, clothing and other temporary relief was \$1,300, making the total relief expenditures \$9,767.14. The principal loss of property was of clothing and bedding. Many saved what money they had.

The contributions amounted to \$6,513.64. This was increased by an appropriation of \$5,000 from the contingent fund held by the American Red Cross in Washington. Of this a considerable balance remains after deducting the cost of the services rendered. It was decided that it would not be possible to extend relief to the families in Europe of those who had been lost.

The relief appropriations were carefully determined in each case to meet the existing needs. They were not necessarily in proportion to the losses sustained. A large part of this money has been given for disbursement into the hands of other relief agencies in various cities, according to terms stated by the committee, thereby assuring to the Red Cross and the donors to the fund the best possible disposition of the contributions.

Applying Business Methods to Tornado Relief

Edith Grant

HANDLING a tornado relief fund is not included among the ordinary occupations of the business man; but that the task may be done in a businesslike manner is apparent from the experience of Omaha last spring. On the morning following the disaster, an organization came together almost by chance, born, as it were, of necessity. Its efficiency was the more surprising because nobody had been in the cyclone relief business before.

At ten minutes before six on Easter Sunday afternoon, March 23, 1913, after an unseasonably sultry day, Omaha was struck without warning by a tornado, which in a few seconds transformed a well-defined strip of the city, four and a half miles long and from a hundred feet to several blocks wide, from a tranquil, orderly region into one of utter

desolation, ruin and confusion, filled with houses completely or partly destroyed, heaps of bricks, stones and boards, scattered furniture, broken poles and tangled electric wires, overturned vehicles and household effects. The scene was made more appalling by sudden darkness, the shrieks of women and children, the screams and groans of the injured and dying, and those calling for help. Frantic men and women sought other members of their families or tried to rescue those imprisoned under fallen buildings before it was too late. Fire starting in many directions added to the terror.

Close on the heels of the tornado followed torrents of rain. After that came

bitter cold. The rain helped to put out the fires and to prevent a wide-spread conflagration. The cold added to the sufferings of the homeless and of those engaged in rescue work. Streets were impassable for vehicles and dangerous for pedestrians; street-car traffic was stopped; all gas and electricity was cut off and telephonic communication rendered impossible. The rest of the city was unharmed; just this long, narrow strip, passing through both the handsomest and the most thickly settled districts, which the storm chose for its inconceivably swift and furious course, lay in the city's midst, isolated and almost annihilated.

The work of rescue and ministering to the injured proceeded throughout the night. After that the first necessity was the preservation of law and order. The fire and police departments were immediately on the scene. Early Monday morning troops from Fort Omaha and two companies of state militia were sent through the center of the stricken district, and at an appointed time spread out in both directions, expelling all who had no reason for being there, particularly some who might have come to loot. The appearance of the boys in khaki, who could enforce their authority with bullets if necessary, inspired wholesome respect in the lawless and idle. For ten days this part of the city was under military guard.

Card-Indexing the Disaster

At ten o'clock Monday morning Mayor James Dahlman assembled a mass meeting of citizens, and a committee of fifty was at once organized. This body elected an executive committee of seven, but it was soon seen that even seven was too unwieldy a number to act rapidly, and four members of the executive committee were chosen to handle all relief work: C. C. Rosewater, chairman; D. B. Butler, J. M. Guild and E. F. Denison. They at once established headquarters in the Council Chamber of the City Hall, and there remained on duty day and night.

Their two leading principles were, to systematize the work by creating departments, and to fix responsibility and authority.

It was quickly decided that the first indispensable step was to ascertain by means of a census, the extent of the damage, and as far as possible the amount and character of relief needed. A card was devised and printed; and at noon Monday, two hours after the mass meeting, 150 men, who had been reached by telephone, met in the Commercial Club. Maps of the devastated region had meantime been prepared. The district



THE MORNING AFTER THE TORNADO



SIX WEEKS LATER

The northeast corner of Twenty-fourth and Lake streets, Omaha. The photographer stood in the same place for both pictures.

was divided into twenty-eight sections and a captain appointed for each, with five or six men under him. Thus, 125 picked men were out "on the field" by one o'clock, twenty hours after the storm, and were actively at work sizing up the situation, ascertaining the number of homes totally destroyed, or partly damaged, the financial condition of the families, whether the bread-winner was disabled, and what their most urgent necessities were.

Relief Stations

The committee next organized a force of stenographers and accountants, mostly volunteers, who gathered at headquarters Monday night. These office assistants classified and summarized the information contained on the cards as they came in, with the result that by midnight on Monday, the size of the problem was known with reasonable accuracy.

On Monday also the work of organizing the different relief stations and departments was begun. The city health officer was put in charge of the committee on medical aid. Under his supervision came the care of the wounded, distribution of cases among the different hospitals, assignment of medical assistants and nurses, and burying the dead.

The tornado-swept strip was next divided into six districts for the distribution of relief. A station was established in each, usually in a half-wrecked building and always in the very worst part where supplies were actually required. A seventh station was added later in the downtown district.

The relief station managers were autocrats in their districts. The principle in choosing them was to draft able men and fix their responsibility, to lay out broad, though well-defined plans for their respective work, but to leave to each the details of organization. All were \$10,000 a year men, not volunteers, though they served gratuitously. One, for example, was the general superintendent of the city's largest department store, another the manager of one of the principal jobbing houses. To the discriminating choice of these station managers the efficiency of relief distribution, was largely due.

The organization of each station consisted of two doctors, two trained nurses, two or three Red Cross and Associated Charity workers, somebody to keep the accounts and the card system, and from fifteen to thirty volunteer workers and investigators.

They did not wait for people to come to the relief stations but sent investigators out to hunt them up and get a detailed list of their needs. Some people had lost literally everything; others were dazed, and needed somebody to cheer them up and find

their friends. The stations were supplied with all sorts of necessities, flour, potatoes, canned meats, beans—substantial foods which would be both nourishing and easily assimilated. The army ration was used as the standard. Each of the stations handled in the course of twenty days something like \$20,000 worth of food supplies, clothing, and all sorts of miscellaneous articles, such as soap, towels, handkerchiefs, baby clothes, cooking utensils, dishes, cooking stoves, washtubs, tools and furniture.

Very soon sufficient quantities of outer clothes had been contributed, but underclothing was not so frequently given, and hence had to be bought. Also half-ton orders of coal had to be supplied. At first there was demand for overcoats and heavy winter clothing, but in two or three weeks it became warm, and an entirely different character of clothing was needed.

Some people had saved their furniture, but had no way of protecting it. For such cases a section of the auditorium was made a temporary storage place, and the head of one of the transferring companies was put in charge of transporting "homeless furniture."

No money was given under any circumstances. The committee or station heads had none to give. If a family were not able to rent a house, an order was given for one month's rent, and the landlord could cash it. People could get anything they required. If they were ill, orders were issued by station managers on grocery stores for eggs, milk, ice, or on drug stores for medicine. It was possible to make the system very elastic because of the high character and ability of the station manager. He was supreme in his district, and his order was good for anything anywhere. Whatever the relief, however, the committee emphasized the fact that it was simply neighborly assistance, to tide people over a temporary difficulty, not charity.

If a person attempted to get relief from two stations, he was discovered at once. A duplicate record of all relief given during the day came to central headquarters every night, was indexed and a copy sent to every station. Attempted duplications, however, were rare. During the relief operations the Auditorium, with a floor space of 132 by 264 feet, became a vast warehouse, filled with groceries, clothing, and sup-



WHAT THE TORNADO DID TO ANOTHER CORNER



WHAT THE CITIZENS OF OMAHA THEN DID
Twenty-fourth and Erskine streets, looking north.

plies of every kind which poured in from all sides. Clothing was fumigated, and then sorted as to character, size and condition, so as to be ready for calls from the relief stations. The committee obtained trucks from jobbing houses, breweries and other business places, and organized a system of distribution from the Auditorium to the relief stations, two or three miles from headquarters.

Omaha Self-Sufficient

Charles C. Rosewater, publisher of the *Omaha Bee*, directed the general organization of the work. He originated and executed the plan which formed the groundwork of the campaign—the census taking, the card system, and the idea of centering responsibility in different departments, while focusing the final authority and business management at the headquarters. It was much as if in a few days a concern was created to conduct a business of five million dollars a year; and it was largely due to this thorough and prompt systematizing that chaos was reduced to order so quickly.

In many practical matters the committee had the benefit of the active assistance of Major C. F. Hartman, in command at Fort Omaha, whose knowledge of military organization was most valuable, and of Capt. Stritzinger, a veteran of the San Francisco disaster.

All assistance from the outside was accepted gratefully. The largest single outside contribution to the relief fund was \$50,000, sent by the American Red Cross. It happened, however, that on the day following the Omaha cyclone, a still heavier misfortune befell the people of Dayton and other Ohio cities. Omaha felt that, while its calamity was great, the financial loss was not so large that a self-reliant and prosperous community could not in the main bear its own burdens. The result proved this conclusion correct. On April 20, the citizens' relief fund had reached a total of \$272,560, while the aggregate of relief in all forms was \$1,155,687. At that date the committee had paid out in cash only some \$85,000.

One of the first difficulties to be overcome was getting traffic under headway. It was impossible for the street commissioner to remove the debris fast enough, and so about the middle of the second week the committee worked out a "clean up" on a big scale. A sub-committee got jobbing houses, factories, and other concerns whose men were accustomed to heavy work, to lend them for this purpose. About four thousand of these men, mostly under their own foremen, put in the second Saturday following the tornado, and the Saturday after that, in clearing the streets, sorting out valuable material and piling it up for use in rebuilding. About

half of them worked on Sunday as well.

A committee from the Ministerial Union came to headquarters and objected to the Sabbath being profaned in this way. It was pointed out to them that as the Lord had permitted the tornado to destroy the city on Sunday, it did not seem as if there could be any reasonable objection to using that day to restore it. This volunteer street cleaning work was estimated to have saved the city \$10,000.

The park department put out all their men who understood such work to trim trees. Many were saved who would have been lost had it not been for prompt and skillful treatment.

Although they acted independently of the relief committee the public service corporations were of immense assistance in getting things going quickly. On the day following the tornado, five hundred linemen and other workers were brought to the city to repair the telephone system. Gas, electric and telegraph companies used prompt measures. By Thursday the street cars were running on almost normal schedule.

The Morgue

One memorable incident was the faithful service of the telephone girls at the Lake street exchange on the night of the cyclone. This station, in the very heart of the tornado swept district, was among the few buildings that escaped destruction, although its windows were shattered and the street approaches were strewn with debris. Major Hartman immediately seized upon it as temporary headquarters for his patrol, and likewise as a refuge for the injured and a morgue for the bodies of the dead. The girls on duty that night went to their posts as usual and stuck to their switchboards, in spite of the fact that in one corner of the room, until the undertakers arrived, the gruesome sight of the dead was perhaps little worse than that of the surgeons at work, rendering aid to the injured. Soldiers, who had been at once detailed into regular relief, snatched a brief nap in another corner, and others waiting for their patrol lounged smoking and talking in groups. An artist, looking for realism, could have found nothing more striking.

Rebuilding was the most difficult problem the Relief Committee had to deal with. Nearly 2,200 houses had been damaged and, of these, 752 were destroyed beyond repair. A committee of the Real Estate Exchange furnished a detailed report of the value of each piece of property involved. But much more had to be known. In the words of Mr. Rosewater: "The personal situation of each applicant had a bearing on the case; the age, earning ability of the members of the family, the amount of equity which they held

in the property originally, whether or not they received tornado insurance or assistance other than that rendered by the committee; and some forty or fifty other questions were necessary to be answered in order to act on any case intelligently."

The Apportionment

Day after day the committee sifted out this mass of information, not alone keeping in view the needs of the particular applicant, but determining what was the utmost that could be done for him without infringing upon the just claims of others. After June 4 no new applications were accepted. Then the apportionment began.

The building department of the committee furnished estimates of the amount of damage and cost of repair or rebuilding. The same system was adopted here as in the general relief work, furnishing labor and materials, but not giving the applicant money; only after the completed work had been inspected and certified to by the building department were vouchers issued. A great deal of labor was furnished and expense borne by individuals affected.

The self-reliant and helpful spirit of many—though this is an extreme case—is strikingly illustrated in the reply of an elderly mechanic when he presented his voucher for payment. The treasurer, looking at it, exclaimed, "Why, this is for only half the amount the committee awarded you."

"Yes," said the mechanic, "I know. Wife and I talked it over last night after supper, and we concluded that there were others who would need that money more than we do."

Assistance in repairing and rebuilding was rendered by the committee in 722 cases, the amount averaging \$397, and ranging from \$17.25 to \$1,250.

When the Relief Committee had completed their task they requested that a committee of review be appointed by the committee of fifty to pass upon all their acts from the beginning, and to make an audit of their accounts through a qualified public accountant. This was done, and they were relieved of their duties with a highly complimentary testimonial as to the thoroughness, efficiency and economy of the methods they had followed.

Not a cent had been wasted, not a deserving case had been refused all the relief to which it was entitled. If the members of the committee and their co-workers had been receiving large salaries, or if they had been working in the interest of a profitable concern in which they had a personal stake, they could not have employed more practical business methods, more vigilance, or more "hustle." As it was, they were working neither for glory nor for profit, but solely for the public good.

Why Not Emergency Relief Drills?

WE have fire drills in our schools and factories. Why not emergency relief drills for cities and towns? Why not require every mayor, before entering upon the duties of his office, to think out his course of action in case of disaster? Let us come back to this suggestion after seeing what emergency relief means.

A Mississippi river levee breaks. The waters spread over a wide area. Railroads are overflowed, and trains stopped. Animals, domestic and wild, seek the highest points of land. People move upstairs or into the attic. The waters will remain for weeks and possibly months. Pestilence and famine stare from out the murky tides.

How can relief be given to these people? This is not a problem in mathematics with only one answer.

The first element in the answer is, Do something. The example of decisive action inspires confidence, enlists support, and clarifies the atmosphere.

It is easy to say Do, but what shall be done? Conditions like these show how completely we are creatures of habit. We are born into a world that has certain ways of doing things. We learn our little routine and keep in our own particular rut for a while and then pass on and another fills the rut. When a great catastrophe has shattered the regular modes of action and the civic, economic, and commercial organization is out of gear, it is necessary to devise a plan that will grip the disturbed conditions, establish order in chaos, gradually disentangle the wrecks of property and lives, and save as much of both as possible. In doing this there are certain facts to be kept in mind.

Help Unfailing

The American people will furnish the means necessary to give such emergency relief as will probably be needed by any community in this country. In planning what to do, you can count on that. During the flood of 1912, when the friendly hills of Baton Rouge gave a temporary home to thousands who had fled from the Mississippi bottoms, some of the refugees found it very profitable to go begging from house to house and from store to store as "flood sufferers." When the matter was reported to the relief committee it promptly requested through the press that those in need apply to the relief offices, and that persons found begging on the streets be arrested and dealt with according to the discretion of the city judge.

Some people hold that the firmness of business rules is destructive of the spirit of charity. But professional

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PROFESSOR OF COMMERCE, LOUISIANA
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beggary is no compliment to the charitable spirit of a people. In emergency relief work strict business procedure is wise.

Disaster Publicity

The humanitarian spirit of our people expresses itself most largely through the American Red Cross. Therefore, one of the first things to be done is to tell the American people and the American Red Cross just what you need. To tell the people, tell the press; to tell the Red Cross, wire the national director, Washington, D. C. If the emergency seems to demand it, tell your government by communicating through your congressman and senators.

In giving the people the Red Cross, and the government the facts, do not report mere "hearsay." Get facts. This is difficult to do. Imagination is aflame and every fact is magnified out of all semblance to itself. There will be those who see in the general call for help an opportunity to get more if the tales of distress are made sufficiently harrowing. They come forward with stories of sickness, starvation, and death that, if true, would move the world to give. Investigate. Get facts. Establish the facts in the mouths of two or three witnesses, if possible. Further, arrange at the outset such a system of records as will preserve an accurate history of your relief operations. This record must be absolutely correct regarding cash receipts and disbursements.

Relief work is in none of its elements a money-making business. The occasion for it is the loss of life and property, and the chance of averting further loss. People give money, clothes, food, and services with no thought of gain to themselves, but with an eager desire to save others from crushing loss. Those who handle the charities should be imbued with the spirit of charity. The gift should be magnified in its power for good because it is handled by those whose only desire is to do good to their fellows. When other considerations than these enter the relief councils, beware.

"It is more blessed to give than to receive." A high-spirited man, though in distress, would rather suffer long than receive gifts. Free food and raiment dull the sense of independent thrift. Your relief measures are, therefore, an evil, but the least of the evils before you. Your aim should be to restore quickly the stricken community to self-support.

When the clamor for help was great-

est in one of our floods, a man whose spirit of charity was large, exclaimed that we should have a million dollars to "do for these people what they need."

"Yes," said one of better judgment, "if you had resources enough you would change that population of industrious farmers into a race of professional beggars."

Taking for granted, then, a prompt money response and clear-cut business methods, what needs should we plan to meet?

The requirements of relief will usually fall under the heads of order, health, food, clothing, and housing. These suggest five strong men as needed for chiefs of these departments. For the first, the chief of police, the sheriff, an army officer, or some person with courage and ability, may be selected. For health, organize the doctors into two divisions, sanitary and medical. They know what to do. For willing service in time of need, doctors as a class are unexcelled. For head of the commissary department a merchant who knows the grocery line and is a good organizer will do. Any person of executive ability can handle the clothing department. For housing, secure a resourceful person who can make a quick inventory of the available housing facilities and who can contrive by tentage, temporary sheds, etc., to meet the necessities of the case.

Your Organization

These requirements can best be met by definite organization. First appoint a relief manager or executive officer. Who shall appoint him? The community upon which the work devolves. The mayor may do it. The mayor and council may do it. A mass meeting for the purpose may do it. Do it now. Do not select a man for the job because he "has the time." The man who has the time has, in all probability, none of the other important qualities needed. The man you want is a man of executive ability who has a knowledge of men and affairs.

Having chosen him, call upon your people to co-operate with him in any way he requests. He will at once call to his aid a council of the best men in the community, one to be chief of each of the following offices: dispensation, survey and information, commissary, homes, treasury, sanitation, and medicine.

The chief of dispensation will call to his aid a number of workers to go among the people who need relief. What is needed will be reported to the chief in charge who will order from the proper department. Thus in a few hours people are at work among the needy.

Let it be supposed that the catastrophe

is a great flood. A division of the dispensary committee is out in the flooded area and finds human beings and live-stock crowded on a high spot of ground waiting for relief. It sends word by a swift launch to the nearest 'phone and calls for extra boats. The request goes to the commissary. That chief, we will suppose, has sent out all the boats that could be found. He at once calls for carpenters, sends for materials, and sets to work building flats and other convenient craft for the purpose, and dispatches them to the the scene of rescue.

Another division of the dispensary committee finds some sick people among those brought out of the flooded area. The medical department is called and the sick are taken to a hospital which that chief has already provided. The chief of sanitation calls a committee to his aid and makes a sanitary survey at once and follows it by taking such steps as will meet the emergencies.

I shall not forget the comfort I found in an able and energetic chief of the sanitary department here in Baton Rouge. We had some 7,000 flood refugees in and about this city. That was 30 per cent more than the normal population. A sanitary system good for a city in normal conditions is inadequate for a third more people, and our system

wasn't too good in the first place. I called an energetic, hustling, whole-souled, good common-sense Texan, a Christian minister, and said:

"Parson, what troubles me more than anything else is the sanitary condition of the sections where many of the poorer people among the flood refugees are finding homes. I want a man to go from square to square, from camp to camp, and if need be from lot to lot, and see just what the conditions are. Whenever they are not first-class, hire a squad of men and do whatever is necessary to make them first class. Will you do it?"

He did it. When the emergency was over and the people had gone back to their homes, it was declared by the physicians that there had not been the slightest increase of sickness due to the presence of the flood refugees. It cost money to do it, but the result was worth the price.

It is not necessary to go into further details. The first thing done, there will be little difficulty in finishing the work.

Since no community is exempt from the possibility of catastrophe, the leaders of each community should consider what should be done at once if disaster occurs. This brings us back to the question raised at the outset: Why not

emergency relief drills for communities? They would be of two kinds:

First, a drill in what we should do if our community were stricken. Under this point talk and plan plainly so that if the unlooked-for should happen, the organization will be ready in advance.

Second, what we should do if another community suffered? Using the same organization, take up a collection. Let every person give his mite. Big gifts are good and in the past we could not have done without them. But how fine it would be if the sum total were made up of a great number of small gifts! A penny from each family in this nation would make nearly a quarter of a million dollars.

One of the first things many of us think of is to send "old clothes." I don't like "old clothes." I have seen boxes and boxes, enough to make cars and cars, of them. Some of them are so very, very, *very* old! Pardon me, I would not appear ungrateful. I'm sure those to whom the clothes were given were delighted, and it's quite likely that the very old clothes came from me and my neighbors. But disease and sickness have so many chances for distribution through this medium that I vote against "old clothes" as an emergency relief measure.

Famine Relief in China

Guy W. Sarvis

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THERE are many things of special interest to the student of social questions in China at the present time, both in connection with the established institutions of the country and in connection with the transition which is now in process. One of the problems which is as old as the country itself and almost as old as the human race is the famine problem. It may be of interest however to have some account of the actual process of relief as I saw it last year in three different parts of the famine district.

The government of China in the past has been so loose-jointed that the idea of national supervision of the dykes along a great river like the Yangtze seems not to have occurred to the Chinese. On the contrary, responsibility for the maintenance of the dykes both along the large rivers and along the smaller streams and canals (with which the country is covered) is left with the villages and families occupying the land adjacent to the particular sections of the dyke in question. The dyke is therefore as strong as the laziest and most improvident family or the most unenterprising village makes it. In times of flood it is supplemented by a narrow embankment on top of the true dyke, and a wind-storm

means that this flimsy protection will be broken, the waters will begin to pour over the dyke, and in a few hours millions of dollars worth of property will be destroyed and many lives lost. A comparatively small increase in the initial expenditure coupled with centralized supervision of the entire dyke system would have saved all this loss except in times of the most extreme floods when, in the

opinion of Charles D. Jameson, the Red Cross engineer, no human power could control the waters.

Such being the conditions, money given to save the lives of the people who are starving does nothing toward remedying the cause of the suffering. It does save some lives, but the percentage saved is very small, and unfortunately the number degraded into beggary as a result of this sort of charity is very large indeed, if the testimony of missionaries in the afflicted districts may be accepted.

The primary cause of famines in China is floods, but there are several aggravating circumstances (what I am saying applies specifically to the lower Yangtze valley, although it may be true of other regions). In the first place it has been a regular practice of the rice merchants to take advantage of famine periods to get a "corner" on rice and raise the prices until they were prohibitive, so that many of the families who would otherwise have had sufficient means to weather the storm are ruined. They may starve or the daughters may be sold into slavery, or so much of the land may be sold as to make it impossible for the family to make a living in the future.

In the second place such "corners" in the market are the more easily effected



THREE SURVIVORS OF A FAMILY OF THIRTEEN



CHINESE HOUSES IN FLOOD

Because of the totally inadequate means of transportation. In all this region it is almost absolutely true that there are no means of transportation save by boat, wheelbarrow, and men's shoulders. Donkeys are used to some extent, but the wheelbarrow is of limited usefulness. Thus it is entirely possible for hundreds of people to starve from want of food even when they have sufficient wealth to buy food if it could be conveyed to them.

Laborers' Incomes

In the third place the great mass of the people live so very near the verge of starvation that one year of reverse means death to great numbers. Our teachers—men who are really educated and have spent years in obtaining their education, Chinese though it is—receive five dollars gold a month and board themselves and support large families. A working man in the country gets perhaps two to two and a half dollars gold a month and supports a family. This does not mean that there is some alchemy in China by means of which the purchasing power of money is multiplied many fold (although on account of the cheapness of labor it is greater). It really means that the average Chinese lives almost exclusively on very poor rice and coarse vegetables, that he spends almost nothing for clothing and housing and that he has absolutely no luxuries. Laying up for a rainy day is impossible under such conditions, and a crop failure means starvation.

In the fourth place the Chinese officials in probably the majority of cases have no other interest in relieving famine than the necessity of keeping the peace. If some relief is not provided the people will rebel. However, in this very connection it is a notorious fact that relief sent from Peking never reaches, in its entirety, the people for whom it is intended. The official hands through which it passes are all lined with "squeeze." So true is this that the people confidently believe that the missionary gets a big "rake-off" when he distributes relief to them. Last year a physician completely

wore himself out working for and with the famine sufferers, and when he was obliged to return to America for rest, the people said he was going home to spend the money he had made in famine relief work. It is not because the people are ungrateful but because there has been nothing in their past experience to lead them to suppose that anybody would have any motive for disinterested giving. So true is this that many of the missionaries are really skeptical as to the usefulness of famine relief work as a means of gaining influence with the Chinese—although it seems to me this must be a shortsighted view.

I do not make these statements with the intention of harshly criticising the Chinese, for I admire and believe in them, but simply as indicating their point of view about public relief. The same men who would steal the money given to save the lives of their starving countrymen will exhibit a most commendable honesty in business dealing and will be loyal to home and family in a way which probably has no parallel in any part of the world. The fact appears to

be that "squeeze" has become so thoroughly established in China that it does not seem dishonest to the Chinese—if done in moderation!

Some Relief Principles

It is evident from what has been said that the thing most to be desired in connection with famine relief in this country is a removal of the causes of famine in so far as they can be removed. Recognizing this fact, the Central China Famine Relief Committee last year adopted the following principles to govern its work:

(1) That relief be given only in return for work done except in the case of those incapacitated for work, and that as far as possible the workmen be paid in grain rather than with money.

(2) That in the selection of work, preference be given to such work as will help the locality permanently, and as tends to prevent the recurrence of famine conditions, and that each piece be complete in itself.

(3) That no work of reclamation be undertaken which it is possible to induce government officials or land-owners to have done.

(4) That the committee care, so far as lay in its power, for the sick in the famine regions, especially for those whose illness was due to famine.

(5) That the committee bring to the notice of the authorities and if necessary make public the failure of those responsible for carrying on conservation works to fulfill their duty, and that the committee report to the proper authorities any authenticated cases of cornering of grain and other matters of a similar nature.

The first famine region which I visited was above Wuhu, on the Yangtze River, where a very large dyke had been washed out last year and the current of the river



DISTRIBUTING GRAIN TO FAMINE SUFFERERS



A GROUP OF FAMINE SUFFERERS WHO HAVE JUST RECEIVED HELP IN MONEY AT SUCHIEN, CHINA.

had been diverted across the country, threatening to leave Wuhu (which is a flourishing river port) high and dry. One million acres of crops, the normal yield of which is over 500 pounds of rice to the acre, were destroyed in this region last year. Seven thousand people lost their lives in the floods. This does not include those who later died from starvation and disease due to insufficient and improper food.

The chief means of distributing relief in this district was by furnishing work on a larger dyke to replace the one washed out. This work was undertaken on condition that the Chinese gentry agree to finance and superintend a similar dyke further down the river. I visited both dykes and found that the Chinese were doing work far inferior to that superintended by the agents of the famine committee. Rev. Alexander Paul, of the Christian mission in Wuhu, superintended the committee's dyke. The railway engineer stationed at Wuhu gave his services in making the survey, and his Chinese assistant remained to aid Mr. Paul.

"Squeeze"

The history of the efforts of the Chinese to steal the funds of the committee is too long to be written here. From the gentry to the coolies the main interest seemed to be to get as much as possible out of the committee and do as little work in return as the committee would accept. Because of the difficulty of measuring the exact amount of work done in the earlier stages the men were paid a regular ration of rice per day and a very small sum in addition with which to buy vegetables. The first attempt at "squeeze" was in building mat sheds for the workmen. It was necessary to work through head men, as is always true in dealing with large numbers of Chinese. Money was furnished to build a specified number of sheds, each shed consisting of

a certain number of mats. The head men kept a percentage for each shed, making the roofs single instead of double. This was discovered and rectified, but the head men "lost face" and finally got even. The second effort to "squeeze" was made when the men were counted. At first the statements of the head men had to be accepted, but when a count was made, it was discovered that there were several hundred fewer than the 7,000 for whom rations were issued. Finally every man was labeled with the section to which he belonged, the total number of men being divided into groups of fifty each.

Mr. Paul and his assistants then flattered themselves that they had largely overcome the "squeeze pidgin" but later they found themselves mistaken. When the dyke got to the stage where the men could be paid for the amount of work they did instead of by time, it was found that they had been doing only about half work—that is the "squeeze" went to the coolies instead of the head men, the latter being disgruntled because they were deprived of what they considered their legitimate spoil.

The fact of the case is that it is very probable that the work would have been done quite as economically and more quickly if the head men had been paid a lump sum and been allowed to manage their workmen as they pleased and keep a percentage of their wages, which would have been exactly what the workmen would have expected—even though the wages were for famine relief and were under the current rate of wages. Before the work was finished the foreigners came to feel that there was hardly a Chinese on the job whom they could really depend upon to do his work honestly, and this in spite of the fact that the satisfactory completion of the dyke meant salvation for the homes of practically every man there, and in many cases meant actually the saving

of life for himself and for his family.

Finally, word came that since the river had risen it appeared that the Chinese engineer, either intentionally or carelessly, had failed to have the dyke finished to the proper height, and it had been necessary to get a large number of men to return to finish it in order to save it at all. Added to all these troubles was the fact that the foreigners in charge of the work feared that the Chinese officials might tax the ignorant people for the cost of the dyke, although pains were taken to assure them that the money was given and nothing would be asked from them.

Efficacy of Modern Methods

I have barely hinted at the difficulties encountered in the attempts to distribute relief by means of works of conservation which will tend to eliminate famine in the future. This was the first year this method had been adopted in China, so far as I can discover. The old way of distributing free relief was much simpler, although it was heart-breaking because it only touched the fringe of the problem and because it was the "down and out" to whom relief was given in most cases. There was no method of selection which was at all adequate. Under the Famine Relief Committee's method the funds were distributed to the persons most likely to survive and make good citizens, for if a man is willing and able to work at a wage below the market price, he is certainly worthy of relief. It seemed on the surface a heartless method, for it means that the weak and sick would die (for little was done last year in caring for the sick), but I have yet to find the person who was in touch with the actual conditions who did not feel that this method is incomparably superior to the old method. Not only is the relief more effective, but there is a great gain in that the people are not pauperized.

The Chinese have a proverb to the effect that after a man has begged three days he will never work. The actual experience of those engaged in relief works has been that the beggars would rather starve than work. One of the most terrible effects of famines is to produce hundreds of beggars who are a menace to the community both because they are non-producers and because the step from beggars to robbers is not a long one. I talked particularly with the foreign residents of the Huai River valley about the effect of famine on the character of the people, and they agreed that it lowered their moral tone seriously. Famine deprives them of stimulus to thrift and it deprives them of hope. It is significant that after several years of haphazard charity the missionaries and others concerned in the distribution of relief funds have come to the position accepted as a truism by students of phil-

anthropy, that giving something for nothing is almost certain to pauperize the recipient.

The Huai River region is especially interesting because of the peculiar condition of the country which illustrates several facts about China and the Chinese. The Huai River formerly emptied into the ocean through the Yellow River. Sixty-two years ago the latter changed its course so that it empties at present over two hundred miles further north than its old mouth. This indicates how very flat is this whole country. Many years ago it became necessary, in order to save the Grand Canal from being destroyed

by the Yellow River, to raise the dykes along the canal and thus shut off the outlet of the Huai. No provision was made for taking care of the water discharged by the Huai, and the result is that it is literally eating up some of the richest land in the whole country by turning it into a swamp. For hundreds of years now, in fact, since the advent of the Manchu dynasty, nothing has been done to conserve this country—which illustrates the attitude the Manchus have consistently taken with reference to conservation.

The greatest work of the famine committee last year was done in this region.

About fifty miles of dyke were constructed and approximately 200,000 people fed. In order to reclaim this rich region large sums must be spent in dredging, an enterprise far too large for any private company to undertake. The same type of difficulties as those encountered at Wuhu was met here. At least one foreigner died of typhus contracted in the famine district. In fact, it is expected every year that several foreigners will give their lives in this work—and yet the people fail completely to understand their motives, and take it as a matter of course that they are there for selfish reasons.

Catching the Chinese Tiger

Winthrop D. Lane

FLOOD, famine and relief for 2,500 years—a never-ending cycle, unbroken by study of causes or adequate measures of prevention; bits of patchwork here and there to lessen succeeding disasters and perfect willingness to mitigate suffering when it arrived, but nothing effectual to stop the monotony of continuous misery and continuous dole—here is a history about to be ended by what has been called the most gigantic piece of constructive philanthropy since the fabled days of Joseph of Egypt.

In it, American initiative has been the leading string, an American philanthropic agency has held the forward end of that string, and American engineering skill will see the enterprise to its issue.

In those portions of the Chinese provinces of Anhui and Kiangsu which lie north of the Huai river and the Hungtze Lake, south of the province of Shantung and the present bed of the Yellow river, and extending east and west from the sea to the Ke river, lie 30,000 square miles of rich agricultural country. This region has known little rest from floods and subsequent famines for twenty-five centuries. Moulding in its village, city and district archives, are records which tell of the amounts and kinds of relief given to the sufferers. Taxes have been remitted by the government year after year. Millions of dollars have been poured into the region in a generation. Thousands of tons of free grain have been sent in. Dikes and embankments have been built to confine the water, but little or nothing has been done to deepen channels or to furnish means for the free and quick passage of the water to the sea.

"The floods have so increased in frequency and the famines in acuteness," says Charles D. Jameson, an American engineer whose study of this region will be referred to later, "that now over the whole of this area, farmers do not average more than two crops in five years where, if floods were eliminated, the nor-

mal conditions would be two large crops each year. There is small chance for the people to recuperate. Year after year they plant and the crops are lost. Then there comes a year when there is no seed to plant, then no animals with which to plow, then no plows or other farm implements; house furniture follows, sold for food or used for fuel; then two families move into one hut, and the extra hut goes for fuel with which to boil weeds and the bark of trees; this gone, the people steal, murder, beg and often resort to cannibalism, and thus one of the richest agricultural sections of China is in such a condition that

even robbers are becoming discouraged."

To all this an end is now to be put. The rivers are to be trained, all normal floods prevented, thousands of square miles of waste land to be made productive, and hundreds of thousands of people who are little better than paupers are to be given the means of regaining independence and self-respect.

The negotiations which are to make this possible have not been fully completed. The story of their conduct up to the present stage, told by the newspapers only in part, is one of the romances of modern diplomacy. In it one can see the hopes of centuries pressing China forward, in spite of the setbacks of revolution, misery and new floods.

The first step was taken early in 1911 by the American Red Cross. For a number of years this organization had been receiving constant calls for help from the famine district of China. Since 1905 it alone has sent \$577,000 for relief, and nobody knows how many more hundreds of thousands had gone through missionary and other organizations, and from other countries.

A Startling Proposal

Through our state department, therefore, the Red Cross asked the Chinese government if it did not think it would be wise to try to learn what might be done to prevent floods in China. The money which China, following her immemorial necessity, might expect to spend on relief during the next few years, could, it was pointed out, be turned to preventive operations. The Red Cross added that if China thought well of the suggestion it would be glad to send an engineer to make the necessary study and surveys.

Here was a startling proposal. A people who have been called the most conservative in the world were being asked to break loose from a course of action, or rather inaction, centuries old. China was being urged to open her interior to the engineering scrutiny of the West. And the suggestion gained dram-



RESULT OF BARK AND WEEDS AS A DIET



MAP OF THE FLOOD AND FAMINE REGION IN CHINA

This region lies in the great alluvial plain which is still in the making. It comprises 30,000 square miles and is one of the most densely populated parts of the country.

atic force in coming from an organization which had itself helped the continuous stream of money and supplies to pour into her flood region.

Yet China's reply was instant. Her government, then in the hands of the Manchu dynasty, answered that not only would it welcome an engineer selected by the Red Cross, but it would provide him with a corps of assistants, would grant him free transportation and would meet all his expenses. The Red Cross had offered to pay his salary and traveling expenses to and from China.

The reply of the Red Cross was to ask Charles D. Jameson, member of the American Society of Civil Engineers, to make the survey. Mr. Jameson had previously spent sixteen years in China as engineer for that government and in private engineering practice. He knew the country and its people. He consented to make the survey, and arrived in Peking July 16, 1911.

Mr. Jameson went as "American Red Cross engineer to China." He immediately entered upon a reconnaissance of the region in question, being aided by maps of portions of the famine district prepared by the Kiangsu survey students.

These students were the outcome of China's own realization that permanent, curative measures should be taken, and that to evolve a cure for floods an instrumental survey was necessary. This work was inaugurated by Chang Chien, who is now the managing director of the con-

servancy scheme. In 1907 Mr. Chang, not having any Chinese engineers suitable for these surveys, employed a Japanese engineer to teach river surveying to forty young Chinese. The latter have been at work in the famine region three years, and have done excellent work.

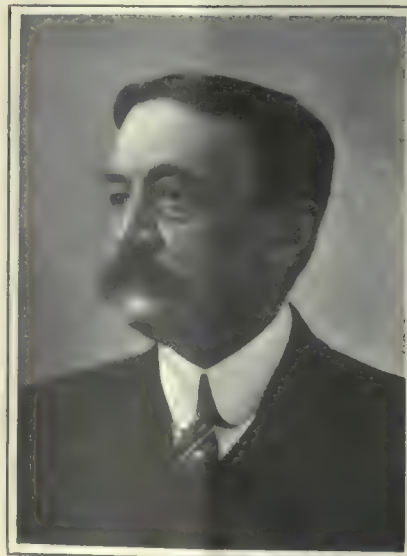
The year 1911-12 is known in China for two things. It was the year of the revolution, which began in October, and also the year of one of the worst famines in China's history. The famine had lasted three years. It created a "famine population of two million and a half, one million of whom, conserva-

tively estimated, were starving. To this suffering was added the horrors of civil war, for much of the fighting was done where the famine was worst. Children were offered for sale—or as gifts.

Mr. Jameson, interrupted in his study of flood prevention, turned to relieve the present suffering. Working with the famine relief committee at Shanghai, he helped it devise a method of disaster relief familiar enough in this country, but never before tried in China. This was the expedient of making able-bodied famine sufferers work for their food and shelter. They were set at the job of strengthening the dikes and embankments, with what success Professor Sarvis tells in a preceding article.

After the overthrow of the Manchu dynasty and the setting up of the republic Mr. Jameson completed his preliminary survey. His report was made to the Chinese government and to the Red Cross in October, 1912. Mr. Jameson declared it entirely practicable to prevent the floods that for over 2,500 years have brought misery to China.

During the following year the Red Cross, through the American state department, both during the administration of Mr. Taft and later that of Mr. Wilson, invited the attention of the President of the Republic of China to the manifest importance of action on the report of the American Red Cross engineer. But political machinery had to be put to work and delay was caused.



CHARLES D. JAMESON



VAST FAMINE CAMP OF 500,000 SOULS AT TSINGKIANGPU

In January, 1914, came China's answer, also a startling proposal. She said that she would at once issue bonds to the amount of twenty million dollars to pay for Mr. Jameson's whole scheme of river reclamation, if the Red Cross would assume responsibility for the work and execute it. She kindly offered to wait one year for the Red Cross to accept the offer and make its plans.

The Red Cross is essentially a relief-bringing organization. It has never engaged in engineering projects. So it sent a counter-proposal by cable. It expressed its appreciation of the confidence of the Chinese government and offered to find a reliable engineering firm to do the work.

In less than a week China cabled her acceptance of this counter proposal. The dispatch announced that a commissioner would start at once to make a contract in the country. The commissioner has not yet reached America, but power has been given to K. F. Shah, Chinese minister to Washington, to begin negotiations. When this article was written Mr. Shah, the Red Cross, and the J. G. White Engineering Corporation of New York, were at work on the details of the contract, which will provide for sending a board of engineers to China to report on Mr. Jameson's scheme for disposing of the Chinese bonds and the execution of the work proposed.

Only within the last half century has the western world learned of the destruction, starvation and death which

the millions of people in China's famine district go through every second, third or fourth year. Not till today has it known that such has been the uninterrupted history of this region from the time of legend. The information has come to light from those best of historical sources, local archives written by persons who were witnesses of, and very likely sufferers from, the calamities they described. And just as it was the monks who, through the heedless ignorance of the Middle Ages, preserved much of the ancient literature of Greece and Rome, so it is the Catholic missionaries in China who first made available these rich stores of a people's misery.

Native Documents

Since the early mediaeval period many Jesuits have gone to China for life careers. Living alone in cities of the interior, many have found it an agreeable occupation to pore over ancient records,

translating them into French and sending home the most interesting parts for publication in curious and instructive pamphlets.

It is from these translations that Mr. Jameson and other students of China have become acquainted with town, county and district documents which unfold the long history of China's affliction with floods, her periodic efforts to restrain intractable rivers, and her unending, hopeless efforts to relieve the sufferers. Many of these records go back twenty-five centuries. Mr. Jameson has had a number of missionaries' French versions translated into English. One of these was brought to this country. In it one reads that during the reign of Kang-ki, which lasted sixty-one years, twenty-five floods laid waste that part of China. Sixteen floods marked the reign of Kien Lung, from 1735 to 1798. From 1844 to 1881 thirteen floods occurred.

But these documents, though only fragmentary, go back farther than that. In 1492 a snow fall of fifty days, north of the Huai river, was followed by unprecedented floods. Taxes were remitted and "millions of dollars were appropriated for relief."

In 1569, the Huai and Yellow rivers rose twenty feet, swept away the lake and canal dikes and inundated the entire country to the east of the Grand Canal, carrying away men, animals and houses. Two years later another flood of the Huai killed several thousand sol-



RELIEF WORK AFTER ONE MONTH



DIKE POUNDERS AT WORK

Ten men in a group operate a pounding stone. This stone is circular, a foot in diameter, eight inches thick and weighs about 100 pounds. To each stone are attached ten ropes, and when the men all pull in unison, the stone rises above their heads and comes down with a thud. The dirt is first broken up into clods about the size of a teacup, and every layer of 5 inches in thickness is pounded to the consistency of rubber. To test the layer an iron rod is driven down and into the hole thus made water is poured. If the water does not soak away the layer has been pounded sufficiently.

diers. In 1595, the Huai and Yellow rivers again rose and burst the dikes, again taxes were remitted and several millions appropriated for relief and repairs. These are only some of the more notable disasters, between which occurred many smaller inundations entailing their full share of trouble and suffering.

So little have the causes of these incessant floods been understood, and so apathetic have the people become, that a saying which sprang up along the Yellow river centuries ago has continued to this day: "How would we get paid for catching the tiger if he never escaped!"

To understand the significance of the conservancy work about to be done, and the tremendous effect it will have on the social, economic and moral status of millions of Chinamen, one must look more closely at the flood and famine region and its inhabitants. That district comprises 30,000 square miles of the great alluvial plain of China. This plain is still in the making. Deposits of silt are constantly being added here and there, and rivers change their courses without warning.

The dip of this area is to the southeast, though rivers flow in all directions but west. The country is so flat that except for dikes the highest points are the graves, which in China are often raised to a height of fifteen feet. Standing on a grave one can often look straight to the horizon in every direction.

Roman rulers bound their ancient empire together by strong roads; centuries before Rome was founded, Chinese kings were developing the interior of their

country by canals. In 2500 B. C., when Chinese tradition begins, the great alluvial plain was covered with marshes and shallow lakes, unfit for human habitation. Tradition says that in 2357, the whole plain was submerged by a tremendous flood which lasted 152 years. When the waters departed the entire country was a mass of swamps. Then the great Yu appeared, confined the rivers in their proper courses, drained much of the land and divided it into nine large provinces. This work was completed in eight years and the great Yu retired into private life.

Canal Building

In the years that followed, the country was cut in every direction by small drainage canals made by the people themselves. As the marshes and swamps were reclaimed, the population increased rapidly. This necessitated a continuance of land reclamation, which has been going on almost constantly to the present day, until that part of China has become a land of canals, great and small.

But the efforts of the great Yu and his successors to confine the rivers in their courses, were doomed to slight success. Time and again the dikes have given way like chaff. In the building of this region the dominant factor has been the Yellow river. Like the swishing of a mighty tail, this stream has played over the surface of the plain, changing its mouth hundreds of miles, so that almost no part of the alluvial plain has gone unvisited by it. And every time the mouth has moved, ruinous inundations have fol-

lowed with great loss of life and property.

The most notable change in the Yellow river occurred in 1324. Before that year its search for new channels was largely confined to the country north of Shantung. In 1324, it broke its southern bank near Khai-feng in Honan and swept south, inundating the whole country. For two years it sought a new bed, using alternately the Sha and Ke rivers and the Hungtze lake, until finally it settled into the route shown in the accompanying map by broken lines and marked "the old course of the Yellow river."

Having found this bed, the Yellow river traveled its last hundred miles to the sea through the outlet of the Huai river. But the Yellow was a much larger stream than the Huai. The enormous amounts of silt brought by it raised the bed of the Huai to the height of the Hungtze lake and higher. Floods of the Yellow river consequently backed up into the lake and even west of it, inundating great areas.

To prevent that portion of the Grand Canal south of the Hungtze lake from being broken by the waters of the Yellow river, Chinese engineers raised and thickened the dikes of the latter, facing them with cut stone for a hundred miles. This may have been the right treatment for the Yellow river, but it formed an impassable barrier for the Huai, cutting it off from its former outlet and leaving it to get out of the Hungtze lake as best it could. The result, of course, was tremendous backwater and floods.

But the Yellow river was not yet through with its continent building. In 1854, after 530 years of hard work in the south, it returned to the north of Shantung, 500 miles away, and from that time to this the old bed of the Yellow river has been dry. The floods caused by it have ceased. But the high dike built to restrain it still remains and presents an effective obstacle to the passage of the Huai, so that the floods of the latter stream are as bad as when the Yellow river was its companion in havoc.

But man, as well as nature, has been busy shaping the face of the country. There is hardly a river problem in China that some attempt has not been made to solve. The solutions have for the most part been in the nature of dikes for confinement and canals for drainage and transportation, so that eruptions of the rivers have constantly undone the work of man, and repairs, repairs, repairs have been the history of China's engineering.

Nothing so well shows China's activity in this respect as the Grand Canal, which cuts across the famine region in a north-west route. The first mention of this canal is found in one of the works of Confucius, who says that Wai Kong,

marquis of Lou, in 486 B. C. joined the Yang-tze-kiang and Huai rivers with a series of canals running from one to another of the small lakes between. This artificial water route, which for a time was of great use in provisioning the country, was fed by water flowing north, for at that time the Yang-tze was higher than the Huai. Today the Huai is fifty feet higher than the Yang-tze.

Succeeding dynasties, however, had little time for canalization, one of them being occupied with building the Great Wall. This canal therefore fell into disuse. It was again opened in the third century A. D. and a considerable extension built later by the son of the famous emperor, Wen Ti.

Kubla Khan's Canal Building

When Kubla Khan conquered the country with his Mongols about 1280 A. D. and established his capital at Peking, he required immense quantities of food for his large armies. The main supply, consisting of rice, wheat and other grains, came from the south and was sent in boats or junks by sea. But pirates and storms made the passage precarious and each year many cargoes were lost. Kubla Khan, therefore, decided to continue the Grand Canal from the Huai river to Peking.

This extension, 600 miles long, was designed and executed as a whole. Hundreds of thousands of people were put to work on it. Its entire route was across the alluvial plain. The task was begun in 1289 and completed in three years, establishing continuous water transportation from Hangchow on the south to Peking on the north, a distance of one thousand miles.

But the coming of railways and coasting steamers has done away with the use of this canal for through traffic. The



CASTING WHEAT INTO THE BASKET

round trip by canal takes six months; while the sea trip requires but ten days and that by rail three. Consequently that part of the canal which goes through the Shantung province has fallen into disrepair and can be used only by the smallest boats.

The vicissitudes of the Yellow river and the Grand Canal are but a few among the many factors which determine the living conditions of Chinese in the flood area and affect the problem of prevention. This region is almost wholly agricultural, though walled towns, some of them having 100,000 inhabitants, are scattered through it. Today many of the people own no land whatever, being tenant farmers for well-to-do landlords. Tenants customarily receive half of the produce of their farms, and few are able to cultivate enough to support themselves during a year of scarcity, much less dur-

ing a famine year.

Most of those who are proprietors own tiny farms. These have gradually been reduced in size by the natural increase in population and by the necessity so many are under of selling part of their land in bad years. Large sections of land are being bought up by the rich and tenancy is increasing.

Up to ten years ago this part of the country suffered from increasing overpopulation. So many have died from recent famines, however, and such large numbers have left the locality that Mr. Jameson thinks the population has decreased by almost one-half within a decade. Even those remaining are a heavy drain on the reduced productiveness of the land. Morals have degenerated through suffering and disappointment, until many of the people are not only non-producers but a menace to others.

Such is the normal fertility of the soil that two or three crops a year can be raised when the land is undisturbed by floods. Wheat is planted in the autumn. Early in the following spring millet, peas and other small produce are planted between the rows of wheat. The latter is harvested about the middle of May, and the peas and millet in late summer or autumn. Often a third crop of some other grain is reaped late in the fall.

Destruction by Successive Floods

The floods come at the end of May or in June. Sometimes they arrive early enough to ruin the wheat crop; they always catch the peas and millet. If the flood is heavy it not only ruins what is already planted but stands on the ground until the next planting season and so destroys two and not infrequently three crops. If a flood comes the next year, the people are so discouraged that many simply sit still and die.

These are some of the conditions that flood prevention will change. A million acres of land, now swamps and shallow



PRIMITIVE METHOD OF THRESHING

lakes, will be reclaimed. Seventeen thousand square miles will be made to yield treble the present crops. Three millions of people, and their descendants, will find a new meaning in life.

Since the return of the Yellow river to the north, three smaller streams have been mainly responsible for the floods; the Shu and Yi east of the Grand Canal, and the Huai, running along the southern border of the flood region, draining with its eighty large tributaries most of the territory west of the Grand Canal, and flowing finally into Hungtze lake.

Of these rivers the Huai is the most important. Rising in the distant mountains of Honan and added to by numberless streams, it drains a catchment basin of 70,000 square miles. Both it and its tributaries have well-defined channels, sufficient to handle ordinary floods, as far as the Ke river, which is the western boundary of the famine region. But once the Huai passes the Ke it enters a shallower bed and when it discharges into the Hungtze lake, meets there other rivers from the north and northwest. The Hungtze lake has no visible, adequate outlet and its bed is comparatively high; so the combined volume of water poured into it in a flood season is many times too great for it to hold. Since the southern shores of the Huai and the Hungtze lake are marked by hills, the inundation occurs wholly to the north. Farther and farther back the water is pushed, until sometimes the inundation reaches the old bed of the Yellow river and crosses it.

Deposits of silt have raised the bed of the Hungtze lake many tens of feet and this has caused it to spread out until now its area of 450 square miles is four times as great as its former size. Walled cities originally on its banks have been moved many miles into the interior, and the ruins of some of them can now be seen in the lake at low water.

The Shu and Yi rivers, which cause the floods east of the Grand Canal, are torrential in character. Each has its rise in the deforested mountains of Shantung. The course of the Shu through the alluvial plain is long and winding. After a heavy rainfall in the mountains, where there is nothing to absorb the water, it rushes down the steep incline and in the flat country below finds a channel much silted up, in no way equal to carrying off a torrent. The banks are overflowed and the country becomes a vast shallow lake.

The Yi acts in much the same way. Though ordinarily discharging little water, it is converted by heavy rains into a torrent which tears away the western dike of the Grand Canal (if, indeed, this has been repaired since previous floods) and overflows the country on both sides. The Yi often rises ten or fifteen feet in twelve hours. As its water rushes down the Grand Canal it

eats away the face of the dike, and this silt raises the bed of the canal, which both injures its navigability and makes it less able to carry the flood crest.

The Proposed Measures

If floods are to be prevented suitable outlets must be found for these rivers. The map shows Mr. Jameson's proposed routes for each. It will be necessary also to deepen and train their present channels and to build regulating works.

In addition, canals must be built which will effectively drain the myriad swamps and small lakes now overlying so much of the famine region. The report to the Red Cross locates many of these proposed canals and points out what will be their effects in reclaiming waste land.

Even when this task is completed, China will still have to watch her rivers with vigilant eye. Their beds must be kept free of silt. For this and for maintaining the regulating works, a permanent engineering department must be created. One of the most urgent demands of the conservancy organization, thinks Mr. Jameson, is a weather bureau. At present there are no records of the rainfall in the entire flood area.

And when all this is done China will only have started on her whole problem of conservancy. There is always the possibility that the Yellow river will again break its dike and pour its devastating floods of mud and water over the plain to the south. This stream must be controlled and the Yang-tze must be confined. There are forty to sixty years of flood prevention work in China, says Mr. Jameson.

The cost of the work being planned at present is estimated at \$20,000,000. From a purely financial point of view, it is believed, the results will more than justify this expenditure. The receipts from the million waste acres to be reclaimed can be used in the repayment of the bonds which the government, as already indicated, stands ready to issue, and in addition a small betterment tax can be

safely imposed on the 17,000 square miles of land to be trebled in value. Added to this will be the saving of the annual famine relief.

Before the work be started, however, Mr. Jameson desires that a board of distinguished engineers visit this region and report upon the feasibility of the work proposed by him. This would involve checking the ruling points in surveys already made as to levels, slopes, flood discharge measurements and other items, about four months' work.

If possible this board of engineers will leave for China in May of this year in order to study the 1914 floods, if any occur. It is possible that they may report against the feasibility of comprehensive prevention and the whole affair come to naught. Quite plainly nobody concerned thinks there is much likelihood of this. Even if they should do so, a tremendous impetus would undoubtedly have been given to the more intelligent study by China of her own river problems.

Another development which might lead to the abandonment of the project would be the difficulty in the sale of China's \$20,000,000 worth of bonds, for which the White Corporation is undertaking to find a market. Over this, also, nobody seems pessimistic. It is thought that in view of the withdrawal of this country from participation in the loan which China has recently been negotiating among the powers, United States bankers will be eager to take the bonds.

What lessons flood prevention in China may hold for our own Mississippi valley will be better known when these engineers have completed their work. Already Mr. Jameson's report on China has been made a part of the Senate hearings on Mississippi flood prevention and Mabel T. Boardman, chairman of the National Relief Board of the Red Cross, has given Congress her description of the main features of the Chinese problem. Our suffering from inundations has not as long a history as China's, but it is significant that in one case the national government was induced in three years, by a foreign philanthropic agency, to take a national view of 30,000 square miles of flood territory, and in the other case the national government has failed to take a national view of 1,240,050 square miles of flood territory.

Of the ultimate success of the work in China Mr. Jameson sees no reasonable basis for doubts. Nor does he see only the engineering aspects. "The moral results," he says, "will be the elimination of the suffering, starving and degeneration of several millions of people, who are now fast becoming beggars and robbers; the turning into producers of millions who now are not only non-producers, but are becoming a menace to the country and cause of unrest and lawlessness. The conservancy of this region is a moral necessity for the good name of China."



DISHING OUT RICE TO FAMINE VICTIMS



FLOOD OF THE SANDUSKY RIVER AT FREMONT, OHIO

Part II. The 1913 Floods Their Coming

THROUGH a region mainly agricultural in aspect but occasionally taking on the more grim visage of mining and industrial pursuits, the indolent Ohio River winds its muddy course for hundreds of miles past green hills and yellow bottom lands. As if to set watch over the conduct of the waters, Ohio, Indiana and Illinois on the north, and to some extent West Virginia and Kentucky on the south, have lined the gradually sloping banks, or filled in the little level spaces between hill and river, with frequent unbroken stretches of civilization. Here and there listless, dusty villages, basking in self-sufficiency, remind one of interior rural hamlets whose largest body of water is the stream that flows from the common pump.

Before the twenty-third day of March, 1913, a traveler through this region might have heard awed references to the last great visitation from the silent stream. He would have seen no signs of the devastation—they were removed long ago. He would have discovered no apparent change in the life of the people caused by it. An occasional levee or dike might appear as built needlessly high, but for the most part he would have found people living unconcernedly, close to the usual spring flood line, or in houses propped up on stilts, quite expecting to see the water lap their door steps when the annual rise occurred.

Yet had he been of a curious turn of mind, he might have drawn out one of the older inhabitants to tell him of the tragedy of twenty-seven years ago, perhaps to point to this landmark or that brick on a corner store, where the mounting current had reached its highest point.

If he had been especially fortunate in his choice of a town, he might even have had his gaze directed to a small, weather-worn sign, incredibly high on some public building, bearing the single ominous inscription: 1884.

"It Can't Happen Again"

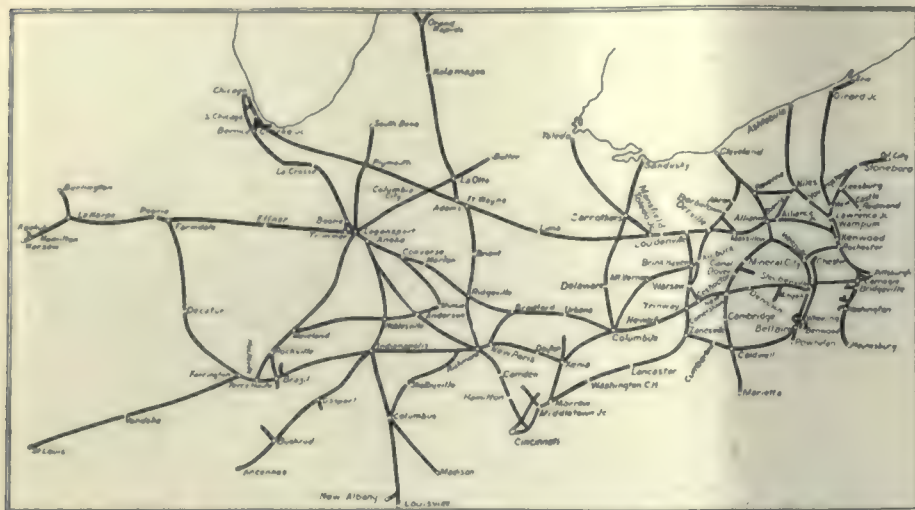
But if he had inquired why people lived and built property and did business within easy reach of another such visit from the uncertain element, his curiosity might have turned to wonder. He might have been asked if he supposed there could ever again be such a flood as that. He would probably have been reminded that that disaster was now a matter of history and that the people to whom he was talking were living in the present, not the past. And if he had stayed in the locality long enough, he would doubtless have discovered that as far as any observable plan of life gave evidence, the high water mark of 1884 really did represent to many of the residents the maximum to which the Ohio River could aspire. In some way, perhaps through divine decree, perhaps through a law of nature, it had been settled for all time that no flood crest could possibly overpass that record.

This is essentially a true picture of the state of mind of a large number of dwellers along the Ohio River, although many were keenly alert to the first intimation of danger last spring. Much portable property was carried out of reach of the rising waters, but a great deal that might have been saved was lost. It was, of course, simply another exhibition of an age-old human weakness—an overweening security that what

has never happened will not happen. Had there been less reliance on past records, or more on the warnings flashed from weather stations and towns up the river, many a householder and business man would now be better off in the things which make life comfortable.

A different picture was presented along the streams which flow into the Ohio and Lake Erie. There the floods came several days earlier, the rise was more rapid and the currents immeasurably swifter. Where levees suddenly gave way, the rush of waters in many instances overtook runners and vehicles. Even where there were no embankments on which to pin one's hopes, the rise was often so swift that little attempt could be made to save property. There is an authentic story of a woman in Columbus who, knowing that the Scioto was coming up at an alarming rate, but supposing that she would have ample warning if her own situation became perilous, chanced to cast her glance in the direction of the river, and to her horror saw a bank of swirling water coming up the street directly toward her. In her excitement she clasped her baby in one arm and a basket of dust rags in the other, and was just able to reach safety with her burden.

The tragedies of those who did not escape have passed into the histories of their localities. And these tragedies happened chiefly along the smaller, less often flooded streams, the streams with narrow channels which rose in a night and made boats and life preservers as necessary on land as at sea. The Great Miami led in the grim total with a death list of 283, and the Scioto came next



PENNSYLVANIA LINES WEST OF PITTSBURGH IN COMMISSION MARCH 23, 1913

with 134. No other river approached these in the number whom it killed, but several exceeded the slower-moving leviathan to the south.

It was on Monday morning, March 24, that a few newspapers announced the prediction of the weather bureau that abnormal rains would fall over eastern and southern states during the coming week. Those rains had actually begun the day before. By Monday morning, however, few townspeople or farmers along the threatened rivers foresaw unusual danger. To many persons not themselves in the possible paths of floods, the first real sense of impending destruction dawned when a Pennsylvania train, compelled by wash-outs to detour, plunged into the Mad River at West Liberty, Ohio. This occurred at 1:30 Tuesday morning.

But before that, evidence had been accumulating in northwestern Ohio and northeastern Indiana that something more than an ordinary spring run-off was taking place. Not only were a score of lesser creeks in both Ohio and Indiana establishing new flood records, but some of the larger rivers as well were rising with ominous rapidity. There seemed to be little general expectation of widespread disaster. The Omaha tornado of Easter Sunday was still the topic of chief interest.

Throughout Monday the scene of the heaviest rainfall had shifted southward; on Tuesday it spread wide over all of Central Ohio. It was, indeed, during the twenty-four hours from midnight on Monday to midnight on Tuesday that most of the Ohio and Indiana towns not on the Ohio river itself, learned what was to be their fate. Then it was that the nation heard those first frantic calls for help which told of whole cities—Dayton, Hamilton, Columbus, Chillicothe, Peru, and others—foundering like stricken ships at sea. Then, too, began those experiences of individuals, families, neighbors, which mark epochs in the memories of those who went through

them: the grappling with death, the even worse grappling with a despair that held no hope; the strained waiting for release, accompanied by awful uncertainty as to what might be happening in the next block or the next house; the sight of friends or the members of one's own family perishing without a chance for help to reach them. These things the world has read and re-read; they are being woven into the folk-lore of the communities where they occurred.

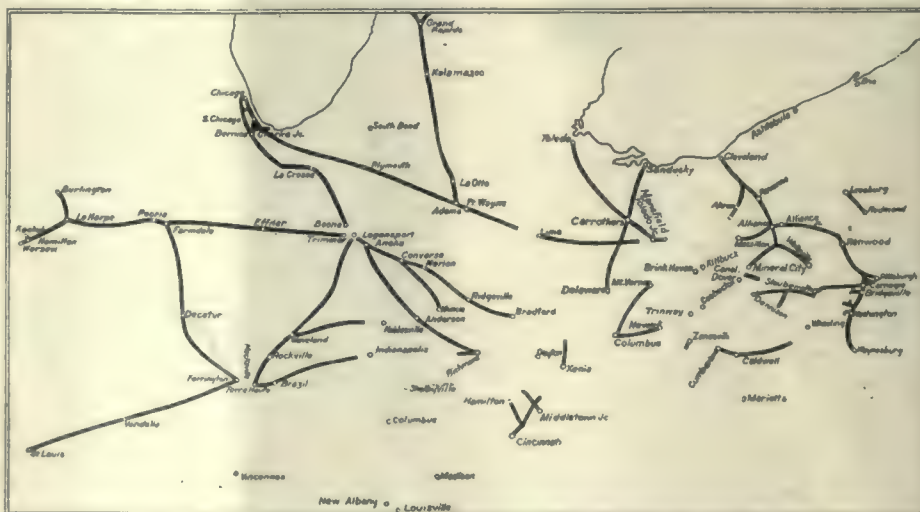
With the coming of the disaster came that frenzy of the human mind to make its speech rise to the occasion. Unprecedented events, it seems, must be told in unprecedented language; a new experience must have a new tongue. At the outset of the flood that tongue was the tongue of exaggeration. Narrative took short cuts to its meaning, so that in the talk of the hour a building was often "submerged" in two feet of water. Not only were death lists many times too high, but incidents were unduly magnified.

The dead in Piqua, Ohio, were placed at 540; in Peru, Ind., at 500. Ohio herself was described as "one huge sea." Seventy-five residents of Delaware were

reported to have been swept to death by a seven-foot wall of water which surged through the town. The real toll was eighteen. Four hundred children were believed to have been submerged or from building in Dayton. All escaped before the flood came. Water was declared to have reached the third floor of the Algonquin, Dayton's largest hotel. In reality it rose only eleven feet. Fifteen thousand homes in Columbus were believed to have been submerged in from ten to twenty-five feet of water; the subsequent count of the building inspector showed that 4,071 buildings were flooded. Franklin, a village of 2,700 people in the Great Miami valley, was confidently believed to have been swept off the map, only a few of the inhabitants escaping to the single accessible hill. Yet only seven people were drowned and fourteen houses destroyed.

The task of those who came to allay suffering and to meet need was to break through this exaggeration and to get at the kernel of fact beneath. It was piece-work of the most painstaking sort. How it was accomplished—how it may always be accomplished—is told in the succeeding pages by some of those who know best, who were there and who did it. How the state may act in such an emergency—how Governor Cox did act—is told by Mr. Burba, the governor's secretary. Mr. Stein gives the story of the national response and the coming of the Red Cross and the army. Miss Bojesen could not have stayed through those trying weeks without her buoyant sense of humor and faith in folks. Mr. Devine brought to Dayton and Montgomery county his wealth of experience in such crises; Mr. Hubbard carried his to three scattered river communities.

And finally we learn from Mr. Knowles what this worst flood in the new world has amounted to, what the stricken districts have done and may do to prevent, not another rainfall, but another disaster.



PENNSYLVANIA LINES WEST OF PITTSBURGH IN COMMISSION ONE WEEK LATER. PUZZLE: FIND A LINE FOR THROUGH SERVICE

The State's Part in the Emergency

George F. Burba

SECRETARY TO THE GOVERNOR OF OHIO

IN order to understand the full meaning of the relief work performed in Ohio immediately following the flood, one must know something of conditions in the state immediately preceding the flood. Certainly one must understand that never before in the history of the state had anything similar to this disaster occurred. There were not perhaps a dozen individuals in the state who knew from practical experience what would be required in such an emergency.

Drop a handkerchief upon a table, catch it in the center with thumb and forefinger and elevate it slightly, and you have a fair relief map of Ohio. The highest point in the state is near the center. Two rivers carry water into the Great Lakes from the northern half of the state; three rivers convey that which falls on the southern watershed into the Ohio. All five rivers are fed by numerous streams, completely draining every acre of the state. A disaster, such as we had last spring, can happen only when the excessive rainfall is in the very center of the state. When the rainfall is on the southern watershed, the northern part of the state cannot be affected; when the waterfall is heaviest in the north, the southern half is unaffected. But last spring the storms hung for two days over the very source of all five of our rivers, with fairly heavy rains extending to the mouth of each. This rendered relief work the more complicated, for we had no section of the state from which to draw supplies and aid for other sections. Every portion had its own flood problem.

The First Call

Easter morning found Ohio in splendid condition in every way. Mills and factories were all running. Merchants had been and were doing a heavy business. People were engaged in their usual occupations. There was no indication of disaster. The streams were normal. The weather reports indicated local rains.

Rain began falling on Easter Sunday and continued throughout the night and all day Monday. Not an alarm was sent out from any place until some time Monday night. By Tuesday noon the flood was upon us in several localities, and twenty-four hours later had reached its highest point in all the flooded districts save Cincinnati.

The first call for relief received at the governor's office came about ten o'clock Tuesday morning. The little town of Larue managed to get through a call for boats. We had been notified from various sections that the water was rising, that a flood was threatened, that



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MILITIA ON GUARD

means of communication were being cut off. But it was not until the cry came from Larue that we fully realized that human lives would have to be saved and that people in considerable numbers would have to be fed.

The problem of rescuing the people of Larue was comparatively easy. A number of boats were available in a summer resort lake forty miles from the town. By means of automobiles and traction lines Governor Cox was able to get these boats from the lake to Larue in time to remove the people from their homes.

But immediately following the call from Larue, came appeals in such numbers and of such tenor that the task of affording relief, became the most gigantic which ever confronted the people of the state. The Legislature was in session and could appropriate money, but other things besides money were needed. Money could not buy that which was most desired.

The First Relief

What might be termed the first real relief measure proposed by Governor Cox was to call out the state troops, some 8,000 husky young fellows, splendidly officered. These men, with supplies, were despatched to the stricken communities under orders to perform whatever might be demanded of them.

To give details of the relief work performed during the hours immediately following the disaster would be to write many reports from many places. Every community presented a different problem

which had to have special handling. No general plan was, or could have been, followed all over the state.

In Columbus, the main portion of the city was not under water, the damage being in what is known as the west side, so that there was left a city of stores and shops and people whose homes were not inundated to take care of the suffering. In Dayton the whole business portion of the town, as well as two-thirds of the residence district, was inundated, leaving no base of supplies and few people who were in a position to render aid. These instances show the variety of problems presented.

But whether one-fourth of a city was stricken, or all of it, every community was without transportation. Trains could not be moved in any direction. In many instances bridges upon the public highways were destroyed, so that the neighboring country could not get supplies to suffering people.

Yet, in the face of all this disaster, it can be truthfully stated that scarcely a human being went without food of some kind more than twenty-four hours, although hundreds of people who were marooned in their homes subsisted upon very small amounts of common-place foods for as much as two or three days.

A State Commission

In practically every stricken community relief committees were at once formed. After the disaster had abated to some extent, it was discovered that a great similarity existed in the formation and in the activities of each of these committees. The people of every community seemed to have done the correct thing. In no instance is it reported that the relief committees were inefficient, or that an improvement could have been made in handling the problems had there been more time for careful consideration.

Governor Cox immediately formed a state relief commission. This Commission, appointed without legal authority, and afterwards recognized by act of legislature, was deemed by the Red Cross the proper body to co-operate with it in the tremendous work to be performed following the flood.

As early as Monday noon the Red Cross was in communication with the Governor, tendering its good offices, but some days passed before officers of the organization were able to reach the various stricken communities or to formulate a plan of relief for the entire state.

In Columbus, the relief work was comparatively simple. On the west side were two large state institutions with ample resources to care temporarily for thousands of people. Flood sufferers were

FLOOD SCENES AT HAMILTON, OHIO



NOT ALL LARGE BUILDINGS WERE SPARED



TYPICAL FLOOD DESTRUCTION, HAMILTON, OHIO



A QUIET SIDE STREET IN HAMILTON

hurried thither where they were given food and shelter. People east of the inundated section formed a relief committee and prepared school houses and churches for relief work. Food and clothing were distributed through various church and social organizations, and hundreds of people who had been driven out of their homes were taken into private houses in other portions of the city. The work of rescuing people from houses in the flooded district was directed by the militia and the director of public safety.

Section Committees

In Dayton, at least four separate citizens' relief committees had to be organized as there was no intercommunication between the south, north and west portions of the city. The most important of these committees, by reason of its resources and the number of people cared for, had its headquarters at the factory of the National Cash Register Company. The plant of the register company, covering many acres, was thrown open to the refugees and temporary hospitals were provided. A maternity hospital was established in the main office building where, on Tuesday and Wednesday, five or six children were born.

All the bakeries in the city had been put out of business, so that the first pressing need was for bread. Fifteen or twenty miles from Dayton is a large orphans' home and a school. These were used to supply bread to Dayton, and Springfield, twenty-five miles away, also supplied large quantities of bread and other food. These were got into Dayton at first by automobiles.

Summary

One million and twelve thousand people lived in the flooded cities and towns. After the waters had subsided, 428 bodies were recovered, and probably half as many more were never found; 20,000 houses were absolutely destroyed within twenty-four hours; 35,000 homes were damaged in the same length of time. The property loss was easily \$300,000,000. During the first few days of the disaster, 220,000 people had to be fed.¹

But 220,000 represents only those who had to be fed because all their food supplies and means of preparing food were destroyed. It does not include the hundreds of thousands who had money to buy food but were hard pressed to obtain it.

We do not expect another such disaster. But if a similar one should befall us tomorrow, we could do no better work than we did last spring, and could hope for no better results than followed the heroic efforts of those who were in position to aid.

¹ The writer's statistics refer only to the state of Ohio.

Administering a Relief Fund at the Top

DESTRUCTION, suffering and heroic rescue form by far the greater part of the accounts of disasters served up in the daily press and magazines. Less conspicuous, but perhaps next in volume, come local relief operations, the restoring of individual families to normal life, the repairing and refurnishing of houses, the re-establishment of small business concerns. Not so frequently remarked upon, but also of interest and importance, are the major plans for carrying on this relief, the co-operative relations which make speed and harmony possible, and the policies which control the distribution of aid. The overhead administration, no less than the other features of disaster relief, has its own romance.

Immediately upon ascertaining the extent of the Ohio Valley floods of last year, President Wilson issued an appeal for money and supplies to be expended through the American Red Cross. To facilitate a wise distribution of relief and to afford a careful supervision thereof it was deemed necessary to establish within the stricken zone a temporary relief headquarters of the Red Cross; and as Ohio, of all the states affected, was most seriously injured, Columbus was selected as the strategical point from which operations should be directed.

Owing to disrupted transportation facilities Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the Red Cross, arrived at Columbus only on March 28, followed on April 2 by his assistant from Washington.

On March 25, Gov. James M. Cox appealed for funds and supplies to be sent to a group of men designated as the Ohio Flood Relief Commission, the appointment of which Mr. Burba has described in another article.

The Arrival

Upon arrival of the Red Cross at Columbus the treasurer of the commission was found to have established an office into which were pouring hundreds of money contributions; the freight yards were becoming congested with relief supplies, which were being distributed throughout the state by the quartermaster's department of the Ohio National Guard under Col. Edward T. Miller, and the sanitary conditions of the flooded section were being improved by the medical corps of the National Guard under Lieutenant-Colonel Joseph A. Hall. Local committees had been or were being formed in the affected towns to care for the emergent needs of the flood sufferers. Substantially similar measures were adopted in the other inundated states. Simultaneously the quartermaster corps of the United States

Lewis E. Stein

OF THE AMERICAN RED CROSS



NEW RED CROSS COTTAGE TO REPLACE DEMOLISHED HOUSE

army began an active distribution of supplies along the Ohio river and its tributaries.

On April 1, the Red Cross had received in cash \$800,000, and for the next four or five days this fund grew at the rate of \$100,000 per day. The Ohio Legislature appropriated \$250,000 and the governors of all affected states were also receiving relief funds.

At its first meeting the Ohio Flood Relief Commission requested the Red Cross to take charge of relief measures in Ohio, and at the suggestion of Mr. Bicknell, the funds of the commission and those of the Red Cross, appropriated for expenditure in Ohio, were consolidated. Thus was formed the Red Cross Ohio Flood Relief Commission, which immediately appointed the na-

tional director of the Red Cross as its agent to carry on the work of relief in accordance with Red Cross principles. This appointment carried with it authority over all funds in the treasury of the commission. A firm of certified public accountants was employed to maintain a continuous audit during the progress of the work.

The first necessity which forced itself upon those at headquarters was that of expert leaders. Edward T. Devine of New York, Eugene T. Lies of Chicago and C. M. Hubbard of St. Louis had gone to Dayton immediately after the flood; James F. Jackson of Cleveland and Sherman C. Kingsley of Chicago proceeded to Columbus. Francis H. McLean had gone to Hamilton on the *Washington Post's* special train.

Demand for Leaders

All these veterans had been instant in responding to the Red Cross call. But the cry was still for expert help and more of it, and from New York, Boston, Buffalo, Philadelphia, Baltimore, Washington, Chicago, Denver, St. Louis, Detroit, Toledo and other points they came—many from charity organization societies composing the institutional membership of the Red Cross, and others from organizations not directly connected with the Red Cross. These leaders in social work were assigned as special representatives of the Red Cross in the larger towns, several being attached at different times to headquarters to make numerous trips for the purpose of studying and reporting upon smaller towns



ANOTHER FORM OF PERMANENT RELIEF: REPAIRING DAMAGED HOUSES



CLEANING UP IN DAYTON

and farming communities.

Up to this time local committees were looking after the emergent needs of their people. The quartermaster's department of the Ohio National Guard was distributing food, clothing, tents, street cleaning implements and lime by the carload, and these supplies were being supplemented by direct shipments to the affected towns from the outside.

The United States army being one of the first of outside agencies to arrive upon the scene, Major James E. Normoyle, of the quartermaster corps, opened on March 26 an office in Columbus and gathered there 300,000 rations, 3,100 tents, 20,000 cots, 5,000 stoves, 20,000 blankets, and a large quantity of sanitary supplies. Working with the regularity of a clock, Major Normoyle and his assistants handled the emergent necessities of the occasion as if they were playing a game with the moves already planned out beforehand.

Racing the Flood Crest

On March 31, finding that the center of activities was moving somewhat southward, Major Normoyle went to Cincinnati, leaving Captain Hardin Olin, of the Columbus Barracks, in charge of the Columbus office. As the crest of the flood swept on, Major Normoyle kept pace with it, preparing in advance for those things which he was sure would occur. With the assistance of men from the navy and from the marine corps the army established supply bases at various points along the river and stocked boats as floating bases to ride upon the flood waters to those who were in the path of the disaster.

While the quartermaster departments of the Ohio National Guard and of the army were busy in one direction, the State Board of Health, the local health officials, the army medical corps, and the medical corps of the Ohio Guard were equally busy in another. The army sent a field hospital, manned by proper officers and sixty hospital corps men. The entire medical and hos-

pital personnel of the state was on duty for a long period and it was due to the close and friendly co-operation which existed between this organization, the medical service of the army, and the various state and local health authorities, that so little illness developed.

Fighting Disease

For the first month and a half after the flood, Colonel Hall worked night and day, to prevent the great epidemics in Ohio which, without these careful preventive measures, would surely have occurred. In most of the larger places, it was the medical corps of the National Guard which prepared, and insisted upon the observation of, rules governing the boiling of water, the cleaning of homes, streets and yards, the installation and care of sanitary equipment, the burning of drowned horses, dogs, cats and chickens, the destruction of contaminated meats and vegetables, the cleaning of wells and cisterns, and so on.

In addition to these duties, it devolved upon members of the medical and hospital corps of the guard to rescue the drowning, recover the dead, feed the hungry, clothe the naked, and nurse the sick. The last task included attendance upon persons having diphtheria, cerebrospinal meningitis, smallpox, typhoid fever, mumps, measles, whooping-cough, varicella and other diseases, as well as several cases of child-birth.

It was early in these activities that the Red Cross representatives arrived, during a period of from one day to one week after the flood, in time to lend their assistance in bringing the emergency work to a close, and, without a jar, to introduce the sufferers from the flood to the next step in their rehabilitation. During the early days the Red Cross furnished record cards for the taking of a census of those requiring assistance, and the result of this census as shown on the cards was the basis upon which subsequent and permanent aid was rendered.

Great uncertainty existed in the early days as to the amount of relief funds to be available; but as the emergency period was drawing to a close, it was imperatively necessary that a system of rehabilitation relief be adopted at once. Any system entered upon, it was felt, ought to assure justice to the beneficiary and protection to the funds contributed for relief; to aid the sufferer in regaining his former estate, but not to deprive him of his self-respect or his willingness to support himself; and to encourage rather than destroy local initiative in the re-establishment of ordinary living routine. Every community was expected to meet its own need to the fullest extent of its resources.

The friendship and co-operation of local committees were highly essential to the success of this scheme. No matter how skilled in relief work one may be, he cannot go into a strange community and, on the facts as given him by the individual applicant alone make a proper distribution of relief. The representatives of the Red Cross were cordially received by local committees, and were glad to avail themselves of the latter's knowledge of local conditions and resources, and their willingness to share responsibility and criticism. No exact standard of relief can be set for residents of different localities affected by the same calamity, and here again the knowledge of the local committee as to the needs of its people and their standard of living is a valuable asset to a relief administrator.

Because of the uncertainty as to the amount of the relief fund to be ultimately available, and in order to furnish opportunity to those able and willing to help themselves, a progressive scheme of permanent relief, if it may be so called, was adopted. With the family as a unit and need alone as a gauge, the first step in the rehabilitation plan contemplated supplying to all flood sufferers whose homes were habitable enough furniture to provide simple comfort.

Building Operations

When it seemed that further extensive furniture rehabilitation would not be needed, the second step, which provided for the repair and rebuilding of homes, was entered upon. Only those owning the dwellings in which they resided were entitled to this aid, although to this rule there had to be exceptions as there were to nearly every other regulation governing relief operations. Chimneys were rebuilt, porches replaced, foundations repaired, houses put back on foundations and replastered, etc., generally under contracts made by committees. In instances where such action was justified, cash grants for the purposes mentioned were made to owners. In the smaller cities and towns and in outlying communities two and three

room houses were erected on lots from which the homes had been entirely carried away. In other sections, house patterns, consisting of all material necessary for building, were furnished. Typical instances of these operations and many others are given in accompanying articles in this issue.

The third step in the plan contemplated making grants to those families whose wage-earners were drowned. There were not many of these and no one grant exceeded \$1,500. These grants were generally placed in the hands of trustees under an agreement to pay a certain portion thereof, at stated intervals, to the beneficiaries. Where the latter were exceptionally capable and careful the money was paid to them direct.

When it became apparent that as far as practicable, provision had been made for needy families the fourth and final step in the plan was entered upon, namely, the rehabilitation of small business. The funds so paid to business men did more than any other one thing to restore the community as a whole to a normal state. These grants ran from a few dollars to \$750, with one or two going beyond that figure. A merchant, to be entitled to a business rehabilitation grant, was compelled to prove that his equities in real or personal property did not total \$2,000. Under this arrangement sewing machines were furnished to seamstresses, tools to blacksmiths, plumbers, carpenters, farmers, etc.; horses and wagons to teamsters; grain and lumber to mills; stocks to grocery and dry-goods stores; books to school teachers and so on.

But after all this had been done there still remained rough spots, caused by inequalities of relief distribution or the omission of families because of the belief that they would weather the storm



A HORSE HANGING IN WRECKAGE IN DAYTON

without additional assistance. In certain localities where cash grants had been made early in the distribution, refugees had been able to secure some small comforts, but from the majority of homes these were absent, and as relief contributions had been received in more generous measure than could be anticipated in the earlier stages of the work, funds were placed at the command of the local committees for the purpose of making in cash what were known as "final grants." With this money housewives were enabled to purchase clocks, curtains, rugs, or other conveniences or necessities, so dear to a woman's heart.

The treasurer of the local committee was generally accepted as the local treasurer of Red Cross relief funds, and money was advanced him in lump sums upon approval of the national director. In Ohio a voucher check form was adopted for use of treasurers in expending relief funds. This form required

the approval of the Red Cross representative, the signature of the local treasurer, and signature of the payee.

Large sums were used in the payment of bills incurred for the purchase of emergency supplies during the early days. Then, too, large stocks of goods which were confiscated by the National Guard had to be paid for. Up to January 15, 1914, \$127,124.29 had been paid out in settlement of these claims alone.

Of the many questions asked concerning the application of this relief plan, the one propounded most often was, "How did you begin?" It is difficult to answer succinctly. By the time the representatives of the Red Cross arrived on the ground, the lowlands of the Ohio valley had been submerged and frantic calls for help were coming from all directions. Advantage was taken of press dispatches, and reports made by those accompanying the Flood Commission on its early tours of inspection were eagerly garnered and tabulated.

Governor Cox was being appealed to from all parts of the flooded section by telegraph, telephone, and messenger. His office referred all such appeals to relief headquarters. Colonel Hall, surgeon-general of the state, furnished copies of all messages received from his officers in the field. Red Cross representatives, as soon as placed, would immediately report to headquarters any information secured concerning needs in communities adjacent to their stations. As the hundreds of reports came in they were recorded and classified. Names of towns, their population, the number of persons reported drowned, number of houses flooded and destroyed, number of families affected, probable number who would require rehabilitation relief, and the names of those composing the local relief committees or temporarily in charge of relief work were entered in alphabetical order on large sheets.

But those at headquarters were not satisfied to wait for appeals. They adopted an aggressive campaign. Maps were keenly scanned for towns in the



WHEN THE WATERS WENT DOWN

path of the flood and as fast as their names were ascertained, a message offering aid would go over the wires to the mayor. For a time each record sheet was out of date three hours after it was begun.

The night and early morning hours were devoted to receiving long distance telephone reports from the men in the field. They in turn were advised as to the increasing funds on hand, progress in the relief plans, how other men in other sections were solving the problems confronting them, etc.

In order to keep the interest of the public alive and assure the largest possible relief fund, nightly reports were made by wire to agents in the larger

eastern cities, and H. Wirt Steele of Baltimore, for two months assisting the national director at Columbus, carried on a general publicity campaign, illustrating with stories of individual families just what constituted proper measures of rehabilitation relief.

Success

The success of the work was largely due to one thing, co-operation. Too much cannot be said of the loyalty of most of the workers; of the facilities placed at the disposal of the Red Cross by the railroads, the express companies, the telegraph and telephone companies; of the self-sacrificing labor performed by the members of local committees in

behalf of their less fortunate or, in some instances, equally unfortunate neighbors; of the assistance of many other men and women who contributed of their time and strength toward the alleviation of suffering among the stricken; and of the hearty and intelligent support of the press.

Without this great outpouring of cordial, spontaneous effort, it would have been impossible for the Red Cross, or any organization, to restore properly and promptly to approximate normality all those things pertaining to the home life and the business of flood sufferers which were whirled into confusion and chaos by the muddy torrents of this great flood.

Bringing Relief to Scattered Communities

C. M. Hubbard

IN CHARGE OF FLOOD RELIEF FOR THE
RED CROSS ON SECTIONS OF THE OHIO,
WABASH AND MISSISSIPPI RIVERS

YOU might not be impressed by the statement that during the flood of March and April, 1913, the lower Wabash River rose four feet above the previous high-water mark of 1884, but wouldn't you open your eyes if you were told that water reached every house but two in a township of 75 square miles on the Indiana side? Or that it was possible at one time to enter every post office in Gallatin county, on the Illinois side, in a boat?

The territory extending 40 miles along the Wabash and 120 miles along the Ohio, shown in the accompanying map, is occupied largely by tenant farmers, to whom the flood of last year caused the greatest damage in their history. Nearly all of them were heavily in debt. Their mortgage and other indebtedness generally equalled and often excelled the value of their entire possessions. In answer to the question whether these intelligent hard-working men were not the victims of an economic condition that kept them perpetually in debt and gave them no promise for the future, it was explained that they had suffered from crop failures and a series of flood disasters, all of which were exceptional, and that under ordinary conditions they were prosperous.

Bringing relief to the scattered communities in this territory was a very different matter from bringing it to the packed inhabitants of a large city. It was impossible to establish a central headquarters downtown and to direct all operations from there.

The quickest possible action was necessary in order that the thousands who were being cared for in refugee camps and fed by emergency rations of the United States army and state authorities, should have the necessary help to re-establish themselves in their homes and put in crops as soon as the water had gone down. It was already time for plowing

and delay would mean late crops and danger from early frosts.

The first thing necessary was registration of the losses and the needs—especially the latter. For this, there were already at hand, in each community, citizens' relief committees made up of citizens, who were not only willing but anxious to help. An assistant, C. L. Gurney, was called from St. Louis and by using trains, trolley cars, steamboats and motor boats, the different points were visited and registration was well under way in a week.

Traveling involved the novel experience of going across country in a river steamboat, past trees and wrecked houses, when only a skillful pilot could locate the course of the river. The

swiftly running current ranging from twenty to sixty miles in width, with the huge waves that sometimes prevailed, was very like a sea. On one occasion when it was necessary to ascend a tributary of the main stream, some time was spent in finding the course, as the rushing torrent that poured out from every opening between the tall trees, looked like the mouth of a river.

Shawneetown, Ill., Uniontown and Caseyville, Ky., and Grandview, Ind., were inundated and suffered appalling damage, but the other points—Mt. Vernon, New Harmony, Griffin, Crawleyville, Evansville, Rockport and Eureka, Ind., New Haven, Junction, Equality, Carmi, Maunie and Elizabethtown, Ill., and Birds Point, Crosno and Wolf Island, Mo.—were simply centers for the registration of tenant farmers and day laborers in the adjacent flooded agricultural districts.

The registration progressed rapidly



THE PROBLEM OF RELIEVING SCATTERED COMMUNITIES



ALL THESE PEOPLE LIVED IN THREE ROOMS AND A KITCHEN FOR A WEEK UNTIL TENTS WERE BOUGHT

all along the line. The Red Cross representatives reviewed each record in detail with the local committees and decided upon a fair apportionment of relief.

The committees had to be made to understand that relief was in no sense to be a percentage of losses, but a means of enabling the sufferer to resume his usual occupation; that a large loser might receive nothing, while he who suffered but little might have the greater part of his loss restored. It depended upon the man's ability to help himself, and this was determined by the resources that he had left at his command. The committees were for the most part made up of the biggest, broadest minded men of the communities and they quickly saw the point. On one occasion, a committee that had had some experience, reviewed a number of registration cards in the absence of the Red Cross representative and did their work so conscientiously and conservatively that it was found advisable later to increase some of their apportionments.

It was a rule that only the minimum help required should be given. A few exceptions were made in favor of those who had made sacrifices, like the fisherman on the Wabash who owned a good motor boat, with which he could have saved his valuable nets and other

equipment, but who refused to look after his property as long as white flags of distress from inundated farm houses indicated that there were human lives in danger.

Prompt Action

By working day and night, including Sunday, registration and reviewing of cases with the local committees progressed so rapidly that the first requisitions upon the Red Cross for relief funds were made in two weeks and by the end of April, registration was practically complete and the greater portion of relief orders issued throughout the entire district. The farmers thus procured the help they needed by the time it was possible to resume their work.

Through an arrangement between Governor Ralston of Indiana and the national director of the Red Cross, it was agreed, after the registration had been passed on at Rockport, Grandview, Eureka and Evansville, that Governor Ralston would assume the relief for those places.

The work of rehabilitation was almost equally divided between town and country districts. In Shawneetown, Ill., and Uniontown and Caseyville, Ky., the towns suffered great damage, and relief was mostly in the form of house

repairs, moving houses back on to their foundations, furniture, clothing and provisions.

In country districts, it was largely in the form of feed for teams and other livestock, farming implements, furniture, clothing and provisions. In a few instances, horses that had been drowned were replaced. Many houses were totally destroyed but as they were the property of the land owners, they were not replaced or repaired.

Altogether 2,126 registration cards were made out and passed upon; and excluding the communities taken over by Governor Ralston, 1,634 beneficiaries were placed upon the relief lists in the sixteen remaining communities, for which the relief aggregated \$95,270.74.

It is remarkable and gratifying that in all the territory covered by the writer and his associate, there was no loss of life, no epidemic of disease and comparatively little illness of any kind. The nearest approach to a drowning was when a jolly and popular pastor of a church in Shawneetown, in landing from a motor boat in the darkness of a rainy night, stepped off into water thirty feet deep. He was hauled in and did not even lose the handbag which he carried.

The gratitude on the part of the people was deep and genuine. A good old German blacksmith in lower Mississippi county, who was universally beloved by all who knew him, had lost his furniture and all his wood and timber for repair work and many of his tools. He had gathered up such remnants as he could find and had tried to open his shop in an old shed, but he had but little to work with and was utterly discouraged. When, on behalf of the Red Cross, he was presented with orders for blacksmith supplies aggregating \$110, his gratitude was beyond words. He could not speak English very well, anyway, so he expressed his feelings in a language that has been universally understood since the days of Adam, and cried like a child with joy and thanksgiving.

A Red Cross Agent's Personal Experience¹

Johanne Bojesen

DISTRICT SECRETARY, NEW YORK CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY

IN retrospect, Dayton presents a somewhat kaleidoscopic appearance; but the final impression left on my mind is one of intense vitality. From the pitched battle fought between nature and man, to the overthrow of a bad political government there were no dead-and-alive issues anywhere. And this vigorous life did not make itself felt in man only, but in all he fought against, in all he fought for.

There was the mud in all stages, on

¹Part of the forthcoming Red Cross report on the floods of 1913.

all things, insidious, sinister, refusing to let go, on the people, on the workers, on myself. I was nervously conscious of its adhesive qualities and somehow sympathized with those who threw things away instead of trying to clean up. I threw my own things away one by one, but still it clung.

There were the rubbish heaps covering sidewalks and streets, representing

the household goods of the inhabitants of Dayton, the clothes and occupations of her people, the stock of her merchants, not inanimate heaps but almost breathing loss and sorrow and need.

There were houses lying overturned a block and a half away from where they belonged, with walls caved in, roofs off, foundations lying bare. In the fire district were still smoking embers of what had been the homes of Dayton.

But it was the people first and foremost that impressed me,—throngs of people in the relief stations, reluctantly filing into line to register for their var-

ious needs. Rather silent throngs they were during the first weeks, with tense, haggard faces, each intent on his own business, preoccupied with his own losses, and all keyed up to a high pitch, that did not allow weeping and wailing but presented rather a stolid front. Later on, as the strain gave, the same crowd now eager, clamoring, impatient, discussed the situation with everybody, telling over and over again their own part in it to all who would listen. From day to day they planned rehabilitation and from day to day changed their plans as their stunned energy reasserted itself in an incoherent and not always pleasant way, and they jumbled and jostled each other and the workers.

A Convict's Donation

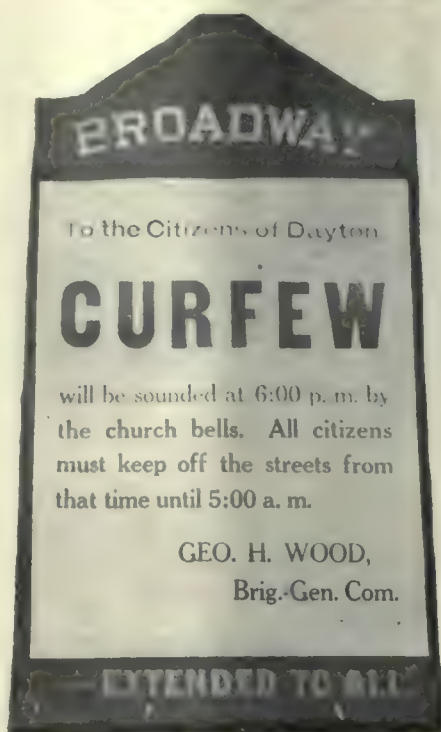
There was the National Cash Register plant which impressed one as a sort of huge kindergarten, with its many lights, its hundreds of employes told off on relief service, its quantities of food, of mottoes, of bewildering underground passageways; and the sleeping quarters where, with forty or fifty others, I rested my weary bones.

And there were the soldiers—they were everywhere. I was most conscious of them in my own station where two regiments were quartered, where all my house-cleaning, such as it was, was done under their direction by men locked up over night for disorderly conduct or evasion of duty of some kind; where once a delegation of them appeared with a donation to the Red Cross of thirteen cents,—this being confiscated goods found on a convict who had left that morning without claiming his property; and on the streets, where they would get me an automobile to go home in, calling it to halt as soon as it had well started—keeping a marvelous order in things.

There was the dignified Colonel Catrow who came in for an interview and informed me that, through some misunderstanding on the part of some of my volunteer workers, all the male population of Dayton, except those on my own premises, were at the time standing in line outside General Wood's office in the Algonquin under the impression that he was in special charge of the rubber boots and would give them out personally, whereas, in fact, I was politely assured, he had only one pair and was wearing those himself. I promised eagerly to send the Dayton men elsewhere for footwear henceforth.

There was Mr. Frizell who in his courtly way reminded me that it was time to partake of refreshments and led me out into the soldiers' quarters, where I was treated to huge portions of their own fare. Sometimes Mr. Frizell suavely rubbed off the rough edge of some quick remark of my own to an annoying visitor, while he deftly "shuf-

Photo by Underwood & Underwood



ANNOUNCEMENT BULLETIN WHICH HELPED ENFORCE ORDER IN DAYTON



Photo by Underwood & Underwood

HOMELESS REFUGEES WAITING FOR RELIEF IN DAYTON

fled the deck" assigning each family record to the geographical district where it properly belonged. I feel an undying gratitude to him for bringing me some of my best volunteers,—mostly teachers, though a goodly number were not—quiet, cheerful, sympathetic, many themselves flood sufferers but able and willing to do their part to relieve the strain, showing a capacity for team work in ways for which they were absolutely untrained, in a manner that did credit to their general mental make-up.

The Helpers' Task

And there were the Y. M. C. A. boys, the secretaries of the various departments and their courteous, co-operating chief,—all helpful, good-natured, patient, and in fact greatly facilitating a hard task done under somewhat difficult conditions. The crowds did not allow of smaller quarters than one-half of the entire lobby; and to maintain semi-order and get the work done where you were keeping five or six departments separate, where your only partitions were

chalk lines and moral force—this was a task you would never forget, if you had ever confronted it.

Inseparable from the workshop is the impression of a cold drizzling rain that used to penetrate the building where the heating apparatus, as everywhere else, was out of commission, where the cellar was filled with water and where the air was fetid and devitalized by the crowds that occupied every conceivable space; where I tried to barricade myself behind chairs and tables against the people who all wanted to see the agent in charge because there was always a special side to each one's particular problem differentiating it entirely from the problem of everybody else; where I tried to pass on emergency relief, to read cases, instruct visitors, direct interviewers, listen to special appeals of pastors, doctors and others in



behalf of their clients; where I was expected to give advice as to resources about which I had not the smallest knowledge; where folks not knowing better held me accountable for work which was being done in the other end of Dayton, and from where I was also expected to turn in my recommendations for definite grants on investigated cases fast enough to satisfy the throngs that would not give me five minutes a day to do it in.

There is no doubt that this driving tension affected the work—we were face to face with actualities that we could not govern but must fit into if we would be of help or accomplish anything. All preconceived notions, however excellent, had to be laid aside, and the worker's greatest asset was a capacity for quick adjustment and still quicker readjustment as the situation psychologically and physically changed from day to day. The need was primitive,—it was for the first essentials of bare living; it was emergent,—people were bunked in schools and churches or living en

masse in each others' houses. We could only guess at the possible registration in those early days and it was not known how large the funds were going to be, all of which had to be taken into consideration in the recommendation of each case.

This station had been opened for registration the day before I arrived and the third of April found us established on a very modest scale at a small table in one corner of the lobby where exactly twelve applications were received while two visitors were kept busy. The following week saw the work largely increased. The people had begun to learn what registration signified and the emergency lines for food and clothing gathering in other parts of the hall had been turned in our direction if preliminary inquiry had brought out the need of home rehabilitation. From then on to the close of the registration two months later seven long tables were kept filled with interviewers on one side, applicants on the other, the daily number of interviewers averaging about fifteen and registrations running from 135 to 200 a day.

The Need of Routine

An index card system was established within three days, the object being to protect us against duplicated registration right on the premises, as the records themselves when once passed on, were sent to Mr. Devine's office at the National Cash Register. Thus another department with two volunteers to run it was started and each interviewer had her record identified before completing it. A mass of duplication was avoided for people seemed to think that it would be safer to fill out as many registration blanks as possible.

As the emergent relief stations were soon placed under the Red Cross, making but one registration line, and further, as the actual supplies in the Y. M. C. A. were removed to Memorial Hall, the call for emergent relief would come simultaneously with that for home rehabilitation and for six weeks more or less such relief as stoves, mattresses, bedding and clothing was given out on the basis of the registration before the case was looked up, to prevent unnecessary suffering pending investigation. The task of writing out requisitions for such cases was enough to occupy one person's time.

Visits were reduced as far as possible to an established routine. It was impossible with so large a number of untrained workers to give minute directions on each case—it was equally impossible to trust much to their judgment or discretion. The routine call was the safest method by which to secure such impersonal information as would make possible the forming of a fair judgment. One call was to the flood address to

verify the applicant's statement and another to some responsible reference. Then records with the visits entered were read by the agent and such as needed further corroboration were turned back to the visitors with written instructions of how to proceed. Finally, my recommendation went on the record and it was sent to Mr. Devine for his decision.

Closing the Bread Line

When furniture orders and cash grants were first given out they were sent to the respective districts from which in the beginning attempts were made to deliver by visitors. This soon proved impractical and notices were sent to the beneficiaries to call at the stations for their grants. It was also found a great handicap to have grants delivered from so many stations, and as people who had originally registered at the Y. M. C. A. naturally came back there for what they were to receive, it was decided to have all grants given out from that station. So another department developed, with three or four clerks attached.

About this time also it was found imperative to close the bread line which had been standing in Memorial Hall. For three or four days before this was done two interviewers from the Y. M. C. A. were stationed in the hall and took a full registration of each applicant, so that if necessary a cash grant or other provision might be made for such as would otherwise suffer because of the cessation of supplies. The bread line was closed definitely in the last remaining relief station in Memorial Hall on April 21 and from that time on appli-

cants for food were referred to the station in the Y. M. C. A.

At this time also inquiries and complaints began to multiply by applicants who had not yet heard from the Red Cross and who were becoming anxious lest they were overlooked or turned down. These came from all over the city (the other stations having closed), and increased the bulk of work very greatly, mixing with other lines and frequently trying to register again.

An information bureau was therefore started where complaints and inquiries were heard and answered, where changes of address were taken, etc., and ushers were put on the floor to sift the lines—there were four at that time: the regular registration line, the grant line, the inquiry line, and the agent's line. The agent's line was composed of food applicants from Memorial Hall, laborers from out of town who came more or less the worse for liquor and tried by hook or crook to get relief to which they were not entitled, and others of the unmanageable kind.

Busy Days

These were busy, strenuous days, we had no time to generalize or to draw inferences. I could not see the woods for the trees; but I saw the trees, one by one, and trusted to a kind Providence to make me so wise and so harmless that in the final analysis not too much injustice should be found done unwittingly. At last the personal registration closed and the people were notified through the press to make their applications by mail if not already registered. We moved at this time out of the lobby to an upper room where we expected

Photo by Underwood & Underwood



STREET SCENE IN DAYTON AFTER THE WATERS RECEDED



BREAD LINE AT NATIONAL CASH REGISTER PLANT, DAYTON

From the beginning, this plant was a center of resourceful activity

to remain only for a few days while winding up but where we were for over a month, continuing to investigate applications that came by mail, and to give out grants averaging 100 a day.

The volunteer service had by this time almost ceased. Six or seven volunteers still remained but the rest had gone back to their usual occupations. Almost all of the schools had opened and the teachers had been called back in large numbers; yet, the work had to go on. But already toward the close of April some paid assistance had been thought advisable for the visiting. It was difficult to get round, the volunteers were unused to the severe physical strain, and the force was continually changing, keeping the efficiency of the work at the lowest standard.

We thought in the Y. M. C. A. that if we employed some young men with a fair education who knew the town and concerning whose physical endurance we need not worry, that to a large extent we would have solved the problem. We secured such service through the Y.M.C.A. and kindred institutions, though, frankly speaking, a slight doubt remains as to whether the solution was as happy a one as we hoped. Still, though very unsophisticated and very crude (their ages ranged from 19 to 22), these paid visitors had a direct straightforward way about them, they told the truth without fear or favor, they had boys' keen powers of observation and quick youthful intuition which made up to a great extent for more mature judgment tempered with personal bias. They were earnest and lovable, those Dayton boys, and their reports, impossible as such, were sources of great delight.

In the beginning of June the Red

Cross work was removed from the Y. M. C. A. to the building of the Associated Charities, where we conducted the final winding up of the mail registration. The last drippings of this, largely duplication of early registration, were turned over to the Associated Charities when the Red Cross closed its work.

Closing Out

My work fell chronologically into three sections, registration, final grant review, and business rehabilitation. Each one followed closely on the heels of the other, each presented a later stage in the process of rehabilitation, and each showed people and work from a different angle.

This "final grant review" was begun immediately after registration proper (personal application or by mail) had closed. It was divided between two of us—Mr. Devine passing on each of our recommendations himself—and took about three weeks. All grant cases fell to my lot and I had the privilege of reading some four thousand records in about five hundred of which calls were made by visitors to ascertain present conditions. This latter was due to the fact that in many cases at the time the first grant was issued, conditions and plans had been very unsettled, leaving us in doubt as to where and how a supplementary grant should be applied.

The last three weeks we spent in Dayton were devoted to aiding the smaller business men, of necessity the last step taken in the work of rehabilitation. Mr. Devine took personal charge of this work

Miss Bojesen became responsible for reviewing all the records on which a grant of any kind had been made; Miss McHugh similarly reviewing all "deferred" records. E. T. D.

and three of us still in harness divided the city into three sections for personal visits; for the questions involved and the size of the grants required experienced service. We were, however, ably seconded by semi-trained workers who had assisted in the other branches.

It was interesting work. For some of us it meant the first chance to see the inside of homes of flood sufferers. Even then, four months after the catastrophe, signs of the disaster still showed in rooms bare of all except necessary furniture, in unpapered walls, many houses not yet being sufficiently dry to make it safe to repaper.

But the people were themselves again, cheerful and strong. Business men and women readily gave all the information they had about their business, which sometimes was surprisingly little. They were running their shops with shelves half filled, without delivery because their horses were drowned, with most of their outstanding accounts gone bad, with hardly a customer in some of the nearly deserted sections or without any shop at all because it had been destroyed with its contents. Brave men and women they were. Most of them had begun again or continued on extended credit and "nerve." It was an object lesson in fortitude and perseverance to see how they were winning out, native and foreigner alike, including the Hungarian in North Dayton,—who by the way, is as shrewd a business man as any of them!

And at last the work was finished. We pulled up stakes at midnight on August 14, and came away marveling at the boundless vitality that came out of great tribulation to prove the survival of the fit.

Flood Rehabilitation in a City¹

THE relief work in Dayton was an integral part of an extensive series of relief operations in Ohio and other states made necessary by the extraordinary and disastrous spring rains of 1913. The problem in Dayton was larger but not essentially different from that of Hamilton, Zanesville, Marietta, Columbus and many other cities and towns. Affecting, however, a much larger number of families than in any other single community, involving the expenditure of a larger sum of money, requiring the co-operation of a larger staff of workers, and being marked by some features exceptionally instructive to students of emergency relief, the Red Cross relief work in Dayton has been thought to be of sufficiently general interest to justify a somewhat full and detailed statement.

The Red Cross registration was planned from the beginning so that it should be sufficient for any household or family relief which might be undertaken. It was determined that it should be so carefully and thoroughly done that it would not have to be done over again. In order to decide how much aid was necessary, information was obtained as to the size and composition of the family, age and earning capacity, savings and other resources, losses in the disaster, relatives who were dependent and those who could aid, plans for the future and other pertinent facts. In addition to the statement from the member of the family first interviewed, some corroboration was always obtained, and a visit was made to the house in which the family lived at the time of the disaster, if it was still in existence, and if such a visit would throw any light, as it usually would, upon the question to be decided. In special departments of the relief distribution such as pensions to widows and children of those who were drowned, house repairs, and business rehabilitation much additional information of a specific nature was, of course, essential.

So far as our records show, there were 116 deaths from the flood in Dayton. Thirty-eight of these cases were found to need aid of some kind. Three of these were widows who were provided for by other agencies. The other thirty-five were given aid by the Red Cross. The wishes of the people themselves were followed as far as possible. Many of them were still so stunned by the blow of death itself as to have no definite plans, and they welcomed suggestions.

In each of the cases needing perma-

Edward T. Devine

DIRECTOR NEW YORK SCHOOL OF PHILANTHROPY AND SPECIAL REPRESENTATIVE OF THE RED CROSS AT DAYTON DURING THE 1913 FLOOD

nent aid the death was that of the chief bread-winner of the family. Three of these were widows with small children. A sum was set aside for each which would provide for their support until the children were of working age, or could be safely left without the mother in case she went to work. The fourth was a widow with an unborn child. Money was given for her care for a year's time.

In the case of two mothers who lost grown sons who were their main supports, grants were made to place them in position to become self-supporting at once. One was given money to establish herself in a rooming-house; the other was given money to improve her home so that she could secure a better income from it.

Two Orphans

Two of the cases requiring permanent assistance were orphans. On one the Juvenile Court was asked to decide the controversy of the proper home for the children. A fund was then provided to help with their education. In the other case—that of a colored girl twenty years of age—the court was asked to decide her legal status, as she was found not to have been formally adopted by her foster-father. The money left to her was for the improvement of his property if she was found to be his heir, or to provide for her an income in some other way, so that she could have periods of rest from work, her health having been broken down by exposure during the flood.

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GUARDIANS GUARDING WRECKED JEWELRY STORE IN DAYTON

The first glaring characteristic feature of the disaster after the period of rescue and refuge had passed, was that more than ten thousand homes had been stripped of their furniture. Many houses, it is true, were uninhabitable because of damp walls, unsafe foundations, broken windows, and damaged porches. But such repairs, except in the worst instances, could wait. In the meantime, beds and mattresses, tables, chairs, sewing machines, dressers, cupboards, stoves, dishes, and all the other household goods, were gone.

This appalling absence of furniture was then the first great fact to be taken into account in the rehabilitation relief. It was suggested that the relief fund might buy a large quantity of furniture of the inexpensive kind and bring it to Dayton to be given away as food and clothing had been. This seemed to us inadvisable. In the case of food and clothing there had been no alternative; the stocks on hand in stores had been destroyed and in any case with railways crippled or entirely out of operation, they would have been insufficient to meet the demand for many days. With furniture it was different. The more expensive pieces displayed in the show windows or on the first floors of the furniture stores had either been washed away, gone out of the window, or had been left in such a condition that the proprietors might well wish them gone. What was in the basements had also been lost. But in the upper floors of all the stores, except one which had collapsed in the flood, there were uninjured stocks of ordinary furniture, such as would probably be in present demand.

It was quickly decided, therefore, to supply furniture to the flood victims by means of orders good at any of the dealers whose names were printed on the

¹Written in the summer of 1913 within a few weeks after the withdrawal of the Red Cross from Dayton. It is condensed from Mr. Devine's report to the Red Cross, soon to be published.



RED CROSS NURSE ANSWERING A SICK CALL

back of the requisition. These firms were members of a furniture retail dealers' association, which by resolution pledged themselves not to increase prices, but to co-operate in a broad-minded and public spirited way in making the plan a success. Each dealer in presenting his bill was to return the requisition, which before payment was compared in each instance with the carbon copy on file at the Red Cross headquarters, and in addition a receipt, on a prescribed form, showing that the furniture had actually been delivered to the satisfaction of the customer. It was understood that no discount would be asked by the Red Cross, but that the dealer would in effect give the family making the purchase a discount by disregarding small balances in the dealer's favor or at least by making sure that every dollar in the requisition was represented by a full dollar's worth or more than the worth of a dollar in furniture. Second hand furniture dealers were not included in this arrangement, nearly all of their stocks having been destroyed. Moreover, it was felt that under the existing conditions each family should have some new furniture and that second hand or "flooded" furniture could more appropriately be bought, so far as it was needed, from current wages, or other income. The Red Cross grant would thus furnish a nucleus for a household equipment representing a normal standard of living, as a supply entirely of damaged and second hand furniture would not.

Freedom in Buying

No restrictions whatever were placed on the articles to be bought and no attempt was made to equalize the trade among dealers. All were left perfectly free to choose their dealer and to buy whatever they liked within the limit of the grant.

The amount of the grant of course depended upon the size of the family, earnings, and other resources, losses and other pertinent facts. Some consideration was even given to the standard of

living of the family, so far as this was shown by any tangible indications. Out of a total registration of some eight thousand families, nearly five thousand were supplied with furniture in an aggregate amount of \$157,057.42.²

The Average Grant

A tabulation has been made of four thousand of these requisitions and of the articles purchased by the families to whom they were given. The average amount of these four thousand grants was just under \$35, the aggregate being \$139,733. A trifle over one-half (2,004) made purchases in excess of the amount of their grant, the aggregate amount of the excess being \$37,075.09. In other words, one-half of the beneficiaries added on an average about 50 per cent to the Red Cross donation either from their own money or by going into debt by an installment purchase, or otherwise. On the other hand eighty-seven families purchased less than the amount of their grant, taking due bills for the remainder, to be traded out at some future time. The amount of these due bills was \$1,391., an average of about \$16.00, again a little less than one-half of the average grant.

In many instances other needs than those for household goods were equally apparent and from the beginning grants were made for various other purposes, usually in money. In some instances this appropriation was placed in the hands of some suitable trustee instead of being given directly to the person for whose benefit it was made. Sometimes this was a near relative, but when such an arrangement was for any reason not feasible,

²These figures are subject to slight alteration from the cancellation of unused requisitions, etc., but are substantially correct.

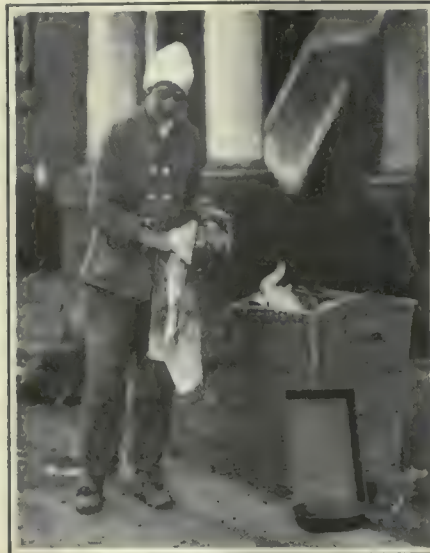


Photo by Underwood & Underwood
A WOMAN CLEANING ALL SHE POSSESSED
AFTER THE FLOOD



THE RIVER IS STILL IN THE STREET

ible, the money was usually paid in trust to the Associated Charities with full instructions as to the purpose for which it was given.

Dayton has always been noted for its large house-owning population. It is stated on reliable authority that fully two-thirds of its working people own or are purchasing their houses. Many are of thrifty German inheritance who are ready to take advantage of the liberal terms of the Dayton building and loan associations. Their houses were thus usually the results of a lifetime of saving and patient industry on the part of entire families.

In the majority of cases, moreover, the home was only partly paid for, and its owner was not free, as was the renter, to cast the mud from his feet and go elsewhere to live, nor free even to move to another location. How generally this was the situation is shown by the fact that about ninety per cent of those to whom money was given for house repairs had mortgages on their property. The owners' interest and payments continued. His flood damaged property was not salable. His family needed shelter. There was nothing for him to do but to return to repair his house and add the cost to his mortgage, or lose all, unless he belonged to the small minority having savings and outside resources of some kind.

Displaced Houses

The first plan undertaken in the direction of house rehabilitation was limited to the moving of displaced houses back to their own foundations. One or two gangs of carpenters who had been engaged in work on the bridges were put to work at the expense of the relief fund in replacing houses on their foundations. Within three weeks after April 7, twenty-six houses were thus replaced at a total cost of about \$3,500.

The amount of work done on different houses varied from \$30 to \$300. The amount of good accomplished varied likewise, but not always strictly in proportion, as in some instances the houses were in such condition that they did not stand moving; and in one or two cases it was necessary for the owner to demolish them, even after some work had been done in an attempt to replace them. In this experimental plan, the Red Cross did not attempt to do all that needed to be done, but after restoring the house to its normal position left the owner or tenant to repair the foundation and to complete the repairs on the building.

With this experience as a basis for judgment, it was decided that upon the whole, in spite of the difficulties in securing the services of carpenters, masons, plumbers and decorators, the owners would usually themselves be able to make better and more economical arrangements and to do the work more to their own satisfaction, if they made their

own contracts. A new plan of procedure was therefore adopted more nearly analogous to that which had been followed in the furniture grants.

The First Applicants

Cards were mailed to those who had previously registered for assistance, whose applications showed property ownership. These cards called for replies from those who wished to become applicants for housing, specifying the damage to their property with estimated cost of repairs; also for the valuation and mortgage indebtedness of the property. About one thousand applications were received in response, and over two hundred applications were received later from other sources. The investigation of these twelve hundred applications required more than two months with a working force of four visitors, and was not completed until late in July. This prolongation of the work proved to be an advantage rather than otherwise, for as the days passed the actual damages came to be understood better, on the one hand, and, on the other, the resources of the owners were more easily learned, so that a better basis for a decision in every case was possible.

In the first days the applicant modestly asked for \$25 or \$50 to make his repairs. But after he had dug out his house and had been able to penetrate to cellar and roof he found he was likely to need ten times the amount of his first estimates. Joists were found rotting and sinking, furnace and water pipes proved bent beyond repair, floor frames and baseboards were loosened, cement in the foundations was falling out. Perhaps a hundred minor damages could be listed, all of which would require endless work and expense to repair.

The majority of those whose applications were received and investigated were working men with an average wage of \$15 a week, supplemented often by the board of wage-earning sons and daughters. There were also among the applicants a large number of widows, single women, old people, women with husbands incapacitated by reason of blindness, permanent injury or illness, whose income was more limited even than that of the working man with a family, and which had frequently been derived wholly from the damaged property.

With reports of family circumstances and needed repairs in hand, a careful study of each case was made with a view to determining whether or not the owners needed financial assistance, and if so, what proportion of the repairs it was justifiable to leave them burdened with. This decision was comparatively easy to reach in cases where there was a regular income and where repairs did not amount to over \$300. Usually in such cases about one-half or two-thirds of the cost of repairs was granted.

However, where the owner was a widow or a single woman, or an old man whose working days were waning, the full amount was frequently given, as it was evident that they had sufficient burden in earning their daily bread.

The cases of seriously wrecked houses requiring from \$500 to \$1,000 for repairs, and the decision as to the amount of assistance to be given, presented a more serious problem. Where the property was already heavily mortgaged the owner often could not borrow more and seldom enough for his repairs, while the Red Cross grant could not be made large enough as a rule to cover the cost. In such instances help was sought from relatives and other outside sources before any decision was made. Usually the amount given by the Red Cross was that which was needed over and above what the building and loan association considered safe for the owner to assume, less the amounts which had been raised outside. Occasionally additional grants were made to cancel a second mortgage or to pay delinquent taxes or interest. In cases of houses badly wrecked when the owner was still able to borrow on his property and was of good wage-earning capacity, the grant was made sufficient to give him a good start on his repairs while leaving the burden largely with him.

Demolished Houses

Demolished houses were a problem of their own, one which was not so satisfactorily worked out as might have been desired because of the inability to secure an accurate list of them at any time. Investigation of these cases sought, naturally, for information different from that where there was property to repair. Was the property occupied as a home or was it a source of income only? If a home, how was the family situated now? Did they have plans for rebuilding? If the property was still mortgaged had they sought for any adjustment of their loss?

In eighteen cases plans were being made for rebuilding. The applicants in these cases were urged to arrange with some building and loan association for the balance of the money. After they had done so and the fact had been verified, a grant was made, varying in amount from \$250 to \$400.

In several cases in which the property was still mortgaged, the loss had been taken over by the mortgagee leaving the applicant free from obligations. In such instances grants were made usually for the purchase of a lot or a house after such arrangements had been verified. In two instances, both of elderly women, instead of a grant for rebuilding, the money was given to enable them to have a home with relatives,—in one, to have an addition to a son's house; in the other, for the purchase of a share in a



THE RIVER AT THE RIGHT LOOKS DOCILE ENOUGH NOW

brother's house. In twenty instances the property was not the home of the owner but consisted of old houses which were a small source of income to their owners.

No attempt was made, except in one case, to restore such property, but liberal grants were made for the repair of the owners' homes or of other property still standing. In the exception referred to, the property consisted of a house and a store which provided both home and income for two single women and an invalid brother. Arrangements in this case were made with the building and loan association for money sufficient, with the Red Cross grants, to rebuild the buildings.

Mr. and Mrs. H. had a good home which was completely demolished. In her letter of application Mrs. H. wrote:

"The reason I am asking for this help I have no home any more and my husband is sick most of the time and his earnings are not enough to meet our expenses and build without some help. I have to work most of the time and I

have a child five years old and he is under the doctor's care and it takes most everything to meet expenses. We got along nicely before we lost our house. We lost everything and had only what we had on. I know lots of people lost everything too, but I know if anyone needs help I know I do."

In this case the facts were as stated; also, a child was born soon after the flood. The property was in a good location and the mortgage was small. The building and loan association were willing to increase the mortgage if the family would rebuild. For this purpose, \$400 was given Mr. H.

The total amount expended for the repairing of houses in Dayton was \$130,255.37, of which \$3,412.25 was expended as described, through a contractor, and \$126,843.12 given in individual grants. The number of grants made was 1,082, making an average of \$127.45 for each grant.

Money was paid directly to the people themselves with a very few exceptions. It was felt that if the investigation had

been sufficiently thorough in finding those who most needed help, they could be trusted in the use of it. The grants were called for in person, however, and the plan for the use of the money was explained in full if it seemed necessary.

Before long it became evident that in contrast with this immediate restoration of the normal incomes of laborers, there were scores, even hundreds, of families who had not only, like the workingmen's families, lost their accumulated possessions, but also, at least for the time being, their means of livelihood. Expressmen had lost their horses and wagons; carpenters their tools, ladders, and lumber, cement workers their moulds and mixers; tailors, their sewing machines and materials for repairs; milliners, their stocks and fixtures; undertakers, their caskets and equipment; bakers, their ovens and delivery wagons; barbers, their chairs and mirrors; druggists, grocers and all retail merchants of all kinds everything on the first floor—usually the only floor of their place of business—and in their cellars and basements. Many of the business men were of course indebted to wholesalers, jobbers, and manufacturers for the goods in their stores at the time of the flood; many of them on the other hand had outstanding accounts of customers whose ability to pay was at least temporarily suspended if not entirely destroyed by the common disaster.

Helping the Business Man

Of course, the larger manufacturers and merchants had also their serious problems out of which bankruptcy or voluntary application for a receivership was sometimes the most available and honorable escape, if for no other reason, as a means of gaining time for recuperation. Such problems as these, however, cannot be assumed even in part by a relief fund like that of the Red Cross. Some assistance was attempted in their case by the Montgomery County Bar Relief Committee.

On the completion of the family relief and house repairs departments, it was found that there would still be a limited fund which could be used to help out these merchants and self employing mechanics who lost severely in their business and whose resources were not sufficient to enable them to re-establish themselves. This gave rise to the Business Rehabilitation department, which in the closing three weeks of the Red Cross activities in Dayton gave aid to 518 individuals or firms, in an aggregate amount of \$84,280.

After a week spent in examining Red Cross records for suitable candidates for business rehabilitation, and in consulting the records of Dun's, Bradstreet's, and a local mercantile agency, announcement was made in all of the daily newspapers that the Red Cross



MANY FEET FROM THE TRACK

was prepared to consider applications of this kind, careful definition being given of the character and limitations of the proposed grants. A time limit of one week was given for receiving such applications, and it was requested that application be made in writing, although those who appeared at the Red Cross office in the Associated Charities Building were registered at the time of their call.

In all, consideration was given to 766 applications or recommendations for aid of this kind. Two hundred and forty-eight were considered not to need further assistance than had already been given in other ways or to have such re-

sources as made them ineligible for business grants. Many of them had not in fact made application but were visited only because one of the mercantile agencies, or perhaps one of the Red Cross workers, found some indication that there was at least occasion for an inquiry.

The grants made to 518 business concerns may be classified as to amount as follows: Under \$100, 117; \$100 to \$149, 135; \$150 to \$199, 75; \$200 to \$299, 125; \$300 and over, 66. The average amount of the business grant was \$162.70; eleven were of \$500 each.

This experience was perhaps the most interesting and instructive of the entire

five months. Brief and relatively superficial as the inquiries necessarily were, they revealed the whole structure of the smaller business activity of a typical American city. The difficulties and the advantages of the modest retail enterprise have never been so clearly set forth as in these frank and explicit statements of losses, assets and liabilities, and special circumstances surrounding the particular situation. The disaster being without parallel, both social workers and those who were under consideration for aid felt it no disgrace that the question had been raised, and no false shame was displayed from beginning to end.

Flood Prevention and River Regulation

IN commenting on the floods in Texas in 1899, an editorial in the *Chautauquan* magazine stated that "the worst feature of the situation is that there is nothing to prevent frequent recurrences of the calamity." It will not be amiss to inquire whether such a statement may still be made, and if not, what is happening to make it inapplicable.

The history of almost every race begins with a legendary story of a great flood. And from the time of the Deluge to the present day, great rivers, their use, and their irruptions have played a leading part in determining the movements of commerce, in encouraging and destroying civilizations, in making and unmaking empires. The names of Tigris and Euphrates are inseparably linked with the rise and fall of Persia, as the problem of the control of the Nile has been the determining element in the development of Egypt. Tacitus tells how the Tiber, by repeated outbreaks, overturned and swept away the buildings on its banks, and contributed a powerful impetus to the decline and destruction of the grandeur that once was Rome.

The *Encyclopedia Americana* gives a list of great flood disasters from the seventh to the end of the nineteenth century. Although many were seacoast inundations due to storms or earthquakes, the number gives some idea of the universal occurrence and the historical importance of floods. Those due to river floods number twenty-nine, but the list omits thousands of minor floods. In our own country for instance the Mississippi river was in flood about twenty times in the nineteenth century.

Since 1900, flood damage if not flood frequency in the United States has been greater than in any preceding similar period. Millions of dollars loss was caused by the Mississippi River flood in 1903, and in the same year the great floods occurred in Kansas and in Oregon. The next significant year for

floods was 1907, when great damage was done in the Ohio and Mississippi Valleys. Again in 1912 the Mississippi river was in flood, reaching at many points the highest stages then recorded and causing an estimated flood damage of about \$80,000,000. And so the list might be extended indefinitely, to include the Hudson, the Genesee, the Susquehanna, the Savannah, the Brazos, the Colorado, the Sacramento—almost every river, in fact, throughout this broad land.

Our Recent Experience

No period, however, has ever served to direct the attention of the American people so strongly to the menace of the flood problem and to the importance of steps to control it as that of 1913. The gigantic relief operations told about in this very issue serve to emphasize the needs of preventive measures in order to avoid the necessity of such remedies.

It is in the lessons of the floods, the measures to prevent their repetition and the prospects of the future, that we are now interested. Surely we in America do not need so severe a course in the school of experience, as that in China to convince us that millions for prevention is better than still more millions for relief and rehabilitation. The earliest floods no doubt were considered unavoidable inflictions of an outraged deity and suggested no preventive measures to the survivors, but very soon the idea must have occurred to men that something might be done to protect them from such disasters. There is no record that Noah concerned himself with any such measures after landing on Mt. Ararat. But the embankments along the Yellow River in China were first built untold centuries ago, and many ancient

protective walls remain to testify to the spirit with which man resisted the attack of the angry element.

Nor are levees and walls the only flood relief measures of ancient origin. It was but a few years after the beginning of the Christian era that a "flood commission" in Rome recommended the construction of reservoirs and diversion channels to protect the city from the destructive Tiber.

In our own country, organized effort for flood protection dates back at least fifty years. Since that time, the federal government has expended over \$40,000,000 in building levees and bank protection in the Mississippi valley, which with the amount spent by the local levee boards, makes up a total expenditure of over \$100,000,000 on this work. Like other efforts, however, this movement has been in the nature of a fight to carry out a plan originally conceived as the best type of protection against the immediate dangers which threatened. At no time, either in the beginning, or since, has there been apparent a disposition on the part of the nation to give to the problem consideration and appropriations commensurate with its magnitude and sufficient to determine whether the plan, excellent as have been its results, is really the best that could be devised for the entire drainage basin.

Point is given to this question by some important developments of the past few years. Many extensive works for irrigation and many large water power developments built by the government and by private interests have done away with excessive flood discharge at times of storm. Several notable studies have indicated that other methods may be advantageously used to supplant the levee system, and to replace it in some portions of the country. And several alternative plans have been urged upon the country by groups of their supporters; so that there is now a disposition

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ENGINEERS

to reopen the entire subject and give it a scientific review, such as it has never had, and such as will place it on a firmer basis.

The earliest and, in some respects, the most important of the recent studies that have led to this situation was that of the Pittsburgh Flood Commission, carried on between 1907 and 1912. This commission concluded that the most advantageous protection for the city of Pittsburgh from flood losses which had totaled \$20,000,000 in the preceding seventeen years was not bank protection or channel improvement alone, but such work combined with storage of that portion of the flood water above the danger line—that is, the “flood peak.” In a comprehensive and well-considered report, it recommended the construction of seventeen storage reservoirs in combination with a low concrete wall for certain portions of the city. Although criticism has been directed at some features in the report, no one has seriously questioned the practical value of the plan for its purpose at this place; and the report has served the purpose of calling attention strongly to the fact that this method of flood prevention is applicable to some portions of the United States as well as of Europe.

Ohio Studies

As is frequently the case with pioneers in many fields of endeavor, Pittsburgh is likely to wait and watch others reap the result of its educational propaganda. Commendable report from the National Waterways Commission has brought as yet no favorable action at Washington, except the purchase of some forest lands under the authority of the Appalachian Forest Reserve bill. Request for a state appropriation to build one of the seventeen reservoirs on the Youghiogheny river resulted in a veto by the governor. A small appropriation was granted the State Water Supply Commission to make a start toward the conversion of Pymatung Swamp, at the head waters of the Shenango river, into a huge reservoir, which will prevent floods, increase greatly the low water discharge of this river, and be of great help in the Beaver river below.

The usefulness of various methods of river control has been driven home more recently by the studies made at Columbus and at Dayton, Ohio. At the former city, a channel improvement project has been recommended, as most economical from the local point of view. The report states, however:

“Reservoirs on the upper watershed have been found practicable at reasonable cost.

“Reservoirs aid not only Columbus but Delaware and the entire valley, even as far as Chillicothe. Should any combination of interests be effected. * * * reservoirs * * * combined with channels will have an advantage over all others.”

“Conservancy Districts”

At Dayton, seven detention basins have been recommended, together with some channel improvement, to protect all the cities in the Miami Valley. There has not been much evidence adduced, however, based on comprehensive engineering studies, regarding the adaptability of outlets or spillways, and the value of methods of retaining precipitation in the soil.

But Dayton and Columbus are not the only cities that have devoted attention to the problem of preventing a recurrence of the 1913 disasters. Letters addressed to a number of cities have recently elicited the following information: Eleven places—Defiance, Delaware, Findlay, Lima, Marietta, Tiffin and Wells-ville in Ohio; Brookville and Grant County, and Indianapolis in Indiana, and Shawneetown in Illinois, report plans under way for the widening river channels, building levees, raising streets and other measures. At both Dayton and Columbus some levee and other repair and minor improvement work has already been carried out which will protect somewhat against similar floods.

Railroads have given much attention to flood flows in the reconstruction following the flood. Wherever bridges had to be restored or repaired, studies and surveys were made to determine the probable maximum discharge and the opening required to pass it safely; then structures have been made to conform to these standards as nearly as possible.

The striking fact about these various plans, however, is their entire lack of co-ordination, resulting from a default of any general plan or supervising authority. An effort has been made to remedy this in Ohio, where, after a month's consideration in special session, the legislature passed on February 16, 1914, the “Ohio Conservancy Act.”

This law provides for the organization of “conservancy districts” for the purpose of carrying out flood prevention and river improvement projects. Such districts may be created by the Courts of Common Pleas, on petition of five hundred freeholders, or a majority of property owners in the proposed districts. Provision is made for public hearings on the organization of the district, and on the adoption of an “Official Plan.” But after protests are reconciled or disposed of, and after the organization and plans are adopted, a large measure of authority is given to the board of directors, which is to be appointed by the court, to exercise the right of eminent domain, to issue bonds, to construct works and to assess the cost equitably upon the owners of property benefited.

On the day following the signing of the law, a petition was filed by 1,656 freeholders, three counties and five cities in the Miami valley to organize the

“Miami River Conservancy District,” for the purpose of carrying out the plans prepared the Dayton Flood Prevention Committee, which is composed of able, public-spirited citizens of great force and capacity. This project provides for an entire drainage basin, that of the Great Miami, large enough to treat the stream as a unit from its source to its mouth—a very important desideratum in all such problems and one too often forgotten. Many surveys and plans have been made and construction work can start immediately after approval of the official plan.

Strong opposition to the organization of the district at once developed from some people in the valley above Dayton, and in the sections where the proposed reservoirs are located. The former appear to feel that the plan has been prepared with an eye single to Dayton's welfare, and that they are to be asked to pay for the larger city; the latter appear to fear principally that their property may be taken without adequate compensation.

Attacks on the Law

The constitutionality of the law has been assailed. It is contended that such a court, specially constituted of one judge from each county affected, is not duly authorized by law to legislate and administer such duties and that the law delegates power of taxation to a non-representative body of directors not chosen by the people interested. The accusation has been freely made that the whole plan is a scheme of “power grabbers” to develop water power at the dams and to create a power monopoly in the valley, which will eventually make the basins unavailable for flood storage. Such intention is just as emphatically disclaimed by the committee, and there is even talk of asking the court to make it a condition of the incorporation that no power shall ever be developed at any of the dams.

The first hearing on the Miami district held by the court on March 20th was an impressive scene. Nearly two thousand people gathered in Memorial Hall, specially used for the occasion as a court house, with ten judges on the bench and fifty lawyers in attendance, representing cities, towns, counties and property owners throughout the valley. At this writing, due to the legal battle, no hearing has been held upon the engineering or physical features of the project, but a board of eight consulting engineers has been convened to consider these questions and present testimony to the court when opportunity offers.

The principal difficulties of the Ohio situation are due to the fact that under the law one portion of a valley may be put in the position of trying to force another part into the district, when no higher authority than both districts is

provided to decide whether the plan is in the best interest of both than the judges elected by the people of the several counties affected. The decision of the court, of course, must be based on a balancing of conflicting evidence, much of which will be highly technical, and presented by interested parties. It is hardly to be hoped that this decision will satisfy the opposing interests or secure unity and harmony of action as well as would the decision of a properly constituted state authority, with technical equipment and full power to conduct its own engineering investigations. Still it may be and likely is the best that could be done under existing conditions of opposition to state house control and the prevailing hue and cry for "home rule."

Ohio Flood Board

Bills were presented in the last legislatures of New York and Pennsylvania to make possible the organization of such watershed or conservancy districts, under the supervision of a state conservation commission in the one case and a state water supply commission in the other, but both failed of passage. Such legislation would offer some advantages over the Ohio type of law, where the comprehensiveness of the plans and their technical value are due solely to the breadth of view of the promoters and the ability of their engineers, and not to any provision of the law.

But even such legislation falls short of the mark, if hope is entertained that the Mississippi river problem and the question in its country-wide aspects will be handled in a comprehensive way. It has come to be more and more recognized that the satisfactory regulation of large interstate streams will necessitate the exercise of control by the regulating body of their tributaries, both within and beyond state borders.

In other words, every stream, even the Mississippi river, with its million and a quarter square miles of drainage area, must be treated as a unit from all its sources to its mouth. And the only authority capable of effecting such treatment, legally and economically is the federal government. The Ohio Flood Board, in its preliminary report submitted to the chief of engineers, U. S. A., on May 26, 1913, emphasized this particularly with respect to the prevention of encroachments on stream channels, as follows:

"The board has been much impressed in its examination by the evils of divided control of the water courses * * * but since the control of rivers is in the twilight zone between the spheres of federal and state authority, it developed that what was anybody's business was nobody's business, and no effective authority has been exercised by anybody. * * * It is the opinion of the board that the authority of the United

States should be exercised to prevent encroachments upon them exactly as in the case of navigable streams. It is believed that this is the only method of control which promises good results in practice."

The same argument is equally applicable to federal control of all other factors affecting the regimen of tributary streams.

Some Federal Bills

That some type of federal control of rivers may be expected in the not very distant future is intimated by the number of bills now pending in Congress with respect to river regulation. Most of these, probably, will receive little consideration. But several have attracted much attention, and have extensively organized support in many parts of the country.

The Newlands-Broussard bill is a comprehensive measure providing for a waterways commission and a board of river regulation. The latter is required "to develop, formulate, prepare, consider, and determine upon comprehensive plans for the conservation, use, and development of the water and forest resources of the United States in such a manner as will best regulate the flow of rivers and their tributaries and source streams, and the stage of water in inland waterways, and the confinement of all rivers and waterways at all times within fixed and established channels," and may for that purpose adopt any and all possible methods.

Co-operation is to be brought about between these new bodies and the various existing departments and bureaus engaged upon work of a nature likely to be involved in or helpful to the purposes of the bill, and \$60,000,000 per year is to be appropriated for the next ten years.

This bill has the support of the National Reclamation Association. Of all those now pending in Congress this bill exhibits the largest grasp of the problem, and presents a national point of view, which should commend it to all earnest students of the question. In the opinion of its more conservative friends, however, it could be greatly strengthened, from the point of view of statesmanship if not of politics, if it laid still more emphasis upon the necessity for fundamental investigation and for securing of data and exhibited less of the desire to "see-the-dirt-fly."

The Clark-Williams bill provides for the setting aside of all money received from the sale of public lands in certain states, together with an appropriation of \$20,000,000 as a "flood protection and drainage fund," to be used for works of all kinds, "for the prevention of floods, or for the protection, drainage, or reclamation of overflowed lands, swamp lands, and lands too wet for agricultural purposes," and provides for the return

of money expended from this fund by the sale of reclaimed lands. This bill has the support of the National Drainage Congress.

The Humphreys-Ransdell bill, known to its opponents as the "levees-only" bill, and backed by the Mississippi River Commission and the levee boards and associations of the lower Mississippi Valley, would provide an appropriation of \$60,000,000 for completing and strengthening the system of levees projected for the lower Mississippi. The advantage claimed for this bill is that immediate action would make it possible to protect the lands subject to overflow, whereas they charge that any measure like the Newlands bill would require years before any beneficial effects, if at all possible, would be realized.

Another bill that has attracted a good deal of attention is the Dyer bill, providing for the investigation of the problem, but requiring study particularly of the Riker "spillway-plan"—a project for carrying the flood flow of the Mississippi through a large spillway or by pass running from Cairo to the Gulf. Several other bills have been introduced, providing for investigations with or without provision for federal participation in construction.

Promise and Danger

There is promise in this varied activity. But the principal danger to be avoided is that of permitting the proposition to be determined by the characteristic American demand for action, and the feeling that "when investigation begins, accomplishment ceases". Here is a problem demanding for its solution all the resources of modern science, deserving because of its importance the most mature consideration, worthy of the best intellect and ability of the land.

Federal investigation and federal supervision are essential and immensely more important than federal funds. Moreover, any solution which does not recognize the relation of the flood problem to the greater one of conservation, which does not provide for complete utilization of water, as well as for flood prevention, will be but a partial one. And a rational understanding that much can be accomplished by intelligent direction of private enterprise in the utilization of water, will greatly relieve the burden upon the public credit.

Any bill which fails to square with these principles and which subordinates the essential to the non-essential, the demands of the situation to political expediency, deserves to fail and it is believed will ultimately fail. But if an act is passed which is truly statesmanlike in its grasp, the result will be, not only an incomparable boon to the nation, but undying credit to its originator and its supporters.

"Beauty for Ashes"

A narrative of discovery out along the road from
a woman's threshold

CHAPTER VII. HOUSING BECKONS

Albion Fellows Bacon

"IF IT hadn't been for my light, Irish heart, I'd have been dead long ago," a woman of many sorrows once said to my mother. The same might have been said about my mother herself. It is well that she passed on to her children this happy Celtic strain, along with her feeling for the unfortunate, or the latter might have sunk us with the submerged.

Year after year the demands upon me grew heavier, as church work, charity work and civic work made irresistible appeals. "It's a case of frenzied philanthropy!" I told my sister, describing the whirlpool rapids into which I had been drawn. Following the Nurse's Circle, the Friendly Visitors, the Flower Mission and the Working Girls' Association, had come the Civic Improvement Association, the Monday Night Club, and, growing out of that, the Anti-Tuberculosis Society.

Truly, I had come far along the White Road that led from the Big Gate! And yet I never got more than an hour's journey away from my home, for the road wound around and past it. I could stand on my threshold and look down the rocky ravines, upon those who were beaten and robbed and left to die. I looked out—the scene called me. I looked in—the warmth and brightness gave me courage to go.

Whenever it was possible, I summoned the clubs and circles to our home, so that the family might have part in them. And so, though my work took me out into every avenue of public activity, these all centered in my home.

What an outlook I had now from my own threshold! What an outlook any woman has, in these days, who is willing to see. And how, in perspective, things assumed their right proportions! A thousand little worries fell away from me. The great, simple, vital facts of life rose above the trifles. Things that would last and wear and help, things of first value, took first rank. Looking out over the social wreckage, I realized the sanctity of the home and the rights of childhood more than ever before.

It was not only by going among different classes of people that my view had been broadened. There had come

COURAGE

The world is for the brave at heart,
And Time waits on their will.
The days draw nigh thy high desire,
Be though but patient still.

And every tide shall bear thee on,
And every wind shall fill
Thy sail, to help thee to thy goal,
Have thou but courage still.

much enlightenment from those men and women with whom I worked. From each one I learned some vital fact or some bit of valuable method. It all went into my equipment, which I was daily learning to value more highly.

Social Symptoms

The same eager group formed the center of all our circles, and if I were to tell the story of my own experiences, my story would tell theirs, too. In fact, it might pass for the story of any one of those hundreds of men and women all over our country who are trying to help lift the burdens of humanity.

I have watched the development of many social workers, and it seems to me that they go through all the stages of an eruptive disease! First, the knowledge of evil gets into the system, like an infection. Then there is the chill of horror, followed by the fever of indignation. One is deathly sick at heart, and, at a certain stage, breaks out into numerous activities. At last the light cases get well, and are thereafter immune. But the serious cases have a long fever, and never again have quite the same resisting power.

There is a time when one feels overwhelmed by personal responsibility. At this time many overdo and break down. Further along, one is oppressed by the feeling that all he can do is only a drop in the bucket, and that "reform is a matter of a lifetime." At this stage many despair and give up. Those who can go steadily on with the work when they are sick of it, can keep up courage when enthusiasm burns low, and inspire others when they are worn out themselves,—these are they whose work will count.

When the pressure of the world's need begins to be heavy upon us, we

are apt to feel aggrieved at the slow and perverse generation that refuses to care or to help. We are like Kipling's Horse that was bowed with the burden of cleaning up the muss of creation, and appealed to the Camel for help, with the plea:

"The world is so new, and all,
And there is so much to do, and all."

To which the Camel lazily stretched in the shade, replied, "Humph!"

The group of men and women who had tried again and again to plant a permanent civic improvement organization in our city appealed once more to the public. But the public said "Humph!" to our plans for a city beautiful.

When we opened playgrounds and a swimming pool, the Camel was glad to send its children to splash and to play. That didn't satisfy us then, but now we can see that some of the little camels are growing up to help in civic improvement.

We had planned such great things for the city, and we asked it to come to our meetings, and listen to our lectures.

The city! We might as well have expected the courthouse to get up off its foundations and amble down to hear us. But the papers took up our work, with that keen intuition by which the press divines those things that are for the public good, and they magnified our efforts an hundredfold.

It was the Fourth of July when we opened the school playgrounds. Different members of our board of directors were assigned to do the opening, and one school ground was given to me, to open as I pleased. The twins helped me, beating the drum, carrying a flag, and helping form the children in procession. I wouldn't have had them miss it, for it was a chance to take part in civic work such as seldom offers. And unless the children see us doing things for our city and state, of what avail are our patriotic precepts? And how can we expect them to be public-spirited and to do a citizen's part, unless we show them how?

The children of that neighborhood were out in force, and we had some rousing games, a good play together,

and then a very short and very plain talk about good citizenship. I was particular to have the accompaniment of the drum, with its stirring roll, to some of our patriotic songs. A brass band would have suited me better.

If we could have had pink lemonade and gingerbread, followed by sky rockets, I should have felt still better satisfied. Anything was not to be despised that would leave a pleasant memory of the occasion, for, by psychological laws, in after years any one of these factors should call up all the others, in turn, and end with a general patriotic thrill.

Patriotic Dedication

The opening of the swimming pool was planned for similar results, and it was my joy to help arrange its spectacular effects. At the given signal a "wireless" touch sent off a charge of dynamite, away down the river, with a most satisfying boom. Then, with hundreds of boys and girls looking on, and Mayor Nolan at the post of honor, impressive words were spoken, and red, white and blue flowers strewn upon the water of the great pool. Crash! went the band with the Red, White and Blue, and a great chorus of little voices took up the song. It was a stirring scene.

There was something more solemn in the ceremony with which we opened our anti-tuberculosis camp. Boehne Camp, we named it, for the generous donor. The nurses took part, in a symbolic "opening," as a poem was read. Then came "the sprinkling of the lintels," in imitation of the ancient Hebrew ceremony, with an invocation that the Angel of Death might pass over the place. This was done by Rabbi Meritt, one of the earnest promoters, and we brought a crystal chalice of sparkling water from the pure spring at the camp, into which he dipped a bunch of herbs for the sprinkling. Then the Episcopal minister, Dr. Cross, who had helped from the beginning, read a ritual service, and laid a blessing upon the place, and the camp was given to all sects and all people.

Any civic worker will realize that these ceremonies crowned the hard work of a number of years. During these years Miss Rein had gone to another field. Marcus C. Fagg (now in charge of child-saving in Florida) had taken her place. One of the first fruits of his energetic régime was a Monday Night Club, made up of about twenty-five representative men and women, from different civic and philanthropic circles in the city, and including some of our city officials. For quite a while this met at our home.

Here was a new school for me, and I mention it because of the help its training gave me for broader work. It was the best possible experience to be

chairman of the lecture course committee, having, at times, to fill every post from advance agent to property man. It generally fell to my lot to make the business arrangements with the speakers, attend to the church announcements, furnish newspaper articles, distribute circulars, place the posters, and secure halls and janitors. Sometimes meeting a train, often entertainment of the speaker, and on occasions his introduction, devolved upon me.

What sympathy it gives me now for those who must arrange with, meet, and find audiences for *me!* With what alacrity I say, "Oh, don't worry about how large an audience you'll have. It's hard to interest people in these subjects."

The opportunity this position gave me to know the fine men and women we brought to lecture was well worth the work. Among them were some of the leaders of our state charities conference into which I had been drawn for several years, that yearly school of philanthropy whose inspiration I acknowledge with gratitude.

There was Ernest P. Bicknell, who has since been called to larger and larger service, and whose great heart is now bearing the brunt of world disaster.

There was Amos W. Butler, father of that remarkable system of laws for the defective, delinquent and dependent, to which the nation points.

Dr. J. N. Hurty, far-famed, with his sharp, fearless lance, always on the frontier line of reform. There was Alexander Johnson, that walking school of philanthropy, beloved in many states, who in one lecture took us to the mountain top of his vision, and set us down five years ahead of where we were before.

There were these, and other men of whom the state is proud. We had men and women, too, from other states to lecture to us. But better than the lecture was the quiet talk with them, afterward, about all those things I was burning to know.

Monday Night Club

We had a housing committee in our Monday Night Club, for the homes of the poor had been on my mind since I first saw them, and year by year had grown the conviction that public interest must be aroused and, somehow, better conditions secured. Mr. Fagg was quite as positive as Miss Rein had been that the condition of our poor could never be permanently improved until their surroundings were bettered. Every effort I made to help them convinced me of this. Some years afterward I was called to a town to help start a housing movement, and was told that both the charities secretary and the district nurse were threatening to give up and leave unless the housing

conditions of the poor could be improved; feeling that their work was hopeless and their strength wasted, without that.

And we were finding out then that our eager efforts to alleviate the wretchedness of the poor ended in—alleviation. The stream of misery flowed on, unchecked, and seemed to be growing larger. We had been doing almost nothing to prevent the evils whose ravages cost so much to repair. From every quarter there was borne in upon me the definite conviction that I could do more for child welfare and for civic welfare, more to fight tuberculosis and typhoid, more to prevent vice and to promote social purity, by bettering the homes of our city than by all the varied lines of effort that had engrossed me. I began to notice how the threads of the social problems, the civic problems and even the business problems of a city are all tangled up with the housing problem, and to realize that *housing reform is fundamental*.

From that time on I began to concentrate my energies upon this one thing, which has become my life work.

The Building Ordinance

The idea was forming in my mind that nothing but a housing law would ever enable us to get relief from the conditions that caused our poor so much misery. But I had not thought far enough to see by what process or by what people it would be obtained. It certainly did not occur to me that I should have a hand in it. "The people that 'tends to things' would do it, some time, I supposed.

One morning, picking up the *Courier*, I saw that a building ordinance was about to be presented to the council. It occurred to me that this was the time and the opportunity to get some tenement regulations, by having them included in this ordinance. A sudden impulse came to me to go myself at once to Mayor Boehne and ask his help in getting the necessary provisions into the ordinance.

If ever there was a good mayor, it was John T. Boehne. A man of broad policies and strong integrity, who had made a record by his determined law enforcement, it required no courage to approach him. Within an hour I was sitting in his office telling him the story of our poor and their great need of protection by law.

"Can't we have a few sections in that ordinance that will regulate tenements?" I asked, in conclusion.

"Yes," he said kindly, "You go home and prepare the proper sections, modeled after those of other cities, and I will see that they are introduced as a part of the ordinance."

Home I hurried, with a singing heart. Off flew a letter to New York, one to Chicago, and others to smaller places.

Back came bulky packages that I opened with eagerness, and sat down in the midst of my housework to examine.

How big those tenement laws were—a whole book!

I turned the pages curiously, and read at random:

"In all non-fireproof tenement houses hereafter erected, fore and aft stud partitions which rest directly over each other shall run through the wooden floor beams, etc."

"Well, of all things," I exclaimed in dismay, and called the family to hear more:

"No tenement house hereafter erected shall occupy more than ninety per centum of a corner lot, etc."

Wise Housing Laws

It was a distinct disappointment to me. Was that the kind of thing that tenement laws required? I wanted to give the poor some comforts, some conveniences. I glanced through the book, and didn't see a word about anything that would make the wretched old houses look any better or more home-like. True, there was something about "repairs," but there was nothing about paint or paper, and shacks could be patched up and yet be just as forbidding and desolate as before.

But a careful reading of the parts applying to old houses was more encouraging. After all, I found that tenement laws require light and air, fire protection, water, drainage, sewerage, repairs, prevention of dampness, prevention of overcrowding and all those unsanitary conditions that caused us so much trouble in our tenements.

My spirits rose as I read, for I could see the dark rooms and the sour yards, the old vaults and cisterns disappearing, and with them, tuberculosis and typhoid. If that law had been prepared by some one who lived in our city it could not have hit our slums more squarely.

Now, as to the new buildings—what pages and pages about space, "percentage of lots," "courts," and "air-shafts." We never heard of these latter things in Indiana, where we had "yards" all around our houses.

Just about as odd and uncalled for, I doubt not, does such a law look to a member of the Legislature when he sees it for the first time, if he reads it only once, or half skims it over.

It was well that in the same hour that I realized the things a law could not do in regulating the conditions of the poor, I realized that those things a law could do were the most vital of all. I could see, now, that the things I had been aching for, many of them, were the things that city planners give, and the "garden city" people. I should have been one of these.

But the more I studied, the more

plainly I could see that the law was just what Evansville needed, to cure our old slums, and to prevent new ones from forming. City planning would have saved some of our troubles, and much ugliness, and, even now, could save the new parts of our city. But it would not cut windows in dark rooms, or drain wet cellars, or make landlords connect water mains with old houses.

Adaptation to Evansville

"You cannot easily engraft beauty upon rottenness," and housing reform was needed to cut out all the rottenness, before a City Beautiful could be achieved. And, after all, I could see that it was fundamental to all the better and higher things, even to comfort, even to health, nay, even to decency. Light and air and water—that meant cleanliness and health, and the graces later, with grass and flowers. Safety, privacy, the isolation of families,—that meant safe-guarding the home and the children.

Then, it was to be done. The task lay before me of extracting, out of the material sent me, the regulations that should fit Evansville.

"Not too long," and "make it simple," our housing committee said. But, a simple housing law!

Those who have helped prepare housing codes for our different states will have a vision of what it meant to prepare a limited number of sections for a city of 70,000. Of course, one soon finds out that, in such laws, every other consideration pales and dwindles beside that of space requirements. One finds, too, that these laws are prepared as accurately and carefully as a doctor's prescription, so that the change of one dimension in a "court" alters everything else.

Yet there had to be many changes. I sat, for hours, with a puckered brow and fixed eye, pencil and paper in hand, trying to see all the things that would happen to a room, a yard, a hall, a "court," by given variations on the prescribed dimensions. All the time my reverence grew for the man, whoever he might be, who had been able to write the first tenement law in our country, and to know what and how much of everything ought to be required.

After I had done my best, in cutting, trimming, and adding, I called in our housing committee, and they puckered their brows over the same sections, and over other questions that had bothered me:

"Would this law give the poor the relief we sought?"

"Was it fair to the property owner?"

"Were we making stringent enough regulations?"

"If we made them more stringent, could we pass the ordinance?"

"If we passed it, would it stand?"

Finally it was completed. J. E. Igleheart, one of our committee, gave it the proper legal form, and I took it to the mayor.

It was a comprehensive little bill, though more than the "few sections" I was to prepare, and less than the larger cities had. It went into the building ordinance, which was already a document of enormous bulk. In due time, the council took up the matter, and as promptly put the whole thing back into a safe pigeon-hole, where it lay, gathering dust and anathemas, for many months. Later, the men of our committee took a copy of our tenement regulations to the council meeting, one night, and quietly put it through, as a separate ordinance. But that was long afterward, when we had almost given up hopes of its ever going through, and had taken up a campaign for a state tenement law.

Spreading the Idea

While the bulky roll of the ordinance was reposing in the pigeon-hole, the State Conference of Charities met at Evansville. I had chosen, *The Homes of the Poor*, for the paper I was asked to prepare, and told all I knew about our slums. That evening we gave a reception in our home to the out-of-town guests, and I met many who afterward helped me, some of them prominent politicians. During the days of the conference I took every opportunity to discuss the need of a state housing law with leading members of the conference. Every one of the charities secretaries believed in its necessity and told me of conditions in their cities, like those in Evansville. Some of the others thought the time was not yet ripe. Miss Rein, and C. S. Grout, of Indianapolis, two of the most experienced secretaries in the state, strongly insisted upon the necessity of a state law.

I felt that if we could prove the need for such a law, the leaders of the conference would take it up and put it through. I appealed to some of them and was much disappointed that they did not promise at once to do it, but parried my requests with an indulgent smile. One session of the Legislature taught me why they smiled. But, surely, if we could furnish proof that the other cities of our state had slums, and could show their devastating effects, some organization, civic or philanthropic, would attend to procuring the law. I determined to get all the necessary information, and the advice of housing experts, then to compile different housing laws, and find some organization that would secure the passage of a state law. Somehow, I never doubted that it could and would be done.

The National Charities Conference met that year at Richmond, Va. It

(Continued on page 161.)



Editorials

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Editor

THIS issue deals with ploughshares and pruning-hooks, with the activities of great instruments of war turned to the uses of peace. But even as its articles have been in process of editing and printing there has been a great shaking of swords and spears. The army which did such competent service in San Francisco and Ohio turns from its new avocation of salvage to its old commission of destruction; the Red Cross from rehabilitation of communal wreckage, due to the brute forces of nature, to its old ministry in the wake of man-made havoc.

The change has been part of a process so rapid and on its face, so unaccountable, that within a fortnight we have seen, in the words of one writer, "the best intentioned and most pacific minded leaders of any administration in American history" apparently precipitating "the most dubiously just war in American history, against people that the President himself holds blameless." When a school boy made a grimace at a German lieutenant, and a lame shoemaker—was it?—failed to touch his hat to the same embodiment of imperial dignity, we felt a hot wave of indignation against the German war lords and their insistence on their proverbial punctilios. And yet, within a year, a gulf seaport has taken the place at Zabern!

THERE are two old proverbs having to do with camels, both of which apply with inexorable precision to the present situation. President Wilson has shown such strength and patience in dealing with the drove of camels to the south, that the day of the gnat has taken us with surprise and sorrow. The very confidence increasingly felt in his ability to solve the heavy problems confronting him has in itself delayed any common expression among social workers in the present crisis.

It is safe to say, however, that you would go far to find among settlement residents, or district visitors, or probation officers, or any of their kind that have to do with the neighborhood life of the people—with its mixtures of good and bad, its strivings and its loyalties—even one who followed the secretary of the navy in his bombast that the course of the people of Vera Cruz in defending their homes was an aggressive act of war, whereas our seizure of the town was not.

It is safe to say that the majority responded to the chords struck by Senator Root in his powerful destructive criticism of the grounds on which the

administration asked Congress to justify its course:

"Men dear to us will die because of action we are to approve to-night. American homes will be desolate, widows will mourn, and children go through life fatherless because of what we do to-night. And when they grow to manhood and turn back the pages of history to see why their fathers died, will they find only a difference as to the number of guns and the proper practice of salutes?"

There is less likelihood that social workers followed the argument of the senators from New York and Massachusetts, that such justification is to be found in the American lives sacrificed and the American property destroyed in the months of civil war, of violence and anarchy, which have racked Mexico. We have most of us subscribed too heavily in the past to the positions taken both by Mr. Taft and Mr. Wilson in holding out against this reasoning, not because of unconcern for the jeopardy to our fellow-countrymen, but in the belief that such intervention would be but to repeat in terms of modern economic conditions, the war of the slave power for more slave states, which was the Mexican struggle of the '40's. There has indeed been no chapter in contemporary history more creditable to the United States than our reluctance in the long months past to lend ourselves as a cudgel to aggression, in the way that the British government lent itself to the mining interests of the Rand. The President's recent lofty plea that we "should exercise the self-restraint of a really great nation that realizes its own strength and scorns to misuse it," had its four-square response in the short and vigorous speech of a long time civic leader of Chicago—Congressman William Kent, of California. Although his private interests in Mexico would be enhanced by a war of conquest, he has steadily set his face against hostilities, and was one of the few congressmen who opposed the resolution authorizing the President to use force against Huerta:

"This resolution means war, and nothing short of it. This is no declaration of peace. This is not a declaration against one man. It is to every man who knows Mexico a declaration of war against the whole people of Mexico, and nothing else, for the moment we put armed forces into Mexico, all the forces of racial antipathy, all the old historic struggles will be revived, and we shall find that we shall have to take the country and rule it. . . . I believe as firmly as I stand here that by voting for armed intervention in Mexico we are condemning to death many of our own citizens who, without the passage of this resolution, would live happy lives."

WE have become used to demanding a social content in the public programs that command our enthusiasm. Such a social content would, conceivably, characterize a policy of federal intervention in Mexico on practically the same lines that a policy of federal intervention in Colorado might be proposed and defended, namely, that in both cases the underlying causes are economic, that they spring from the anti-social policies of absentee capitalism and that that capitalism in both cases is predominantly American. If a sore distraught people rose and threw off the old Diaz régime—and have resisted its reassertion under Huerta to the extent of plunging the country into anarchy, has it not been because of the policies of exploitation in mines and plantations, which have advantaged American speculative capital? If our forces for economic depredation transcend state and national boundaries until civil government within them breaks down, then a reasoned argument can be put forth for the moral forces of the nation to use as long a reach, employing the federal arm not only to restore law and order, but to set up a fabric of justice where we have wrought injustice.

In a similar way, the conception may be advanced that the United States is champion of democracy and constitutional government in the New World, that we should brook no government by assassination, no autocracy under whatever guise, in the political life of the western hemisphere.

This apparently has been the New World vision of Mr. Wilson; and his coherent policy of watchful waiting and crowding Huerta to the wall has been built upon it. The bottling up of seaports and the embargo on arms while the constitutionalists bore their way to the capital are consistent with its larger strategy. But unless President Wilson was aware of resourceful elements in the Mexican situation of which the average citizen knew nothing, he was taking a stupendous risk—a risk which clearly meant war if it failed—in attempting to advance this policy by the moves at Tampico and Vera Cruz.

For there is that second proverb of the camel. If we let the nose of war under our tent, can it be otherwise than that the whole brute will crowd after it?

WITHOUT such a social program as those cited, war, whether we are provoked, or blunder into it, or set about it purposefully, is intolerable between a great nation and a weak and distraught one, between the rank and file of the people of both nations, who have no quarrel with each other, but who must bear the withering scourge of loaded guns, however many thousand times, before or after, the empty ones go off to acclaim dignity or victory.

WITH such a social program, what assurance have we that war would after all bring the social gain desired? That it would not pile up a social loss more than counterbalancing any conceivable gain?

THERE has been no more searching challenge to the American people to think this outcome through than that of Norman Angell, editor of the Paris edition of the London *Daily Mail*. The author of *The Great Illusion* was in New York the day before Vera Cruz was taken, and in an interview asserted that once interference began in Mexico we could only expect that the political momentum of the thing would sweep us along until we reached the Panama Canal. That would mean, he held, the attempted absorption of from twenty to twenty-five million alien people, ignorant of our language, laws or civilization, with the result that this country would have an Irish question on its hands. "Meaning," said he, "that for a generation we should be occupying ourselves with these questions at the expense of the welfare of the people of the United States."

Using as his text the remark of a famous German general that "You can do many things with bayonets, but you can not sit on them," Mr. Angell went on to interpret the social significance of the fact that since the days of the Norman conquest, permanent holding of territory by military means has become cumulatively difficult. To quote:

"It is important to realize something of the factors which in our generation have so developed as to render the social and moral possessions of a people, that thing which we call nationality, indestructible. . . .

"We cannot confiscate the land of a conquered people in our day, nor tear up titles to property, nor reverse the decisions of their courts, because if we did we should find that our banks or insurance companies or business men were in some way interested in the security of such titles to property, and that banks had advanced money on the mortgages to such property, using, it may be, the money of insurance companies in which the citizens of the conqueror are insured. . . .

The Normans could impose their own language and courts, because the existing population of England practically had no written language; that is to say, that the population as a whole had no books nor newspapers nor correspondence through post offices, nor telegraph nor courts of law, no debates in city governments nor city records, nor state parliaments; no theatres in which they had plays in their own language, nor schools which had solidified the language, nor literature which they loved. . . .

"But to-day, even in a case like Mexico, you have all these things in lesser or greater degree. You have the intangibility of the foundations of national wealth. That is to say, confiscation of property is impossible; which means that the mass of the people guaranteed in the security of their ordinary possessions can effectively resist administrative measures designed to break their national habit in the way of language, customs, etc.

"The Germans have made this discovery even in provinces which they have held for half a century, like their Polish, Alsatian, and French provinces. The German government sets out, for instance, to stamp out the Polish language, and attempts to compel the Polish peasant to send his child to the German school, instead of to the Polish one, and compel the parent to have his children say their prayers in German. Yet the Polish peasant, knowing that he cannot be turned out of his land, and that his livelihood is secure, continues to send his child to the Polish school and to teach him to say his prayers in Polish. Germany cannot dispossess a whole population. The outstanding fact of German administration in Polish provinces is that German domination has failed."

COMPARING the present situation with that before the Boer war, and noting the fact that since then Great Britain has granted self-government to the very people she conquered, Mr. Angell went on to bring out the social consequences to ourselves of such a process.

This phase of the situation was put by former President Taft in an address to Yale students. His words were cited by the New York *Evening Post*, one of the most vigorous and earnest supporters of President Wilson, but before that and always a militant for peace—as may be judged by this quotation:

"War means not only the sacrifice of life and treasure; it means the piling up of taxes, with their burden crushing those least able to bear it; it means speculation and dishonesty and fraud, with the brutalizing and corrupting of the whole conduct of public affairs; above all, it means the subordinating of every other public question, and the indefinite postponement, or entire sweeping away, of all program of civic betterment and social reform. That nothing of this lies in President Wilson's purpose is conceded; but he must know, and if he does not he will speedily ascertain, that a real war with Mexico would make his Inaugural, with all of its moving words about the need of broad policies of legislation in behalf of the victims of political and social injustice, so much waste paper."

THERE is still another parable of the camel. As this issue goes to press, it would seem that even if the great gates of peace are closed, there remains a chance, on our knees, as it were, through the needle's eye of mediation, for America to enter. Uncertainty shrouds the factors that determine Mexican action, but on this side the border three things are propitious—the anti-jingo sentiment of the people, for which we have President Wilson perhaps more than any other man to thank; the reluctance of Congress and President alike to loose war; and the rare intuition and mastery the President has displayed in other emergencies.

A BLACK chapter in English history is the tale of the long struggle of the British shipping interests against the Plimpoll line. This is a line on the hull of every sea-going ship to mark the danger point in loading. Ships over-insured and overloaded had long been sent to their doom from English ports. Yet when a bill was introduced into Parliament, prescribing this self-evident safety line, every device known to the shipping interests of the greatest of maritime nations delayed its passage many years.

The International Convention on Safety of Life at Sea, better known as the Treaty of London, drafted under guidance of those same British shipping interests and now awaiting ratification by the President and the Senate, appears to have been named in a spirit of irony.

The same influences which delayed the Plimpoll law, have presided over the conference from which the treaty emanates. It behooves those who learn from the past the stern lessons of experience to examine critically every proposal relating to human life which issues from the

source of the international convention. In several important points the treaty relaxes safeguards already provided by the laws of England and of the United States.

The English law provides, for instance, lifeboats for all persons on board; the treaty for only 75 per cent, the remainder may be provided for with rafts. Our present American law requires continuous wireless service with two certified operators on steamers plying between places more than 200 miles apart and carrying more than 50 persons. The treaty reduces this so that only fast vessels in the inter-continental trade are compelled to have wireless operators keeping continuous watch.

Our courts have held that a crew is inefficient for service either on the vessel or in lifeboats, if the men cannot understand the orders of the officers. The treaty provides merely that certificated lifeboat men shall be "capable of understanding and answering the orders relative to lifeboat service." This provision permits the rest of the crew to require interpreters.

Under the treaty, lifeboat men may be drawn from the saloon, the deck, or the engine department. The La Follette bill requiring at least two men of the rating of able seamen or higher passed the House during the last Congress and the Senate this year, and is again before the House. Ratification of the treaty would establish the lower standard, for an international treaty supersedes a national law. More, the treaty if ratified will remain in force until 1921. During seven years no progress in the direction of safety at sea can be made by any of the contracting nations. We shall be at a standstill, worse off, in some respects, than we are now.

MR. Rockefeller is of the younger generation. His is the disability of making decisions at a distance, which has spread with the spread of absentee capitalism in this country in the last 50 years. He has the further handicap of not sharing first-hand in the work-a-day experience of the times, in the way that the earlier builders of our industries shared in it. Therefore, we expect his generation to overcome these limitations by a further flung imagination, a sounder technique, a keener appreciation of human kindness, and an insistence upon competent agencies of information before they venture or confirm social policies which affect the lives and well-being of thousands.

In its March magazine number *THE SURVEY* published a remarkable letter from Major Henry L. Higginson: Consider the Other Fellow. Its plea was for understanding for the industrial enterpriser. It may or may not be true that these last desperate encounters in Colorado are, as the newspaper reports have said, the direct result of a feeling of desperation on the part of the men, in view of Mr. Rockefeller's statement at the congressional hearings that he would rather lose all his millions invested in the coal fields than recognize the unions there. But it is certain that his testimony has done more than a thousand agitators to augment that bitterness which Major Hig-

ginson, from the vantage point of eighty years, so earnestly deprecates.

The editor of *THE SURVEY* is far from agreement with certain positions taken by Major Higginson. The issues he raised are not of the sort to be settled over night. Rather than essay editorial comment, the larger more constructive thing seemed to be to provoke just such free and open discussion of the issues raised as has marked the score and more letters published pro and con in response to Major Higginson's communication. It seems worth while to bring out at the close of the discussion—and especially at this juncture—certain of his original points, so as to leave a clearer impression of them than apparently exists in the minds of some of his readers.

I. What he asks is that the capitalist should be treated as human and therefore entitled to human consideration. He asks this chiefly because of the effect upon the workingman. So long as we have our present system of industry it hurts the workingman to make investment unsafe or odious, and so lessen its amount and the amount of work and wages it affords.

II. Mr. Higginson asks for the exercise of kindness, friendliness, charity, pending the establishment of justice, not because he prefers kindness to justice, but because we have not yet arrived at justice in industrial matters and are not even agreed upon what justice demands—as the answers to his article fully illustrate. Industrial justice will not be established next week or even the week after. Meantime we can at least be human—even to the capitalist.

III. Many of the answers to Mr. Higginson's article indicate a belief that the present capitalistic system should be abandoned or radically changed. Mr. Higginson himself seems rather to believe that it should be not so much revolutionized as humanized. But whatever may be the truth on that matter, it does not affect the contention that meantime those in responsible positions under the industrial system which we actually have should be treated in a human way. Nor will the soundness of Mr. Higginson's counsel in this matter be affected by any change in our industrial system. The same human attitude, toward capitalists or any others who take their places under any industrial system whatsoever, would continue to be both honorable and necessary to carry success, financial or superfinancial, long after the present generation and the present system have disappeared.

IF that larger human understanding is to come from the public, what of the larger human understanding on the part of the capitalist? Time and again during Mr. Rockefeller's testimony before the congressional committee, the question of his knowledge of and social responsibility for conditions not in the vice districts of the cities, but in those mining communities where the Rockefeller interests dominate, was put from one angle to another. He admitted quite frankly that he had not been in Colorado for ten years, that he had not attended a directors' meeting in

that length of time, that he did not know the wages paid the Colorado miners, or the rent charged them in the company houses, or whether they could ever acquire a title to their own homes, or what profit the company made out of its stores, or whether it had bought any guns or ammunition. He had not personally talked with any miners, and their conditions, so far as he knew, had never been the subject of correspondence between himself and the officers of the company.

On the yea or nay of this one man, so informed, has hung the issue this week of struggle or negotiation, of life or death, affecting ten thousand other men.

Mr. Rockefeller defended his stewardship—with every evidence of sincerity—by stating that his policy was to test and choose the best men he could find and then back them up; that he was used to acting on the reports of trained men in whom he had confidence; and that the responsible executives of these companies in whom he had such confidence had reported that 90 per cent of their men did not want unionism, and that the strike was without a just foundation.

With the burned bodies of women and children in the pits at Ludlow, let us not stop to argue the question of whether or not men who are willing to stake their livelihoods, their lives, and those of their wives and children in a cause they feel to be just, want to have some say and government over the conditions of their work.

Let us challenge the sufficiency of the judgment of an operating official as to his works, in the same way that the Rockefeller philanthropies would challenge the sufficiency of the judgment of a police commissioner as to his scheme of regulating the social evil, or the judgment of a college president as to the educational value of his courses. Mr. Rockefeller would listen to such judgments, weigh them with other evidence—knowing them to be the notions of fallible men on the things they are most interested in; but he would rest his decision on the findings of trained men, outsiders, who had nothing to do with the policies under review, who were not asked to pass on grievances against themselves.

Mr. Rockefeller has such trained men in his group of social observers. He could turn to George Kneeland, who lifted the lid of the red light district of Chicago, and whom no powers of the underworld led to swerve one hair in telling the exact truth. He could call on Raymond V. Fosdick, who unearthed some of the most powerful crooks and grafters in New York's political life and ousted them from office. He could call on Abraham Flexner; there is no more tempered, incisive mind than his in the whole field of social exploration.

Mr. Rockefeller knows, we know, these men can see with free eyes, keen eyes, true eyes. He knows, we know, that if he commissioned them as trained men to go to Colorado they would get at the exact facts in this situation where not honesty but industrial policies are at stake. He knows, we know, they would have the courage to tell what they saw and found.

"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"

[Continued from p. 156.]

seemed providential to me that, as the program showed, they were to have a round table on housing. I attended, solely for that meeting and to talk with the housing experts who would be there.

I can never forget the feeling of infinitesimal smallness that overwhelmed me when I asked my first timid question, at that round table. Dr. Walter Lindley, who presided, lifted my question, with great kindness, out of the vast silence. Then E. T. Hartman, of the Massachusetts Civic League answered it in an illuminating speech. Later he gave me an hour of patient answers to eager questions, which I set down in a note book.

How little I knew, and how much I had to ask! I went away with a new light on legislative methods, and with a list of books and pamphlets on housing to read, also much other information that made me feel rich indeed.

National Backing

At this conference I again met Mr. Grout, and he advised me of the investigation his organization was making into the housing conditions of Indianapolis.

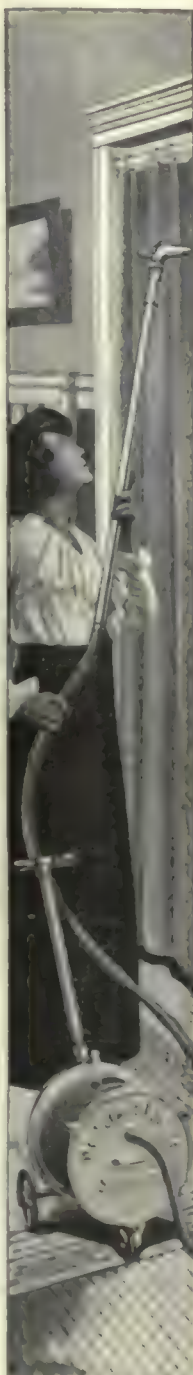
"The Commercial Club are taking part in the investigation, and are looking about for a suitable housing ordinance," he said. "I advise you to get in touch with them and interest them in the movement for a state law."

Home once more, I rushed off letters hither and yon, for laws and books and pamphlets.

First, I wrote to Jacob Riis. Then and later he sent me letters of such cheer and encouragement that I have kept them to inspire future generations. Our family has always understood that if the house should take fire they must save the twins first, and then those letters.

Mr. Riis gave me some sound advice, and then referred me to Lawrence Veiller, as "the one who knew all about housing laws." It was long afterward that I learned that Mr. Veiller was the author of the New York tenement house law of 1901 and knew of his yearly battle at Albany, where he has fought through legislature after legislature the steps that were necessary to perfect the New York law. Some day our country will appreciate that this long war has been for the homes of the nation as was the Battle with the Slum, fought so nobly by Mr. Riis.

The National Housing Association was not yet formed, but Lawrence Veiller answered most generously my appeals for information. Absorbing as much as I was able—for housing intelligence comes gradually—and following along as well as I could, at long distance, I set about the drafting of a state tene-



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ment law, which should be "not too long," and yet contain all the vital elements of the other laws in our country.

If only Mr. Veiller's model housing law, or even his model tenement law had been written then, what work and worry it would have saved!

The Law Drafted

Finally, with some changes, I settled on the parts we had taken for our Evansville ordinance. Mr. Igleheart went over it, and saw it was "air tight and water tight," and the draft was ready to submit to all the tests that practical business men would apply to it. It got them!

One other detail, not to be neglected, was the examining of the Indiana statutes, to see that we had not already some law on the subject.

I determined to satisfy myself on this subject, so as to be sure that no obscure enactment would be overlooked. So, repairing to the law library at the court house, I scrutinized every page of index and hunted down, with finger on line, every word that might conceal a multiple dwelling in its content, and assured myself that Indiana would have nothing to say if her tenements were built fifty stories high, without a single window in one of them.

It came to me with something of a shock that the poor in our state had no legal right to light and air; in fact, no tenant had, only those persons who owned enough ground to insure light and air to their dwellings.

The next step was to get sufficient proof of the need for the law, in a form that we could present.

With no organization, and no funds, a scientific survey of the towns and cities of the state was, of course, out of the question. But I knew Evansville by heart. Indianapolis was making its own survey, and we must simply get the best information we could in regard to the other cities. The best I could do was to send a questionnaire to all the charities secretaries in the state, asking certain facts about the housing conditions in their towns, for minute descriptions of a number of their tenements, and photographs of their slum quarters. The charities secretaries entered heartily into the campaign. They appreciated, more than any one else, what bad housing meant to the poor and gave then, as they are still giving, the best support that housing reform has.

The State's Needs

All the larger cities, most of the towns, and many of the villages contained slums. There were whole slum villages, where miners lived, or quarrymen, in "company houses." There were little settlements and suburbs of shanties and shacks, where the poorest lived. The worst one was a shack settlement for rag pickers, built on the dumps,



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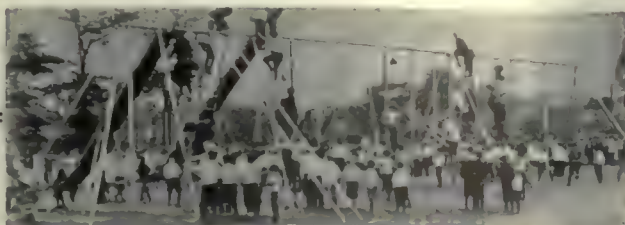
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where the people ate garbage, and degradation was extreme.

In certain parts of the state the immigrant problem made desperate complications. Mill workers, coming in hordes, lived in herds. Day shifts and night shifts used the same beds. "Hunyaks" were crowded together, twelve to twenty in two rooms, kennelled like beasts, in dark, filthy rooms, stifling with foul air, without water or any of the decencies, —and paying three prices for sub-let rooms, that was the worst shame of it.

Some towns had a startling number of dark rooms. The Indianapolis survey showed 1,100 within a radius of a mile. But little towns that were building handsome flats and were even called "model cities", had dark rooms in these flats.

With few exceptions, the towns of the state gave their poor no water, drainage or sewer connections. All housed the poor in their worst old shacks, hovels, tenements, warehouses, stables or sheds. There was the same tale of unsanitary conditions everywhere, wet, mouldy cellars, damp floors and the rest.

But why should I go into more detail? These conditions are the common scandal of all our states, and if any one who reads this chapter will start in a straight line from his city building, in any direction, go a few blocks, and turn up the first stairway leading from the street, in any solid row of buildings, he is pretty apt to find some surprises in the way of living conditions. Or, let him go down some of the alleys in the business blocks, and further out, about the ragged edges of the town. Our photographs could be passed around in any company, in any city, and very few who would see them could say that they were not taken from some of their own back streets.

We had plenty of proof that the time was "ripe for a tenement law," but we had to have something to show to the Legislature in proof of Evansville's condition. Nothing is so conclusive as photographs, and I ransacked the city to find the worst houses.

Dr. M. A. Farr, our Methodist minister, a member of our housing committee and one of the friendly visitors, was an expert photographer and he, too, knew these places by heart. He got some "speaking likenesses"—strong language they would have spoken, if they could. Then I took my whole collection, from all the cities, mounted them on large cards, and put sketches and suggestive titles, in ink, on the margin. Over one old death trap I put a great skeleton, with arm outstretched over it, and the words "Death keeps watch over this house." Five black coffin shapes were stood in a row beneath a house that had a record of five deaths from tuberculosis in a short time. I drew a black devil peeping out from a saloon that had families living

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CONTENTS

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over it. It made a very striking set of posters.

No reports were available from the little towns and one August morning I started off on a traction line, going to the end and stopping off at every place on the way back.

It was an odd experience. Some towns had only one street, along the railroad, but there was hardly one in which patient search would not find one or more typical slum dwellings, at the end of the row of houses, or hidden back in the brush. Sometimes it was a cluster of hovels, sometimes a tenement, off by itself, "a ragged beggar, sunning," swarming with people, and with conditions that would make a New York tenement blush.

These various lines of work had occupied most of the summer. At the same time I read everything I could get on housing. Then I went back to Jacob Riis' books, to get the spirit of his prophecy. "Fifty years ago, the slums of New York resembled those of our larger western cities today," he tells us, with the warning, "Head off the slums!"

A Vision of Need

There came to me a vision of my state, as though it were spread out before me, with its rapidly growing cities and pretty little towns. In fifty years those black slum spots we had found would have spread beyond all control. The land would grow in value, speculators would be crowding houses in on side and back yards, spoiling the beauty of the streets, and shutting out the sunlight and air for all time. Once built up, space is rarely retrieved.

And in the larger cities—my heart sank at the thought! In fifty years *we* should have horrors of congestions, of decay. The cancer spots of slums would have eaten out the hearts of our cities, and their poison would have run through all their arteries.

It is only six years since then, but in that brief time I have seen some of the things I feared come to pass in our unregulated towns. In the two for which we obtained our first tenement law, the enormous increase in tenement building, and our experience with a few land owners, shows what would have happened if no limit had been set to crowding.

With every book I read, with every report and photograph that came in from our towns, the vision became more vivid. It lay spread out before me—my state, dotted with growing towns, set in such a vastness of field and forest that crowding seemed criminal!

At night I lay sleepless, the darkness thronged with faces I had seen in our tenements, multiplied, repeated, "even as a broken mirror" multiplies. There were burning eyes of the consumptives, hopeless faces of the mothers, and white,

moaning babies. And these were no images of fancy, I had known them by name, here in our own city. And all the other cities and towns had their poor! What would they have in fifty years?

What was the immolation of one life, to all that misery? One could have dashed it down cheerfully to save all that, as men do, fighting for their country.

The Call to Service

There sounded a bugle call, to take up arms for my state, and every power of my being leaped to the summons. The call of one's country, the call of humanity—they are both the call of God. Henceforth, wherever that voice led, I would go.

There need be no frenzy, no cant, about a special "mission." The air is ringing with calls. If only a few hear, the few must answer.

"Do you think that no one else could have done that work but you?" remonstrated a friend. "Someone else would have done it if you had waited."

"Someone might have done it, but no one had, and no one was offering to do it, and I couldn't wait," I answered. Sometimes I marvel at the way it all came about, that steadily and without one moment of hesitation, every step was taken that was necessary to prepare the way for a tenement law. The strangest thing about it was that the way seemed mapped out and decisions made for me, and that, almost without volition, I seemed to be not led, but moved, by a great Hand. Under a fearful tension of work and responsibility, night and day, for months, I have never known a time when thought was so clear and so unflagging.

Even the decision to do all that was necessary to secure a state law seemed less a decision than a growing knowledge that I was to do it. I did not know what this would involve, but I knew it meant the encountering of great obstacles, a stupendous amount of work, and active opposition. But it never once entered my mind that I should have to go to the Legislature. My part, I supposed, was to lay the foundation and prepare the way.

Realizing that housing reform was a new thought in our state, and that the responsibility of the landlord was an unpopular as well as an unfamiliar doctrine; realizing, from my years of charity work, how few people knew the actual misery of the poor, I set about a campaign of education. My one overpowering desire was that everyone in the state should know, feel and care, should see the wrongs and understand the remedy. "PUBLICITY" was now my one care. What can we accomplish without it in such work?

The press of the state responded nobly, and with that prophetic ken I have re-

marked before. Others sometimes miss the spirit of housing reform, but I have never seen an editorial in our state that failed to rise to it. The presidential campaign of 1908 was on, and the papers were congested with politics, but all the grist I could grind out was given space and good, strong comment.

The endless part of my task was the personal letters that simply had to be written. Of course, nothing could take their place. I wrote hundreds, and if I had known more people to write to, I should have written more. Business men's clubs—first of all the Commercial Club of Indianapolis; women's clubs, civic organizations, all had to have careful letters. Prominent men and women had to have individual appeals, suited to each. It was an endless task, for circular letters would not avail. How I thanked my uncle for his training, and how I appreciated my typewriter, that gave my epistles more hope of missing the waste-basket!

Click, click, click, click, click, went the typewriter, from June till January, all day from morning till twilight, with stops only for household cares or for the children. They played about me or sat as close as possible while I wrote, with little arms about my waist, and I could work better with them near. Stopping now and then to tie a shoe, find a string, or get a lunch gave breathing places, and rest for tired eyes.

I am asked, "Why could not a secretary have saved some of that work?" In a city of our size? A mother and housekeeper doing so much public work that she had to employ a secretary! That would have been a scandal, indeed, almost as bad as to have an office!

After my morning tasks were done, the meat and groceries ordered, the meals planned and the day arranged, my grind of letters began, and went on till noon; after lunch and a brief rest, writing again, till sunset; after the children were in bed, more work on articles, some times till midnight.

Sitting at my desk by the window I thought of the factory girls, and the children shut into close tenement rooms while summer called and the trees beckoned. Oh, for a day in the fields and woods! But if I stopped, even for a day, my work would lag. Answers to my letters, with many questions, were pouring in, and a mountain of correspondence was daily growing higher. And it was no worse for me than for those others, shut in from the sunshine. If this work could only win it for them!

Dog-days came, and the thermometer boiled up near the top, but the pile of letters grew steadily. With all our airy rooms, and spacious lawns, verandas, baths, ice, electric fans, we were sweltering. What must it be in those stifling thermos jugs of rooms, with the foul odors intensified by the heat?

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The leaves on the bough by the window turned sere and dropped away.

The birds deserted the bough, and finally snow came and covered it.

But still I sat by the window and wrote. Each month the strain grew more intense, for the Legislature was to meet in January.

One by one, I had given up all forms of recreation. Reading had been cut down to housing literature. Society was abandoned, and even my best friends complained of my neglect. Outings had long since been given up, and finally, all outdoor exercise, except a little walk just before dark. Just in time to see the sun go down on our beautiful river I would throw on my wraps, and hurry down to the avenue from which the pageant of the sunset could be witnessed.

Travelers tell us that the sunsets on our river are unrivaled. Always different, they were always wonderful—the crescent of the city, the long loop of the river, with willows above and hills below, the Kentucky shore on the other side, a strip of woodland and broad sandy beach. Shoals in the river, and a little breakwater, made lines of silver on the glowing mirror of its depths, or flashing ripples. And then, the color! Sometimes a blue haze wrapped the farther shore, sometimes a silver veil trailed over it and rose from the misty water, dim as a point of Dreamland. At such times the city, below the wharf, was a blur of soft colors, growing fainter toward the hills.

When the red sunsets of winter came, the town turned aside to see them. It was life-giving to stand and drink in the pure air blown over miles of river and cornfields, and watch the delicate flush recede from the zenith gathering slowly into an ever-deepening glow about the sinking sun. Then the river was tinged with "dragon's blood," the children said, watching with me until the glory died away from sky and water, changing from crimson to ashes of roses, darkening and dimming until the purple shadows folded in river and shore. Lights flashed out along the river from the boats and the town, but still we waited for the one star that came out and trembled over the water with a message of hope and courage and beauty yet to be set above all the city's blackness.

That one glowing hour was an antidote for the gray reeking sordidness I had been writing of all day.

The State Conference

In October, the State Charities Conference met at South Bend. I was on the program for a paper on The Housing Problem of Indiana, so thither I took my draft of the tenement bill.

Traveling almost the entire length of our state, I was impressed with the vastness of domain, with the contrast between the prodigality of our uncultivated

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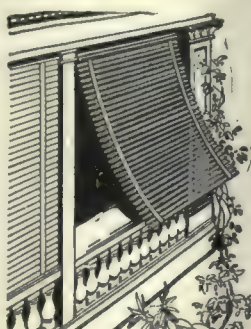
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lands and the miserly pinching and squeezing of our city spaces. We rode for hours through woods and fields, and whizzed through towns that seemed only a smoky blur on the landscape.

Space—space, that was the one great, vital need of our cities and towns, the need to save it before land became more valuable than people!

Riding past villages, through little towns, along miners' settlements, I had disheartening glimpses down into the cindery strips of back yards along the tracks. There was time to note the blackened sheds, the dingy rows of houses, jostling each other almost on to the track; time to note the dirty children, who climbed up the ash piles and heaps of rubbish to wave to us.

As town after town passed, a feeling of gloom settled over me, and the hopelessness of redeeming all these waste places seized upon me. But once in the conference, in the midst of good friends, the outlook brightened. There were plenty to offer encouragement and cheer. Francis H. McLean was there, and went over the bill with me, making some valuable suggestions. He took my paper, after it was delivered, and published it in *Charities* (now *THE SURVEY*) just in time to help in our campaign.

A committee was appointed to go over the bill, and then the conference voted its approval.

There was a brilliant reception at the close, and new friends were made, who are now old and dear.

"I have an invitation for you," said Mr. Grout, as the evening closed. "The educational committee of the Commercial Club invites you to meet them at luncheon, as you return home to discuss your housing bill. Your friend, Miss Foster, is included in the invitation."

Good news! It sounded hopeful.

The next day Miss Foster and I arrived in Indianapolis, and appeared in due time at the Commercial Club. We were taken to the director's room, where luncheon was served, and there we found about a dozen all ready to greet us, others of the committee arriving later. There were lawyers, bankers, editors, doctors, all prominent men.

So much depended on the outcome of that meeting, and I was so entirely in the dark as to how the committee felt disposed toward the bill, that I was rigid with a tension that came near lock-jaw. I remember afterwards, the well-appointed table to which we sat down, and the fact that many tempting dishes were served, but I could not recall anything that came after the soup.

My letter to the club, Mr. Grout had told me, had won by being practical and business-like. Fearful of spoiling that impression by some unguarded word, I held on to myself as one riding a bronco down a steep mountain path. I remember checking myself in a de-



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scription of the conditions of the poor, for fear I should verge on sentiment. If anything makes it difficult to maintain a lofty dignity it is to sit in chairs built for great men, conscious that you can't reach the floor. I've always noticed how much more easily impressive are large people, with the stately step of avoirdupois, the judicial aspect of massive cheek and chin, the big voice that goes with physical strength, the force of ponderosity! But so kind were my hosts that I forgot these things.

The luncheon and our session lasted three hours. After the last course the bill was laid upon the table. I trembled to see sundry crosses and question marks on the margin. One by one, each doubtful point was discussed, and I was called upon to explain just why it should be so and not otherwise. It was like being on the witness stand, with a dozen cross-examiners—keen, though so kindly. Surely my good angel stood beside me and told me what to answer, for at the end I had the satisfaction of seeing every question mark erased.

The committee expressed its satisfaction with the bill, but they asked if I would go over it, word for word, with a sub-committee, before they gave formal approval. Would I stay for such a meeting? Would I!

That night Miss Foster and I sat down again at the long mahogany table with Professor Dunn, Dr. Hurty, secretary of our State Board of Health, Mr. Grout, and Linton A. Cox. Mr. Cox was a lawyer and real estate owner and one of the most active members of the club, also a hold-over member of our senate.

I realized that his interest in the bill was very important, but none of us dreamed how much it was to mean in years to come to the housing movement in Indiana.

For three hours, again, we went over the bill, considering every word, every comma. At the close of our conference I was told that the full approval of the committee would be given to the bill.

"Then, gentlemen," I said, with unconcealed delight, "if you approve of this bill and it is what you have been looking for, let it be the Commercial Club bill, and let me leave it in your hands to be put through the Legislature. You are here on the grounds, I am not. You know exactly how to do it—I have no idea of such things. Leave me entirely out of it. All I want is to have the bill passed."

The committee conferred a moment. "The bill would not have the same chance of passing," they said, "if introduced as a Commercial Club bill, as if presented by some individual who is known to be working for the cause of humanity. We will do all we can to push it, and we will stand back of you and do whatever you want done, but you will have to be the leader. Besides, it is only fair that you should have the

honor, when you have done all this work. You will have to come to the Legislature."

What fell? Something seemed to give way in the foundations, and the big Commercial Club building was going round and round! All such things as drowning men see swirled past me. I saw myself, with horror, a married woman with a "career." I saw my family, whom I had never left except for a few days, suffering for my care; the twins going out in the rain without rubbers; my daughters needing me; the cook forgetting to order breakfast-food; my husband, with a southern man's ideas of such things, his indulgence already strained. I saw my friends, disgusted at such publicity. I saw enemies, frowns, —brickbats!

The walls were still going around. I looked up and saw all those expectant eyes upon me, and took a deep breath.

"Oh, I couldn't," I said. "I never dreamed of coming myself. Why, I never even saw a legislature, and I haven't an idea of what to do. Besides, it isn't a woman's work, and you are here right on the ground. And I don't want any honor, if only the bill is passed." "We'll stand back of you, we'll plan everything and make all the arrangements. But it is absolutely necessary that some one must be here who has studied housing laws and housing conditions, and you will have to be present at the committee hearing," they said.

"Let me think a minute," I pleaded.

And now the babies of the tenements went past me, with their little gray pinched faces and outstretched hands. I thought of the absurdity of going thus far and then dropping everything, when these men were ready to take up the work. And the words came to me: "He that putteth his hand to the plow and turneth back—"

I would never turn back!

With the desperate deliberation of a suicide who jumps into the icy water, I took the leap.

"Very well, gentlemen," I said calmly, "if you say it is necessary for me to come, I'll come."

There were some final details of arrangement, and I took my departure. "When the bill has been introduced, and a committee hearing is set, we will send for you," they said.

I went out carrying a heavy burden. For a moment I had laid off my armor and dropped my load. I had hardly realized its weight until I was eased of it, and, as I buckled it on again, it seemed more than I could bear.

A CORRECTION

IN THE SURVEY's article on Illinois women at the polls, issue of April 18, it was stated that "the United Charities issued a different list of candidates endorsed," etc. The reference should have been to the *United Societies*.

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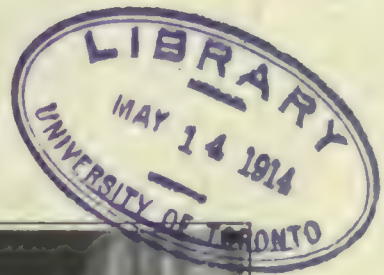


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105 East 22d Street
New York

INCORPORATED

Robert W. deForest, President
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WESTERN OFFICE

116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 6

Contents

May 9, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

PROGRESS OF THE NEW YORK WOMEN'S NIGHT WORK CASE . . .	169
SINS OF THE "HOLY LAND": A VIEW OF TO-DAY . . .	169
"FAMILY ENTRANCE" CLOSED IN CHICAGO SALOONS . . .	170
THE CASE OF THE TWINS OF GREENWICH . . .	170
EXCHANGE OF TOWN PLANNERS WITH EUROPE . . .	171
SIX-DAY LABOR LAW UPHOLD IN NEW YORK . . .	172
CO-PARTNERSHIP HOUSING PLAN IN CLEVELAND . . .	172
SOME GAINS FOR MERCANTILE WORKERS IN WASHINGTON . . .	173
CLEVELAND'S NEW WELFARE COUNCIL . . .	173

MY SISTER'S HERITAGE, A POEM . . .	Mary S. Edgar	173
------------------------------------	---------------	-----

CIVICS

MUNICIPAL VACATION CAMP FOR LOS ANGELES IN SAN BERNARDINO MOUNTAINS	174	
PLAY AND PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT	Henry S. Curtis	174
REDUCING THE COST OF SMALL HOUSES	175	

SOCIAL AGENCIES

DR. GEIER'S WORK IN THE CINCINNATI DEPARTMENT OF CHARITIES	W. J. Norton	177
CLASSIFYING THE MARYLAND STATE SUBSIDIES		178
PRACTICAL SOCIOLOGY IN KENTUCKY	Alexander Johnson	178
CHILD-HELPING WORK IN NEW ENGLAND		179
PROBATION WORK IN NEW YORK STATE		179
NEW JERSEY CHARITIES CONFERENCE		179
CO-OPERATIVE ASSOCIATIONS IN RURAL INDIA		179
CONNECTICUT WELFARE WORKERS' CONFERENCE		180
CONFERENCE OF RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL WORKERS		180
SHANGHAI AND THE OCCIDENT	Francis H. McLean	180

HEALTH

SAVING EYESIGHT: EXHIBIT OF THE MASSACHUSETTS COMMISSION FOR THE BLIND	Henry C. Greene	181
PURIFYING WATER FOR CITY BATHING POOLS		183
A STATISTICAL STUDY OF MEASLES		183

EDITORIALS

SPRING AND THE RURAL SOCIAL WORKER	Fred Eastman	184
SPRING IN A CITY NEIGHBORHOOD	Robert A. Woods	185
COMMUNICATIONS		187
JOTTINGS		188

Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents.

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The GIST of IT—

FEDERAL troops are in charge of the strike situation in Colorado, following the refusal of John D. Rockefeller, Jr., to aid in settling the dispute. The soldiers have ordered both strikers and private mine guards to disarm. The Colorado militia withdraws from the camps as the troopers arrive.

PHYSICAL, moral and economic facts bid fair again to play an important part in determining whether the state may prohibit night work of women in factories. A test case is on its upward way through the courts of New York. Page 169.

MEANWHILE, one day's rest in seven is declared constitutional by the Supreme Court of New York. Page 172.

ANY child in Los Angeles who can scrape together \$7.50 can spend two weeks in a beautiful vacation camp in the mountains, 75 miles away. The city has leased 25 acres of land 5,000 feet above sea level as a municipal playground. Page 174.

OTHER cities might do something as radical if they would study the recreation needs of their children properly. Page 174.

COMMERCIALIZED prostitution in the "Holy Land." Page 169.

WHEN is blindness caused by industrial accidents "total and irrecoverable"? When our law extends compensation to its victims, said the Massachusetts legislators naively. But that, it was shown, would provide for only 6 per cent of accidents, so the law was amended to give compensation for "practical" blindness. Other aspects of saving eyesight brought out by the exhibit of the Massachusetts Commission for the Blind. Page 180.

TO the rural social worker spring brings an awakening social consciousness. Neighborhood, community and taxpayers' associations in hundreds of valleys are the evidence, says Fred Eastman. Page 184.

BUT in the city *spumoni* and *gelati* are not the only heralds of the new season. It is a time for "opening fresh relations with old neighbors," says Robert A. Woods, as well as "the season in which most of the world's revolutions have begun." Page 185.

PROFESSOR COMAN, replying to Dr. Rubinow's criticism of her criticism of the British old-age pension act, recalls the distinction between thrift and parsimony. Page 187.

A MUNICIPAL charities department is too often the football kicked (or kicked at) by every social agency in the city. In two years Otto P. Geier has made the one in Cincinnati the quarter-back of the team. Page 177.

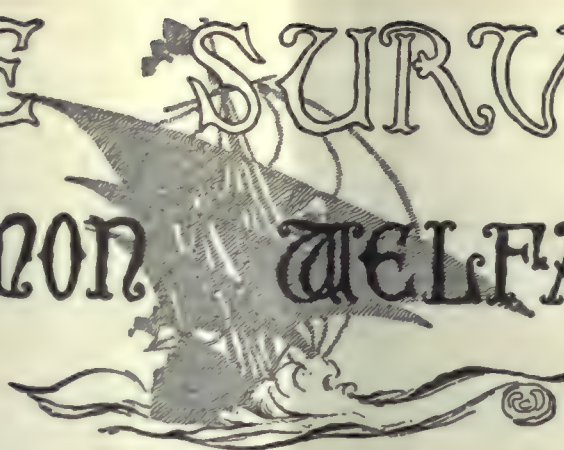
CONCERN for babies in the light of family rehabilitation in Greenwich, Conn. Page 170.

THE Cleveland Chamber of Commerce is considering a copartnership housing plan modeled on English precedents. Page 172.

THE SURVEY



COMMON WELFARE



PROGRESS OF THE NEW YORK WOMEN'S NIGHT WORK CASE

RARELY HAVE the lower courts of New York had the opportunity of passing upon a more far-reaching case than that of the *People vs. Charles Schweinler Press*, argued by Assistant District Attorney DeFord before the Court of Special Sessions April 27. This case involves the right of the state to prohibit the employment of women in factories between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. Last December a similar case was heard before the Court of Special Sessions, involving the same principles. In order to make a test case the court held the defendants guilty and arrested judgment. This enabled the district attorney to carry the case up on appeal.

The legal record, however, was not satisfactory and a second case was brought. This record includes all the important facts at issue for the information of the higher courts. The district attorney now seeks to have the second case carried as soon as possible to the Appellate Division.

He filed a brief on the legal aspects of the New York case, and also one dealing with the physical, moral and economic facts at issue, prepared by Louis D. Brandeis and Josephine Goldmark, publication secretary of the National Consumers' League. This is the seventh case in which such briefs have been filed at the request of the various state authorities, showing the "world's experience" upon which such legislation is based. The report of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission on the night work of women in the state, in response to which the law was enacted, stated in regard to one hundred women working regularly in the night shift in one mill:

"The married women who worked at night had on an average about 4½ hours of sleep in the daytime; they prepared three meals each day, including breakfast. . . . They also did all the washing for their families. Many of them returned to their homes after 10 hours of work at night . . . to nurse their babies in the morning and during the daytime.

"Ignorant women can scarcely be expected to realize the dangers not only to their own health, but to that of the next generation from such inhuman usage. But it is precisely to prevent such conditions of toil as threaten the welfare of society that labor laws are designed."

The law recommended by the commission was intended not only to stop such practices, but also to check the excessive prolongation of day work by setting a definite closing hour after which all night work is prohibited.

The commission modeled their law upon one which has been in force in Massachusetts for twenty-four years. They also availed themselves of the recorded experience of the fourteen European nations who in 1906 met in Berne, Switzerland, to sign an international treaty prohibiting night work for women in industrial establishments between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m., and requiring eleven uninterrupted hours of rest at night. This treaty, ratified after extended legislative debates by each of the powers represented, except one, went into effect in February, 1912. The principle of protecting women from night work was recognized in the very first statute regulating women's hours of labor enacted in England in 1844.



Robinson in New York Tribune
THE WAR HE LEFT BEHIND HIM

SINS OF THE "HOLY LAND": A VIEW OF TODAY

THE "HOLY LAND" of the twentieth century is a land not of romance and historic devotion but of disquieting realism. Palestine today shows not grazing flocks and nomadic patriarchs but industrial schools, sanitary and social surveys, and a "system of prostitution"!

Writing in a recent number of the *Lancet-Clinic*, Dr. Douglas M'Murtrie of New York records some observations made during a trip by Dr. Blanchard of the Société Française de l'Histoire de Médecine, Paris.

About 5,000 people live in the city of Tiberias, two-thirds of whom are Jews. Of the numerous prostitutes, Jewish women live in the city; Moslem women, in caves or grottos cut in the mountains to the south. Originally used by anchorites and sometimes mistaken for sepulchres, these grottos have long been devoted to their present purpose. There are five grottos near this city, and others in the nearby village of El-Mejdel, the ancient Magdala, and on the road between Nazareth and Nablus. Access is through a low opening, and a decline of about ten yards along which one must actually crawl. The cave is apparently one large room furnished with mats or mattresses, but quite without provision of wardrobes or washing apparatus. In each are from five to ten girls in care of an aged matron.

The girls, from eighteen to twenty-five years of age, are attractive, go veiled about the city, and upon invitation accompany their visitors to the mountain sides. They come generally from Beirut and its vicinity, recruited by promises of fine houses and exalted positions. Most are Moslems, but there are some Christians and Jews.

The clients of these grottos are numerous, married or single, of all religions, and often very young,—youths of fifteen or sixteen being among the frequenters.

Dr. M'Murtrie reports that there is absolutely no legislation in the country on the subject of prostitution; hence venereal disease is widespread and medical inspection a farce. Diseased

PORTABLE SCHOOL HOUSES FOR 1,000 CHILDREN



Photos by H. B. Humphrey, Chicago.

ORDINARILY the "portables" are used as temporary overflows for crowded buildings, but a sudden emergency in one Chicago neighborhood led to the assembling on a vacant lot owned by the School Board of twenty-one of them. Under the direction of the principal, J. J. Zmohal, the boys have been organized as amateur landscape gardeners. With such implements as they have been able to pick up or devise (note the soap-box wheelbarrow) they are grading, spreading a layer of topsoil and planting fruit and vegetable gardens. Their school, the Herzl, will be replaced later by a permanent building. In the meantime, its 1,000 desks are all occupied and there is a waiting list.

women continue their trade in spite of the city physicians' injunction; if ordered to go away, their obedience (more picturesque than effective) is to bathe in the Jordan—and return. If finally arrested, they but spread infection to the soldiers charged with their custody. Medical control is made difficult also by the people's objection to treatment. Symptoms of serious disease are often explained away as "cold taken while out on the mountains."

It is curious that there should be such a lack of legal control in view of the bitter hostility of families toward their daughters who have been thus led away. The Moslems of the region consider it the greatest disgrace to have a prostitute in their families; they will kill such a girl, often with great refinements of cruelty, in order to clear the family name of the stain. Of this attitude Dr. M'Murtrie gives this instance:

"Recently a young Moslem girl went as a prostitute to Beirut. Her two brothers got track of her, went to see her, and, without any suspicion of their intention, she accepted an invitation to go for a walk in the country. Upon reaching a field previously determined on they tied her to a tree, and dug in the ground a hole deep enough to receive her with the exception of her head. They put her into it, cut off her head with the stroke of a sabre, and covered her body with earth. Now, said they, we can again assume our standing. The deed was known, but remained unpunished, and all the people approved."

"FAMILY ENTRANCE" CLOSED IN CHICAGO SALOONS

LARGELY AS the result of publicity given to a survey of conditions demoralizing to women and girls in the saloons of Chicago, made under the supervision of the Chicago South Side Club last summer, the City Council has passed an ordinance forbidding the use of the signs "Family Entrance," "Ladies' Entrance," "Private Entrance," "or any other inscription designed to indicate that such entrance is intended for the admission of women." The survey was made by a woman investigator, and tended to show that the back rooms with special entrances for women contributed largely to the delinquency of young women and girls.

The investigation involved 478 saloons located on the principal thoroughfare of each of the three sides of the city. More than half of these saloons were located on corners and therefore found conditions in corner saloons more often bad than in other saloons.

An estimate, claimed to be conservative, of the extent to which the back rooms are patronized by women drinkers, placed the total number of women and girls in the 343 back rooms found in these 478 saloons at 14,602 for each 24 hours. With respect to these back rooms, or wine rooms, as they are called, the report says:

"Immediately upon the adoption of the wine room ordinance in Chicago several years ago, there began the extension of the back rooms for women and girls,

and the installing of various devices to evade the provisions of the ordinance through booths, stalls, and screens. Many of these substitute rooms are partially obscured from the general room, and a large proportion of them are practically secluded. . . . During the last three years the devices for securing privacy have been installed by wholesale and no one has lifted a finger to prevent the pernicious innovation."

An ordinance directed at the abolition of booths, stalls, and screens was also before the council, but failed of passage and has been recommitment to the judiciary committee.

THE CASE OF THE TWINS OF GREENWICH

THE PREDICAMENT of a pair of homeless twins in Greenwich, Conn., stirred up a controversy which has lasted three years and become the predicament of the town in that it raised the question of permanent provision for needy babies.

Sympathetic townspeople and members of the United Workers, the Greenwich relief organization, suggested that the Emily Bruce House, owned by the town, be used for a babies' home. Accordingly, an arrangement was made whereby the town was to loan the Emily Bruce House to the United Workers "for charitable purposes" for five years or longer, providing that if their use of the home was terminated by the town board under seven years, the town was to pay the United Workers \$1,000 for the improvements made on it.

A committee was appointed to equip and run the house as a charitable institution for babies. An outlay of several thousand dollars was made and preparations were being concluded for the admission of the children when a specialist in child-caring work chanced to visit Greenwich. She expressed the opinion that boarding-out in private family homes was better than institutional care for babies.

Instantly the town was split into two factions. One urged a suspension of work on the institution until local needs had been further considered and expert advice secured. The other determined to go ahead with the original plans. After many pros and cons the institution committee won out on its contention that the home was needed.

In January, 1913, the house was opened with the original twins and seven other children in residence. It very soon became apparent that there were not enough dependent children in Greenwich to warrant the heavy expenditure made by the United Workers to maintain the home. A trained secretary engaged by the United Workers investigated the family resources of every baby in the institution and submitted a report showing that each case could be more economically and better

TIME EXPOSURES by HINE



THE INDUSTRIAL REVOLUTION UP TO DATE

The manufacturers of this cotton-picking machine believe that it will not only save time and money, but will eventually drive out the child pickers whose work was described and pictured in *THE SURVEY* for February 7. Large growers are adopting it and the present plan is to arrange for co-operative ownership of machines among small cotton growers, much as northern farmers own thrashers and reapers in neighborhood groups. The power cotton-picker must be manned by skilled operatives. Its adoption tends directly to drive women and children from the long-drawn drudgery of the fields.

provided for in its own or in a carefully selected foster home; that the institution had actually created some of the child dependency it claimed to relieve.

An expert investigator from an impartial agency in another city, who was invited by both sides to study child dependency in Greenwich, recommended that a paid visitor be engaged to do family rehabilitation work and that the Emily Bruce House be discontinued or used for other social purposes. The United Workers, acting upon this recommendation, engaged a case worker to re-establish families from whom children had been taken and to place out children who had no family resources. They also notified the authorities that no children could be supported at the Emily Bruce House later than March 3.

Then the opposition, in a master stroke, appealed to the selectmen to remove the Emily Bruce House from the auspices of the United Workers, refund to it the \$1,000 as agreed and turn the institution over to a corporation called the Emily Bruce Shelter which would run as a home for babies independent of the United Workers.

To settle the matter, a town meeting was called and heralded far and wide by the newspapers. The United Workers had representatives to argue their case from the platform on a basis of social principle. But practically the entire body of the hall was packed with Italians and Poles, who had been brought up in chartered cars to cast

their votes as to the most approved ways of caring for babies and there was little argument as it was obvious from the start how the vote would fall. Hundreds of grimy hands raised on a signal from a district leader settled the question.

Back to the town went the Emily Bruce House, only to be promptly turned over to those representing the "Emily Bruce Shelter, Incorporated."

But, socially speaking, this was not the chief result of the meeting. The babies' home is still running, to be sure. The twins are there, with a few other little inhabitants. But outside of it and over it is spreading a true concern for children in the recognition of the need for family rehabilitation.

EXCHANGE OF TOWN PLANNERS WITH EUROPE

WHILE A GREAT deal of publicity has been given to the exchange of professors between the great universities of Europe and America, very little has yet been paid to the equally significant exchange of community planners that has taken place during the past year or so. While the professors may succeed in interpreting the ideals of one nation to another, the town planners, and their collaborators, the housing workers, will modify standards and methods of living in a way likely to have an even greater and more lasting effect.

Already in Germany the old ideals which found expression in wide avenues

and "model" tenements have been greatly changed by acquaintance with the narrower streets and cottages of England, while English town planners admit their debt to the Germans for lessons in systematic city building.

Though America, like England, is and always has been in the main a land of single-family houses, its first attempts at town planning ignored this tradition and followed continental models, seeking spectacular effects without thought of the inevitable consequences to the dwellings of the people.

But the saving grace of town planning is that it cannot confine itself to one phase of community life, it cannot provide only for magnificent civic centers and impressive boulevards, but must take into account the less obtrusive but in the aggregate far more important factors which affect the daily life of the people. So before many American city plans had gotten beyond the books and reports in which they were outlined, community planners realized that they were considering only a fraction of their problem.

In coming to this realization, America was assisted greatly by the exchange of opinion in the Old World. It showed that while the Bourbons and Hausmann and Frederick the Great and L'Enfant had done much to create great world capitals, they had left much undone, or had even rendered more difficult the still greater task of making cities good places for the vast majority of people to live in; that, after all, it is more important



Cesare in New York Sun

NOT IDLE

that a city provide wholesome, safe and pleasant dwellings for its people than that it become one of the show places of the earth and a Mecca for tourists.

So community planning has become an international vocation. Students of one nation have for years been visiting others in search of new ideas. Now we have reached a stage when one nation calls in advisers from another before beginning a serious undertaking. The value of a fresh point of view, of a different or more varied experience, is realized.

America has recently entertained Werner Hegeman, Henry Vivian and E. G. Culpin. Australia chose Walter Burley Griffin, of Chicago, to plan its proposed federal capital, Canberra. Dublin has called in John Nolan, of Cambridge, before deciding upon the plans for a rehabilitated Irish capital. Greece has invited Thomas Mawson, lecturer in landscape design at the University School of Town Planning in Liverpool, fresh from his work in western Canada, to submit plans for the future development of Athens. And Prof. Patrick Geddes, of England, has been drafted from his proposed lecture trip in America to make a town-planning tour of India—apostle of the newest of civic movements to some of the most ancient cities of the world.

The building of a modern city is a many-sided task into which recent inventions and discoveries in medicine and the better social standards of today have introduced big problems.

SIX-DAY LABOR LAW UPHELD IN NEW YORK

THE SUPREME COURT of New York has declared constitutional the clause in the state labor law which provides for one day's rest in seven. The decision was the result of a writ obtained by Charles Deutermann, an ice manufacturer, who forced a test case.

In ordering the writ dismissed, Justice Tompkins pointed out that since the penal code makes all unnecessary Sunday work illegal in trades, manufactures and mechanical employments, the statute under consideration was apparently framed to provide employes in factory or mercantile establishments that are in operation on Sunday, with some other full day of rest in every seven. He said:

"I think the law may be sustained as a health regulation and for the general welfare of the public. It has always been held that the state has power to protect the health and morals of the people and preserve the repose and sanctity of the Sabbath day by forbidding labor and industrial and commercial pursuits on that day. I think the state has the same power to require employers who have the legal right to conduct their operations on the first day of the week to provide their employes another day out of every consecutive seven days for rest and recreation."

The law was adopted in May, 1913. It was sponsored by the American

Association for Labor Legislation and follows the standard bill framed for uniform state legislation. A similar law was enacted last year in Massachusetts.

While there are one-day-rest laws on the statute books of five other states—California, Connecticut, Missouri, Pennsylvania and Wisconsin—they are so loosely drawn as to be practically dead letters.

CO-PARTNERSHIP HOUSING PLAN IN CLEVELAND

SOME TIME AGO the city, in order to acquire a strip of land needed to link together two parts of its park system, bought a ninety-three acre tract. The surplus, it was proposed, should be used for a municipal housing scheme. The proposal took many forms, but these were finally boiled down to one which is outlined in a report recently made by the housing committee to the directors of the Chamber of Commerce.

The committee recommends that a company be formed to build dwellings on this land, title to which shall be retained by the city and the use only leased, with proper restrictions, to the company. The company is to issue two kinds of stock, one with interest limited to the current rate, the other without limit on possible interest.

The second kind of stock would be sold in small denominations to tenants only, each of whom on taking his house would be required to subscribe to an amount equal to two years' rental. At this time an initial payment of \$50 or so would be required, the balance to be paid in small installments. The interest on this stock would be paid out of the profits of the company after payment of all fixed charges, including interest on the first kind of stock and rent to the city for the use of the land. This interest would in effect reduce rentals while the ownership of the stock would give householders "a stake in the community."

The scheme is modelled upon that used for a decade or more by the English co-partnership tenant societies.

The committee submits an estimate of income and expenses. The land is valued at a little over \$1,300 an acre. The price per front foot for improvements is put at \$8.50. On a basis of fifteen dwellings to the acre, the proposed maximum, the improvement expense is estimated at \$60 per house. These houses are to be of hollow tile or cement construction and are to contain bathroom, cellar and hot-air furnace. The estimated cost per house, if building operations are undertaken on a large scale, is \$1,600. Such a house, the committee believes, could be profitably rented at \$20 a month and yet earn \$27.46 a year to be distributed *pro rata* among the tenant share-holders.

The committee states that arguments for better housing in general are no

longer needed in Cleveland as leaders in civic and commercial life are convinced of the perils of bad housing and the advantages of good housing. Its proposals are submitted in the belief that they will stimulate good housing. It clearly realizes their limitations, however, and admits that the proposed dwellings will not come within the means of the unskilled wage-earner, whose need is the greatest.

SOME GAINS FOR MERCANTILE WORKERS IN WASHINGTON

ON APRIL 21, the Industrial Welfare Commission of Washington, accepting the recommendation of a conference of representatives of mercantile store owners and employes and of the general public, ruled that no adult woman employed as a clerk in a mercantile establishment in that state should receive a wage of less than \$10 a week.

Furthermore, the commission ordered that the apprenticeship or learners' period should be limited to one year, the wage for the first six months of this time to be not less than \$6 a week, and for the second six months, not less than \$7.50. Not more than 17 per cent of the total number of women employed in any one establishment may be apprentices, and one-half of those who come under this classification must be serving the second six months of their apprenticeship, that is, one-half the apprentices must be earning \$7.50 a week. According to a provision in the law, individual permits must be issued by the commission to all women applying for work who are to receive less than the experienced adult's minimum wage.

Minors, in Washington, are all persons under eighteen years of age. The commission ruled that they must be paid \$6 a week, and may not be employed after 7.30 p. m.

The wage recommendation of \$10 a

week for experienced adults came unanimously from the conference as a compromise between \$8.25, the wage proposed at first by the employers, and \$12, the wage proposed by the employes.

The Industrial Welfare Commission, which took up its duties in July, 1913, did not call the mercantile conference until it had made extensive investigation into wages, working and cost of living conditions of women employes in the mercantile, manufacturing and laundry trades in the state. Last fall, the commissioners held separate, informal hearings with employers and employes in these three industries in the largest cities of the state to learn something of what both groups expected from the law. Meanwhile, a statistical survey, through questionnaires sent to employers and employes, had been started.

With the assistance of Caroline J. Gleason, secretary of the Oregon Industrial Welfare Commission, the Washington commission issued a report early in March on the three industries mentioned, and assembled its first conference on March 31. The report showed that of 11,059 workers in the state, a few are earning less than \$4 a week. The wage most generally received approximates \$8.

The basis of comparison was \$10 as the investigation revealed that this sum is the minimum on which a self-supporting woman can maintain herself in frugal comfort. Sixty-seven per cent of the 11,059 women were receiving under \$10 a week. Of the 5,300 employes in mercantile establishments, 55 per cent were earning less than \$10 a week. Of 1,750 factory workers 71 per cent, and of 2,300 laundry employes, 70 per cent earned less than \$10 a week.

The commission has fixed May 14 for the factory conference and May 16 for the laundry conference.

CLEVELAND'S NEW WELFARE COUNCIL

A TEAM of practically all the welfare organizations of Cleveland, both public and private, has been worked out under the name of the Cleveland Welfare Council. Its stated purpose is to provide clearing-house facilities through discussion, committees, files of social data and the like, for the interchange of information, ideas and plans relative to community welfare with a view to preventing duplicated or unrelated efforts on the part of social agencies or individuals and to recommending to proper agencies or individuals needed welfare activities.

Regular membership in the council is of organizations or institutions. The initial members include the following: Chamber of Commerce, Federation for Charity and Philanthropy, Cleveland Foundation, Federated Churches, Federation of Women's Clubs, Catholic Diocese, Academy of Medicine, Western Reserve University, Case School of Applied Science, Federation of Labor, Child Welfare Council, Federation of Jewish Charities, City Club, Civic League and Chamber of Industry.

Ex officio members are the following named officers or their representatives: judge of Juvenile Court, presiding judge of the Common Pleas Court, judge of Probate Court, chief justice of Municipal Court, the mayor, the director of public welfare, the commissioner of research and publicity, the director of schools, the superintendent of schools, the president of the Board of Education, the public librarian and the state factory inspector.

The executive committee has power to elect, in addition, ten representatives at large to serve for a period of one year.

Belle Sherwin, prominent in philanthropic work, has been elected president of the council.

MY SISTER'S HERITAGE

MARY S. EDGAR

BUDDING tree and singing bird,
Joy of springtime seen and heard;
All the wealth of all the year,
Scattered by the wayside here.

But oh, little sister of mine in the shadowy places,
Where the wheel turns, and the small young fingers ply,
I cannot forget that this is yours, too, to inherit—
The open fields and the streams and the clear blue sky.

Stirring sap and quickening sod—
Miracles revealing God:
Prophets of His fatherhood,
Speaking from the field and wood.

But oh, little sister of mine in the shadowy places,
Where shoulders droop, eyes dim, and cheeks grow wan,
I yearn for your hand, and a road that leads to the open,
To the common-wealth of the fields, ere the light be gone.

CIVICS

MUNICIPAL VACATION CAMP FOR LOS ANGELES IN SAN BERNARDINO MOUNTAINS

A VACATION camp in the mountains, 75 miles from Los Angeles, is now a part of that city's municipal playground system. For the past three summers the playground department has conducted a camp accommodating boys and men in July and girls and women in August. This proved so successful that the playground commission determined to secure a permanent site. A beautiful location was found in the federal government forest reserve in the San Bernardino mountains. With the approval of the secretary of agriculture, 23 acres of land have been leased by the federal government to the city of Los Angeles for a nominal sum—\$10 a year.

The camp site is at an elevation of 5,000 feet, and is partially covered by a heavy growth of pines. The surrounding mountains provide magnificent scenery and opportunity for many delightful short trips. An excellent automobile road makes transportation from Los Angeles easy. Auto trucks equipped with seats and awnings will be used to convey the campers and it is estimated that the round trip rate will not be more than fifty cents each. By regular modes of travel, the transportation would be many times as much.

Based on experience in the camp as conducted during the past three summers, the playground commission expects to furnish transportation and board for two weeks at a cost of \$7.50. This amount will actually cover all expense except the cost of original improvements and plant and the salaries of those in charge. These items will be met by the city.

Before summer a rustic building to be used as kitchen and store room will be erected. Later a screened dining-room will be added. Tents with wooden floors will be provided—large enough to accommodate four campers each. A swimming pool will be part of the first year's equipment. It is expected that each year improvements will be added and that larger numbers of people can be accommodated.

At the head of the work the commission will place its best playground director, a man of broad experience in camp life. He will be in charge throughout the entire season. Under his supervision, when the boys are in camp, there will be two assistant directors and several competent volunteer directors, making in all approximately seven capable supervisors for the camp. During August a similar number of assistant directors and supervisors for the girls and women will be at the camp. It is hoped that later it will be possible to



BUBBLING STREAMS AND FOREST TREES ON THE CAMP SITE

make arrangements for family groups.

During the remainder of the year the camp will be open for parties who wish to make use of it for week-end trips, holidays and vacations. In winter the snow is often several feet deep, and this is an attraction for those who live in the lower and milder regions where snow is never known.

Among the 500,000 people in Los Angeles, only the few who can afford hotel prices have hitherto had an opportunity to enjoy the glorious mountains so close at hand. The playground department hopes through this camp to make it easy and inexpensive for large numbers of the city's people to spend vacations in this invigorating and inspiring region.

PLAY AND PHYSICAL DEVELOPMENT—By Henry S. Curtis

THE PLAY MOVEMENT has spread rapidly over the United States, and yet it has never taken hold of popular imagination as have a number of other recent social movements. I believe the reason for this is the lack of definite facts in regard to the effect of present city conditions upon children.

We know that city children often grow up weakly, and that they seldom have the sturdy strength and health of country boys of forty or fifty years ago. We know that the repression of vigorous physical activity that comes from restricted play spaces must necessarily mean a lowered physical development. But we have no picture of the extent of this repression, because we have no standards. If it could be shown that the children of a certain city had only two-thirds of the normal physical strength of children of their respective ages, and this could undoubtedly be shown in many cities, it would not require much campaigning after that to secure the play facilities that the city actually needed.

It is generally conceded, I suppose, that the health of school children is pretty closely dependent on their leading a vigorous life in the open air. The year following the introduction of open-



TWENTY-THREE ACRES OF SUCH BEAUTIFUL COUNTRY A PLAYGROUND FOR LOS ANGELES CHILDREN

air play into the curriculum of the schools of Prosheim, Germany, the number of days absence on account of sickness fell off nearly one-half. The departments of school hygiene should be required to determine the average morbidity of school children for each city, as this is the measure of the need of and the success of the department.

It is conceded that the development of grace and motor skill in children comes mostly from their play. The relative awkwardness of the German boy who in the old days was trained mostly in gymnastics was apparent when he was compared with the English boy who was trained in athletics.

It ought to be possible to get some measure of the physical development of children and here we have three fairly good tests, anthropometric and dynamometric measurements, the test of the Public School Athletic League, as worked out in New York city, and a pedometer record of activity. The standard of the Public School Athletic League says that every boy under thirteen who can jump 5 feet 9 inches standing, chin a bar four times, and run the 60 yard dash in 8 3/5 seconds, shall have the standard button of the league.

It will be noticed that this is a test of three fundamental sets of muscles of the arms, the trunk and the legs. At the time I took charge of the playgrounds of the District of Columbia, we tried the test in the various playgrounds about the city, but could not find a boy who could do the three things. After four summers of organized play we tried the test again. There were 500 boys who did the three things. There were more than 2,000 boys who could do one or two of the three things.

The same progressive development has doubtless taken place in many cities. The percentage of young men who pass a creditable physical examination on entrance to the German army varies from 28 per cent in Berlin to 65 per cent in Mulheim. It is in almost direct proportion to the play facilities furnished. Probably the most valuable test that could be secured, however, would be a test of the physical activity of children as recorded by a pedometer. I am confident that in closely built cities that make no provision for play, the physical



TWO FAMILY HOUSES ERECTED FOR THE NEW HAVEN IMPROVEMENT ASS'N
These houses, put up by the Standard Buildings, Inc., show great advance in architectural treatment over most wage-earners' houses.

activity of the children is two or three miles a day less than it is in cities that make ample provision.

I believe that this average daily activity is considerably lower in the South than in the North. I believe, also, that where the whole nervous system is set to the development of a certain amount of energy, such as this activity largely represents, through the years of childhood, this determines the energy of the individual for the rest of his life. If this is true, then the need of the provision for play is much greater in the South and all warm countries than it is in the North. "The boy without a playground is father to the man without a job."

In my study of the activity of the school children of Worcester, Mass., by pedometer records, I found a daily activity of nearly nine miles. It would be interesting to secure such records from a series of cities and average and compare them so as to get a standard. I am confident that these records would show how faithfully the lack of play facilities is recorded in a lessened activity, poor physical development and low vitality.

Such an investigation would cost considerable, but it would give a direct physical measure of how great a handicap restricted play spaces, dirty and dangerous streets, and a warm climate are to children.



HOLLOW-TILE WORKMEN'S BUNGALOWS AT HAUTO, PA.

These cottages, containing four rooms, were built by the Standard Buildings, Inc., for the Lehigh Coal and Navigation Co.

REDUCING THE COST OF SMALL HOUSES

NOW THAT the disadvantage of tenement or barrack dwellings are being recognized effort is being made by manufacturers, who have found that it pays to provide good homes for their employes, and even more by those who are seeking to improve social conditions in our cities, to find some method of reducing the cost of building small houses. This problem is engaging the attention of architects and builders throughout the country who believe that it can be solved on a sound financial basis. Among them is the Standard Buildings, Inc., which has recently designed and erected one and two story cottages for the Lehigh Coal & Navigation Co. at Hauto, near Lansford, Pa., and a row of two family houses at New Haven, Conn.

The walls in these houses are of hollow tile, of which a new size was made—6 by 12 inches face by 6 inches thick with double air spaces—so there would be no need of stucco or other outside covering. The price of such houses would, of course, vary somewhat with location, availability of material and labor costs.

Three types of houses have been erected:

(1) Bungalows containing a large living-room, two double bedrooms of over 800 cubic feet of air capacity each, and a kitchen. There is a center chimney, a water closet, a soapstone wash-tub and sink. The cooking range will heat the house from the living-room in winter and in summer can be moved into the kitchen. There is a large front porch and a smaller one in the rear. The hollow tile in these bungalows is smooth on the interior and is whitewashed, doing away with the use of plaster and presenting a most durable surface practically proof against wear and tear.

(2) Five-room two-story houses. The rooms in the second story are full height. There is a living-room, dining-room, kitchen, two bedrooms and a bath. Also a cemented cellar and excellent hot-air furnace.

(3) Six-room houses, similar to those with four rooms but with a larger living-room and three bedrooms.

Good closets are provided in all these houses. The five- and six-room houses are plastered in the usual way with a white finishing coat. The cheapest of the houses costs \$750. It contains three rooms and water-closet. In the kitchen is a sink with running water. From this the price mounts to a six-room house, containing bath as well as water closet, which costs \$2,575. The cheapest house with bath costs \$1,500 and contains five rooms.

The builders present a table of figures to show that these houses could rent for from \$6 a month for the cheapest to \$19 a month for the most expensive and yet yield a profit of from 2 to 13 per cent,—the more expensive houses being the least profitable. The cost of the land, however, does not seem to be included in figuring these profits.

RECREATION IN CHARLESTOWN

Charleston, first city in South Carolina to have a municipal playground, has this year appropriated \$2,500 for the operation of two playgrounds. A trained supervisor is giving his entire time the year round, and a director for girls' activities is on duty afternoons.

As early as 1900 the women of the Civic Club opened a playground in Charleston but lack of funds forced them to give it up after two years. In 1910 the city opened a municipal playground and turned its operation over to a commission of nine, of whom five are women, members of the Civic Club. The appropriation was \$700 in 1911; it was increased to \$1,000 in 1912, \$1,500 in 1913, and \$2,500 in 1914.

THE MOVIES IN PHILADELPHIA

A study of motion picture shows in Philadelphia was made during the past winter by a special committee of the local Social Workers' Club. It was sought to discover "who attend and why," and "what they find." The study indicated that the shows are not so exclusively children's theaters as some of the committee had supposed; that while some pictures are cheap, vulgar and excessively melodramatic, the standard on the whole is high; and that great danger lay in the lack of proper ventilation, in eye strain due to frequent attendance where worn-out machines and films are used, and in inadequate policing and lighting.

A questionnaire was sent to several grammar and high schools to find out what, aside from the cheapness, was the charm of the "movie," what type of pictures was most popular and whether interest varied with sex and age and race. Out of 2,531 grammar scholars 2,170 had attended 9,813 times the preceding month—boys averaging 5 times and girls 3 1/3 times. Colored and Italian children, perhaps because of poverty, attended least often.

Attendance of children, measured by grades, indicated that as children grow older they tire somewhat of the pictures. Comic pictures were preferred by over half the fifth-grade pupils, while educational films gained in popularity up through the eighth-grade pupils. Older boys inclined away from

the "movies" and toward vaudeville and girls toward the drama "because it is real" and "you can hear what they say." Among 142 first year high school girls 18 preferred the "movies," 10 vaudeville and 103 plays. Among high-school seniors 54 per cent of the boys and 76 per cent of the girls preferred the play to the "movies."

THREE CITY PLANS

Erie, Pa., Newark, N. J., and Alton, Ill., have recently published city plans.

"Greater Erie" is a volume of 254 pages, profusely illustrated with local views and maps, pictures showing suggestive arrangements in other cities, and illustrations of proposed changes in Erie. The plan was prepared by John Nolen, city planner, Cambridge, Mass., who associated with him E. P. Goodrich of New York as consulting engineer, Henry C. Long, of Boston, as expert on commercial developments and F. Van Z. Lane as traffic expert. The work was done and the report published under the auspices of the City Planning Committee of the Chamber of Commerce and Board of Trade, organized in 1911. These two organizations have recently voted to amalgamate.

The city plan report has five heads—streets, railroads, water front, buildings and open spaces. One of the most interesting features is the proposed treatment of the Lake Erie shore.

The Newark city plan was made under the direction of a municipal commission, David Grotta, president. The expert advisers were E. P. Goodrich and George B. Ford of New York. Suggestions are made for improvements in the street system, accompanied by definite notes as to what would be accomplished and how much the cost would be. The way in which these improvements could be completed within ten years under existing laws is shown.

Charles Mulford Robinson of Rochester, N. Y., was the city planner engaged by the Alton Board of Trade in preparing a plan for that city. The report is based upon a brief examination of the city's main problems, rather than upon precise surveys of a topographic, sociologic and economic sort. City maps and an enlargement of the city engineering department to deal with unusually difficult engineering problems are proposed.

HOUSING AND TOWN PLANNING

The two related subjects of housing and town planning form the title of the January number of the *Annals of the American Academy of Political and Social Science*. In their modern form, they are comparatively new to all except a few specialists. The topics of the thirty-six articles here brought together are in themselves interesting as showing how the two subjects dovetail into each other and how widespread are their ramifications.

For a reader who already knows enough of the subjects to judge and to correlate as he reads, this January volume of the *Annals* is of great value. It presents many facts outside the scope of common knowledge, it challenges ac-

cepted beliefs, it stimulates the imagination to follow unfamiliar paths. But it is not a text-book to be accepted without question. Rather it is a sort of examination paper which shows how much we have learned and indicates how much we still have to learn. Many of the differences of opinion which it expresses will have no place in future papers, for we shall find that they are due to partial understanding.

PRIZE FOR CIVIC ESSAY

Through the generosity of Morton Denison Hull of Chicago, the National Municipal League has established an annual prize of \$250 to be awarded for the best essay on a subject connected with municipal government. The competition is open to post-graduate students who are, or who have been within a year preceding the date of competition, registered in any college or university of the United States offering distinct and independent instruction in municipal government.

For 1914 the prize will be awarded for the best essay for any one of a number of topics which have been announced by the League. The list may be obtained by addressing the National Municipal League, 703 North American Building, Philadelphia, Pa.

Sources of Information on Recreation is the title of a pamphlet just issued by the Department of Recreation of the Russell Sage Foundation. While not exhaustive, the list includes the best of the up-to-date books, pamphlets and magazine articles. Arrangement is made by subjects: General Equipment and Administration, Social Centers, Boys' and Girls' Clubs, Recreation in Rural Communities, Games and Dramatics, Athletics, Sports and Outings, Folk Dancing, Story Telling, Holidays, Festivals and Pageants, School Gardens, Public Baths, Home Recreation, Study Courses for Play Leaders, and Surveys.

A report on public and semi-public comfort stations in New York City, based upon a study from social, sanitary and economic points of view, has been published by the Department of Social Welfare of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. There are many recommendations covering construction, sanitary equipment and greater serviceability.

Public stations are reported to be strikingly superior to many under private control, notably those in connection with the subways and elevated railroads.

A summer school of town planning will be held August 1-15 in London. The committee in charge is under the chairmanship of Raymond Unwin and the course will be given in the buildings of the University of London. In addition to the lectures there will be excursions and visits to places which illustrate the principles of town planning. An exhibition of maps and plans is to be formed to facilitate the study. Information may be obtained by addressing J. S. Rathbone, Fitzalan House, Church End, Finchley, London, N.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

DR. GEIER'S WORK IN THE CINCINNATI DEPARTMENT OF CHARITIES—BY W. J. NORTON

DIRECTOR, COUNCIL OF SOCIAL AGENCIES

FULL of challenges is the second annual report of Dr. Otto P. Geier, retiring superintendent of the Department of Charities and Correction of Cincinnati. But there is also an interesting record of Dr. Geier's answers to his own challenges.

"In strong contrast," says Dr. Grier in his report, "to the transformation that has been wrought in those city departments which serve all of the people is the comparative lack of advancement in the welfare departments whose functions are to care for the unfortunate, the sick and the delinquent.

"It was brought home to the management of these institutions," pursues the

report, "that the 18,000 dependent, diseased, and delinquent people that they were housing were but the results of certain social ills of the community, and that the treatment of these particular individuals, laudable as it was, was merely palliative,—a curative process for a few, rather than a preventive one for the mass. With this broader vision came the readiness to join with private charities in coping with the whole problem, and the desire to know whether each institution was measuring up to modern requirements."

Acting on the spirit of co-operation the Charities Department became the dominant leader of all the social forces of the

city. Expenditures for outdoor relief were delegated to the Associated Charities. The Anti-Tuberculosis League was made the clearing house for tuberculosis patients. Applicants to the City Tuberculosis Hospital were admitted only by way of the league's clinic; and discharged patients were returned to the direction and supervision of the clinic physician and nurses. Influx of non-residents to the General Hospital was stopped and the flow of hospital population quickened through co-operative work with the Hospital Social Service Commission.

Chattel mortgage loan sharks, except two, were driven from Cincinnati by a joint campaign between the department and the Citizens Mortgage and Loan Company. Fake solicitors of charity funds were checked by co-operation



THE LINES, WHICH WERE COLORED IN THE ORIGINAL, TRACE BACK TO THEIR HOMES THE TUBERCULOSIS AND VENEREAL PATIENTS IN CITY HOS-

PITALS AND THE INMATES OF THE INFIRMARY AND THE WORKHOUSE OF CINCINNATI. ALMOST TWO-THIRDS OF THEM CAME FROM THE TENEMENT DISTRICTS, WHERE ONE-THIRD OF THE TOTAL POPULATION OF THE CITY LIVES IN ONE-NINETEENTH OF ITS AREA. FROM A MAP PREPARED BY DR. GEIER'S DEPARTMENT.

with the Council of Social Agencies. Two colored solicitors who had collected \$9,000 were prosecuted by the department and imprisoned. Shantytown, the open sore of Cincinnati's housing problem, was burned.

Pursuing "the desire to know whether each institution was measuring up to modern requirements," the department, through its Bureau of Social Investigation and Relief, made a number of interesting studies. An investigation of the infirmary revealed that 10 per cent of the inmates were persons not properly a charge upon the community. A similar study was made at the hospital and the adoption of the National Conference Transportation Rules followed. Strict enforcement of these rules stopped "passing on" to Cincinnati, and insured sensible, humane treatment of itinerant dependents. People who formerly placed their aged parents in the city almshouse now support them. Approximately \$1,500 each year is collected from persons able to pay for their parents' support but unable to give them personal care.

The Bureau of Municipal Research, at the request of the Charities Department, made an investigation of the old House of Refuge and suggested a complete reorganization of methods, pending the completion of a cottage plan home for delinquent boys and girls now building. A system of mothers' pensions has been put into force by the department so that children may be kept at home instead of being committed to the House of Refuge.

Another activity of the department was a survey of Cincinnati's institutional population to trace some of the contributing causes of their being public charges, which showed that 70 per cent of the inmates of the city's institutions came from the tenement districts. One-third of Cincinnati's population lives in 1/19 of the city's area. Certain localities in the densely populated sections, the survey showed, were contributing heavily to crime, disease and dependency.

On September 1, 1913, there were in city institutions the following inmates coming from one block in which the "Silver Moon," a notorious tenement, is located: two cases of tuberculosis, six cases of venereal disease, two prisoners in the work house, two infirmary inmates and one contagious disease hospital case. This block, through social neglect, was costing the city about \$25 per day.

The report covers two full years of Dr. Geier's superintendency. Not the least service he has rendered to Cincinnati is a widespread awakening of the community to an interest in its social problems, through a well-conducted publicity campaign. In fact, to this aroused interest may be directly traced the determination of the new administration to retain this new department in its entirety, with its efficient methods and non-partisan staff. It also probably brought about the appointment of an able social worker as successor to the retiring superintendent, who will carry on the work so effectively started by Dr. Geier.

CLASSIFYING THE MARYLAND STATE SUBSIDIES

THE SEVENTH BIENNIAL REPORT of the Maryland Board of Charities and Correction, recently published, is remarkable in that it is an account of the charities of a state which still clings to the subsidy system. Maryland's policy in regard to its charitable obligations has been one of giving lump appropriations to all kinds of institutions. The list of state-aided institutions, includes almost everything from a state hospital for the insane with 1,500 patients, to a small day nursery with an average attendance of only eight or nine children.

This is the first report of this board gotten out by a trained social worker, and it endeavors to deal with principles and show the lack of system under which one or two million dollars a year have been dealt out by the state treasury. After describing a system of

perform a service for all the people, it has no right to perform it for any. 3. The state owes to the people for whom the service is directly performed a duty to see that they get the best treatment it can give to them. 4. The state is under obligations to the taxpayer to see that these services are secured for the least amount of money whether the instrumentality used be public or private.

In order to put the above enumerated principles into operation, and to correct certain other abuses, the report recommends the enactment of a law providing for its own reorganization by placing the board on a non-partisan basis, and providing that two of its members be women. This law would also give it supervision over all charitable institutions in the state, create a licensing system similar to that of Ohio for all child-caring institutions, and put the payment of the state appropriations on a contract basis.

PRACTICAL SOCIOLOGY IN KENTUCKY—By Alexander Johnson

THE DEPARTMENT of history and sociology of the University of Kentucky has just published a preliminary report on the county infirmaries (almshouses) of the state. It is founded on information collected from county judges and attorneys, students and interested members of the community. The report discusses location, farms, buildings, superintendents, inmates, religious consolation and needs, and makes some recommendations.

Two statistical tables are given. One shows property value and cost of maintenance of the infirmaries in 98 of the counties of the state. The other gives number and class of inmates by sex, age, race and mental and physical condition. The number of inmates in each institution varies from 1 to 74, the average being about 12. The cost per week per capita ranges from \$6 in an infirmary with 24 inmates, to 75 cents in one where there are 74. The latter is on a farm of 120 acres worth \$100 an acre under a superintendent with a salary of \$1,200 a year.

Striking discrepancies are shown. For instance, one county has buildings costing \$25,000 on a farm of 80 acres with 29 inmates, 15 of whom are classed as workers. Another has buildings worth \$500 on a farm of 150 acres with 17 inmates, all of whom are reported as workers, although 4 are said to be paralytics. On a few of the farms the building consists of an old log cabin, others have modern buildings.

The report is not presented as complete, but it is an interesting and valuable document. There is no state official board which is concerned with the statistics or the management of the almshouses, and the department of sociology has a clear field. The report shows the opinion of the department as to the kind of "sociology" that is worth studying. As class material for students, it is of value for several different reasons.

It is a far cry from the old-fashioned institution of higher education that



reports and records, which did not exist prior to the present board, the report endeavors to set forth principles on which state aid should be given.

It divides all state charities into two parts: 1. Those dealing with such subjects as are everywhere recognized to be solely subjects of state care, such as the insane and the delinquents, with none of which do private charities attempt to deal; 2. Those which are conducted under private auspices but which in Maryland, in the past, have been practically supported by the state, such as general hospitals, child-caring institutions and homes for the aged.

The board feels that it is the state's first duty to provide for the first of these classes, and then give whatever it can afford to the second.

Whenever aid is given to the second class, it should be under the following conditions: 1. No appropriation should be granted for any purpose unless either the community is protected from danger or harm, or the work is necessary to guarantee the future of the state. 2. Until the state is in a position to

chiefly concerns itself and its students with the classics, to the modern university alive to the needs of its state and the problems of modern civilization. Such reports as this one from Kentucky clearly show to which class this university aims to belong.

NEW JERSEY CHARITIES CONFERENCE

PARTICULAR INTEREST at the New Jersey Conference of Charities and Corrections held at Asbury Park, centered on the widows' pensions report presented by Caroline B. Alexander, a member of the State Board of Children's Guardians which administers the New Jersey pension law. After a year's work under the law, Mrs. Alexander reported 326 families pensioned, nearly 50 per cent of those applying, and 922 children kept in their homes. She called attention to the large number of feeble-minded women applying to the board and of women whose husbands had died from tuberculosis or from industrial accidents. The inadequacy of relief granted by the law, Mrs. Alexander said, made it necessary for mothers to supplement their income by work.

Although there are about 1,000 applications on file, the board has not been supplied with funds to secure more agents and ceased granting pensions on February 1. The 1914 Legislature, however, has appropriated \$8,000 for administrative expenses for the year beginning November 1.

A meeting which was particularly helpful to the large number of overseers of the poor in attendance was one dealing with Municipal Treatment of the Common Drunk. The Rev. Henry B. Wilson of Boonton spoke on the results accomplished in his town under the state law which provides for a board of protectors empowered to prepare a list of habitual drunkards, and to act as a parole board for them.

The officers of the conference for 1915 are president, Seymour L. Cromwell of the State Charities Aid Association; vice-president, David F. Weeks, superintendent of the State Village for Epileptics at Skillman; treasurer, Isaac C. Ogden of the Orange Bureau of Charities; and secretary, Ernest D. Easton of the Anti-Tuberculosis Association, Newark.

PROBATION WORK IN NEW YORK STATE

THE 123 SALARIED officers of New York city together with volunteer workers in courts and others interested in probation, met recently in a series of conferences arranged by the State Probation Commission, of which Homer Folks is president.

Among the practical problems discussed were truancy and co-operation with schools. It was the almost unanimous conclusion that truancy is a problem the schools and not the juvenile courts ought to handle. In few cities are the schools handling the problem adequately, certainly not in New York. It was pointed out.

The need of preliminary investigation before probation, especially for adults,

THREE SAMPLES OF EMBOSSED TYPE FOR THE BLIND NOW IN USE

(New York Point.)

(English Braille.)

(American Braille.)

In the original, the dots are raised, not black.

Imagine a New York business man unable to read a word in a Chicago newspaper, because the characters in which it was printed were meaningless to him. Yet a blind person, having learned only one dot system, can not read the others. The uniform type committee of the American Association for the Blind, which has been working since 1905 to secure a standard dot system, has used this striking illustration in an appeal for funds to carry on its work until the biennial convention at Berkeley, Cal., in 1915. Its final report will be made at that time.

was urged. On the other hand, loading down a probation officer with investigations to the exclusion of real probation work, which must be intensive personal work with a limited number of cases, was decried.

The annual report of the State Probation Commission showed 16,144 persons placed on probation the past year, 10,739 of them adults and 5,405 children under 16. This is 10 per cent increase over the year before and 63 per cent over any earlier year. There are 486 probation officers in the state, 52 more than the year before, 159 of them are salaried. When the commission began its work in 1906 there were only 30. The commission is working for one or more salaried officers in every county. The largest cities still without officers are Elmira, Niagara Falls, New Rochelle and Newburgh.

CHILD-HELPING WORK IN NEW ENGLAND

A RECENT tri-state conference at Boston served to bring out interesting information in regard to child-caring work in three states of New England—not the evenly progressive and modern section that many of its people might desire.

Vermont is one of the four states of the Union without a child-helping society. But the leading children's agency, the Kurn Hattin Homes near Bellows Falls, is negotiating for closer relations with the New England Home for Little Wanderers at Boston.

The Maine Children's Committee was reported to have developed into an efficient agency which, also, will work closely with the New England Home for Little Wanderers.

This institution, which is a home in a temporary sense only, as its chief work is placing-out children in families, has become the guiding force in much of the child-helping work of New England. Under the leadership of Frederic H. Knight, it has developed the most modern methods of placing-out children, and of stimulating co-operation with other organizations.

New Hampshire has just organized the Children's Aid and Protective Society. The secretary, Mrs. Alice B. Montgomery, has for several years been the agent at Northampton of the Massachusetts Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children. This society has an ample field, for New Hampshire, although an agricultural state with its largest city of only 70,000, stands second only to New York in ratio of orphan asylum population. Moreover, it has been exceedingly generous in its expenditures for children's institutions. Hastings H. Hart of the Russell Sage Foundation estimates that the state has an investment of \$1,600,000 in children's institutions, which is at the rate of \$3.70 per inhabitant. New York has only \$3.50. A good many children are in almshouses, the one at Hillsboro having 43.

The legislative commission to look into the condition of dependent, neglected, delinquent and defective children long ago used up its parsimonious appropriation of \$600 and has raised funds privately to go on with its study of feeble-minded children. The members are Mrs. Frank Streeter of Concord, Father Brophy and Professor Wood.

CO-OPERATIVE ASSOCIATIONS IN RURAL INDIA

GREAT BRITAIN is generally conceded to be the land in which co-operative principles were developed and in which co-operative business has attained its highest success. In England, however, the movement has been more successful among urban than among rural people. In Ireland and throughout the British Empire the condition is reversed, and agricultural co-operation shows the greater achievement.

A review of the co-operative credit movement in India, presented by Henry D. Baker in the *Daily Consular and Trade Reports*, shows strikingly that co-operation can be successfully engrafted by Britishers upon a people remote both in space and in race.

The total membership in co-operative associations of India in October, 1913,

was 573,000, an increase of 160,000 over the preceding year. There were in all 8,771 societies, those of rural India comprising a membership of six times that of the city societies.

The co-operative movement did not grow spontaneously out of the needs of the people of India, but was consciously fostered by Lord Curzon through the government of India. In 1904 an act was passed sanctioning the appointment in each province of an officer to organize co-operative credit societies. Interest rates for small farmers were shortly reduced through co-operative organization, from between 25 and 30 per cent to from 6 to 15 per cent.

The government has assisted these societies chiefly through advice, supervision, and auditing of their accounts, rather than through loans. Government supervision is largely responsible for the low interest rates obtained by these associations.

The co-operative credit societies are now being made a medium for the purchase of agricultural implements, and for the dissemination of agricultural instruction.

CONNECTICUT WELFARE WORKERS' CONFERENCE

RECREATION, the education and care of the feeble-minded, and the co-ordination of public and private charities, were given particular attention at the Connecticut State Conference of Charities and Corrections held at Bridgeport, April 26 to 28.

In the matter of recreation, Josephine Clement, manager of the Bijou Dream motion picture theater in Boston, told of her five years' experience in providing the public with a model theater. Plans for similar theaters are afoot in two other cities. Mrs. Clement declared from her experience that they are self-supporting and yield almost as much revenue and a great deal more satisfaction to the owner than do others.

Julia Schoenfeld and J. Herbert Wilson of the National Playground and Recreation Association of America emphasized the necessity of well regulated dance halls, bowling alleys and picture shows and of public playgrounds where a "spirited director is a lot more desirable than expensive apparatus."

Bringing the question of recreation home to Bridgeport, Mrs. Upham, industrial Secretary of the Y. W. C. A., said that a petition circulated in the city had brought in 600 signatures of working girls demanding dance halls where no liquor should be sold and where they might enjoy themselves in safety.

Connecticut was scored heavily for inadequate care of the insane and feeble-minded. Alexander Johnson, of the Vineland Training School, said that whereas only five acres of land in Connecticut were set aside for defective children, it would take hundreds of acres to lay out a suitable colony for this class of unfortunates.

In arguing the question of the best methods of dispensing relief, the general sentiment was that the matter of superintending charity, whether public or private, should be in the hands of

experts and that politics and changes of administrations should not affect the office.

Time was well economized at the Connecticut conference by the arrangement of "round table meetings" where various subjects were discussed which could not be taken up at the general sessions. The officers of the conference elected for 1914 are: president, Schuyler Merritt, Stamford; treasurer, William N. Travis, Stamford; secretary, Spencer Gordon, Bridgeport.

CONFERENCE OF RELIGIOUS AND SOCIAL WORKERS

A SIGN of new and better times just ahead was registered by the Council of North American Student Movements in a conference at Garden City, N. Y., of fifty of their representatives and twenty-five men and women selected as advisers because of their leadership in social thought and action. Over 1,500 groups with 125,000 students in about 1,000 American and Canadian colleges and universities were represented, all of whom have been recruited by the Y. M. C. A., Y. W. C. A. and the Student Volunteer Movement.

It was a heart-to-heart, face-to-face interchange of personal experiences and views, with no non-conducting manuscripts or set speeches intervening. It was the first of its kind, for never before had just these divergently specialized interests been represented in any conference quite so free and frank.

The most surprising unanimity found expression in the session devoted to the woman's movement, especially in recognizing it to be a new incursion of the race consciousness, and not merely the movement of a sex or class.

The theme which most deeply probed heart and conscience was The Church and the Cross in Industry. It drew forth from the depths confession of the personal conviction of the corporate sin.

The discussion of social action for college people brought out the cautiously developing deploy of undergraduates on fields adapted to their limited service. The educational and spiritual value of such contacts and co-operation with real life was abundantly substantiated.

The recommendations summing up the results of the conference for use in work with students are, in brief:

The study of social problems, with the immediate intent of establishing standards of simplicity and morality, overcoming class and racial prejudice, and the promotion of the social spirit through service in college and in the community;

The negotiation with educational authorities for the introduction of social studies and emphasis in the curriculum;

Standardizing personal and public service in legislation, administration and community action;

The study of foreign languages and peoples to fit students to help solve the problems of immigration;

The work in agricultural and normal schools to select and enlist workers for rural communities;

The inspiration for volunteer and pro-

fessional social work by group study, special lectures and co-operation with community work;

The vocational guidance by life-work conferences and personal influence; and

The practical acquaintanceship of student secretaries with the work and methods of home and foreign missionary agencies in religious denominations.

SHANGHAI AND THE OCCIDENT

—By Francis H. McLean

ONE OF THE most occidental of world movements has apparently dropped one seed in the Orient. In the treaty port of Shanghai, China, there is a campaign on foot for the formation of a charity organization society. So far as can be learned this does not involve the first experimentation in the individualization of family problems in an oriental people. Rather only the imported problems of "hobos, beach-combers, chaps who have lost their sailor papers," and the occasional permanent American or English family in temporary difficulties are in the minds of the projectors.

The pressure of such difficulties cannot fail to be diminished after a time, and one queries whether eventually there may not come a possibility of rendering some interpretation in individual family terms of the real social problems of a treaty port at the gates—nay within the gates—of this mighty but still unknown race.

REMEDIAL LOAN SOCIETY FOR DALLAS

Following the plan of the Provident Loan Society of New York and others in the National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, a group of citizens has organized the Provident Loan Society of Dallas. A substantial part of the required capital of \$50,000 has already been subscribed.

As opposed to the extortionate charges made upon small loans by the loan sharks, the Dallas society will charge only what is necessary to pay the cost of operation and a dividend to stockholders not in excess of 6 per cent a year. Any additional profits will be used to reduce the rate of interest upon later loans. In this way eventually a large proportion of the profits will be turned back into the hands of borrowers. For the present at least the society will loan money only upon security of personal property. Later its scope may be extended to include loans upon assignments of wages.

POSTURE LEAGUE

The American Posture League has been incorporated in New York state to make an organized campaign to secure a "correct posture or carriage of the body as of fundamental importance for health and efficiency, a pronounced element of beauty and expression of energy and intelligence." Points of immediate attack are school furniture and seats in cars, theaters and other public places. The president and founder is Jessie H. Bancroft, assistant director of physical training in the public schools of New York city. Associated with her are orthopedic surgeons, physical trainers and educators. Headquarters are at 30 Church street, New York city.

HEALTH

SAVING EYESIGHT: EXHIBIT OF THE MASSACHUSETTS COMMISSION FOR THE BLIND—By HENRY C. GREENE FIELD AGENT FOR CONSERVATION OF EYESIGHT, MASSACHUSETTS COMMISSION FOR THE BLIND

THE CONSERVATION of eyesight exhibit of the Massachusetts Commission for the Blind is on the road. Clean-cut and often popular in form, its propaganda is none the less solidly based. It depicts the methods of intensive case-work, and also embodies the results of laborious research.

To the novice,—and who is not a novice in medical-social work for the preservation of eyesight?—this exhibit brings more than one surprise. The importance of syphilis as a cause of eye disablement, compared with gonorrhoea; the prevalence of possibly tubercular eye disease among children; the amount of blindness from accidents, both industrial and non-industrial, among adults; the preponderance of partial over total blindness; the possibilities of preventing blindness by organized social service, these are a few of its more salient points. The "cash value" of these facts is seldom far to seek.

"What is blindness?" asks the legislator.

"Blindness," answers the man on the street, "blindness is darkness; inability to see even the sun." Likewise say insurance companies, in more technical terms; so their phrase "total and irrecoverable blindness" was guilelessly written into the workmen's compensation law of Massachusetts.

This phrase would deny their ethical rights to great numbers of workmen with eyesight ruined by industry, were it not for facts shown in this exhibit. In graphic form, the exhibit has made it plain that the insurance phrase—a survival of the fittest in the old world of industrial iniquity—covers probably not 6 per cent of these men. But the facts were enough. The law was amended, and now stands as the one American statute granting explicitly to the victims of industry, not only medical care and compensation for time lost and reduced earning capacity, but also compensation for practical blindness, that is, for the reduction of vision to one-tenth of normal.

It would be hard to devise a more promising means of prevention. Under this new law, an eye injury resulting in practical blindness of one eye or both costs the employer, or his insurance company, from \$200 to \$4,000. As the neglect of any eye injury may make it serious, it is obviously to the interest of employers and insurance companies, first to prevent eye injuries, and then to secure prompt and competent treatment for the injuries which still occur. At least one large insurance company has already seen this point; has fixed high

standards of safety, and raised its insurance rates for careless employers.

As industrial injuries account for some 7 per cent of all practical blindness, and as one-half may probably be prevented, the importance of such work is obvious.

Though one employee in a thousand suffers serious eye injury each year, one disease finds still more victims. As the exhibit shows, to the surprise of the uninitiated, this most prevalent of serious eye diseases usually attacks children.



TOTALLY BLIND

Loss of eyesight from an explosion of dynamite in a mine.

Showing itself in raised dots (or phlyctenules) on the transparent cornea, it is christened phlyctenular keratitis. This name throws no light on the nature of the disease. In the patients themselves, however, or in their families, tubercular joints, glands, etc. suggest the probable cause. And medical opinion, both in America and in Germany, tends more and more to confirm the opinion that phlyctenular keratitis, in Dr. de Schweinitz's phrase, probably "represents one of the attenuated forms of ocular tuberculosis."

However this may be, the treatment of phlyctenular keratitis, as the exhibit shows, has given Massachusetts workers a chance for successful team play. With unwholesome food in ill-ventilated tenements, perhaps with ignorant care, children with this disease may suffer relapse after relapse, till their eyes are half blind with scars. Good food and fresh air, with special treatment for

'The Prevention of Blindness and the Instruction of the Blind Child, by George E. de Schweinitz, M.D., Philadelphia, 1912.

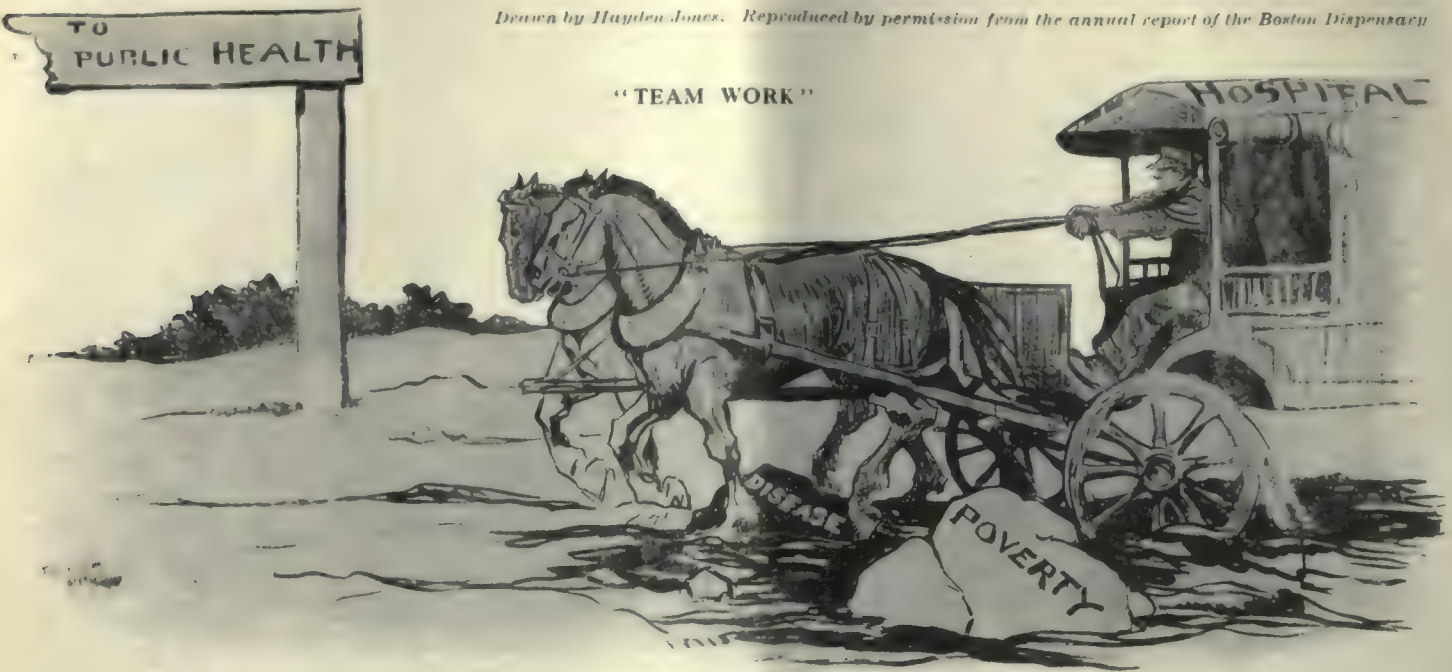
the eyes themselves, are the patient's salvation.

Now, fresh air and good food in happy surroundings are present and to spare at the Blind Babies' Nursery, on a height beside one of the Boston parks. What more enlightened vote then, could the trustees of the Nursery pass than one welcoming these children to share house and table and sunlit playground with the Nursery's blind charges? No sooner said than done. And as the exhibit shows, these little guests of the Nursery also have expert special care, till their eyes are beyond danger, at least of quick relapse. For last year, the Nursery reports: "Twelve such babies have gone back to their homes, not only with well eyes, but with greatly improved general health."

In the pathetic realm of infant blindness the Massachusetts exhibit gives ground for encouragement. In the agitation against ophthalmia neonatorum, or "babies' sore eyes," even medical men have made the statement that this one disease causes from a quarter to a third of all blindness. The Massachusetts figures, however, show such proportions only in schools for the blind; while among the new cases of blindness only about 2 per cent are due to this disease.

As even 2 per cent is still too high a proportion of blindness from this preventable cause, the Massachusetts exhibit illustrates one of the most thorough existing systems for still further reducing it. In half a dozen pictures it tells the story of a baby saved from the risk of life-long darkness: first, it shows us the desolate Boston alley of the baby's birth; next, the Board of Health which demands and, by prosecution, secures the reporting of ophthalmia; then one of the Board's nurses visiting the tenement to examine and report; next, the hospital by a sunny river, to which the baby is transferred; and finally, after the baby's discharge, the nurse visiting the home once more and finding the baby, not in the state of relapse against which she must guard, but clear-eyed and well.

Could a more encouraging contrast be imagined? Yet social service is no panacea for the preservation of eyesight. The results of social-medical work cannot rise above their source in the medical staff. Where the physicians of a clinic tell patients with a syphilitic disease of the eye (for instance, syphilitic iritis) to get general treatment "outside," and make no effort to keep the patient out of the clutches of quacks, the social service staff must work largely in vain. Where medical officers still diagnose glaucoma (which means certain blindness, if long neglected) and fail to have the patient "calendared" for following-up,



Drawn by Hayden Jones. Reproduced by permission from the annual report of the Boston Dispensary

the presence of social service workers in an adjoining room can do little to limit this major cause of blindness. Only where the medical staff is humanely imaginative, alert and closely interrelated with the social service staff, can such lapses give place to really efficient service.

If the percentage of patients improved and cured can be increased 23 per cent in city clinics, by the interlocking of social with modern medical work, what can be done in towns and small cities?

The Massachusetts Commission for the Blind has partly answered the question through its field worker for children. As the exhibit shows, this worker has traveled throughout the commonwealth, advising with the parents and friends of children both blind and threatened with blindness.

For some she has arranged the sightless schooling necessary to lessen their inevitable handicap. For others, born with cataract, she has won the parents' consent to those wearisomely repeated operations by which alone fair sight can be given them. For others, with phlyctenular keratitis, she has secured either expert treatment near home, or a vacation for upbuilding of general health at the Blind Babies' Nursery. For others again, whose inherited disease threatens both general health and eyesight, this worker for the state's children has found a union of constitutional and local treatment.

A map of the commonwealth dotted with red and green, suggests this field worker's achievement for a single year. One hundred and thirty-nine scattered green dots stand for the blind and partly blind children to whom she gave needed educational guidance: seventy-three red dots, in all quarters of the map, represent children for the preservation of whose eyesight she secured expert medical care. Does not this epitome of intensive "case work," in seventy-three red dots, bring the exhibit, after all, to the most satisfying possible close?

For on such a basis of minute and personal labor only can more sweeping mea-

sures of law and administration for the preservation of eyesight be firmly planned and extended.

Throughout the commonwealth all hands join, one may almost say, in the work of saving such children's eyesight. The state Board of Health distributes a preventive free, and urges physicians to report the symptoms of ophthalmia neonatorum, whether of gonorrhoeal or of other origin. Through its twelve district medical inspectors, moreover, it immediately visits every reported case outside of Boston, and advises with the local board of health as to each baby's treatment. The state Board of Charity requires the use of a preventive at every birth occurring in any lying-in hospital. It also requires that the state Board of Health be notified whenever a baby, suffering from this disease, is discharged, and deals with every violation of these hospital rules through a special agent. The Society for the Prevention

of Cruelty to Children prosecutes physicians in all parts of the state, whose negligence and violation of law have resulted in blindness; and the Massachusetts Medical Society has impressed the demand for due care on the profession by admonishing its own delinquent members. By these means, as well as through publicity, standards are being raised toward the point where really expert treatment, with the assistance of at least one trained nurse, will be demanded for every serious case.

"Team work" is the title of the commission's poster which pictures the Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary and the Boston Dispensary as two sturdy horses drawing a wagon-load of children along the straight road to health. These children have all been threatened with at least partial loss of sight from a disease within the tissues of the cornea. Interstitial keratitis, the merely descriptive name of this disease, gives us no hint of its origin which is most frequently congenital syphilis. Interstitial keratitis usually occurs in children between five and fourteen years of age, who suffer from a series of apparently unrelated symptoms. Treated singularly and without reference to their underlying cause, these symptoms make the children "clinic trotters," along a zig-zag path which never leads to health.

As Miss O. M. Lewis, of the Boston Dispensary social service department, has vividly put it, such "spasmodic local treatment is like painting a house with weatherproof paint when the framework even to the sills is rotten." "A little girl of eight years," for example, "appeared at the Eye and Ear Infirmary with interstitial keratitis. The treatment was local (for the eye only). Then followed treatment in twenty-seven different clinics all over the city—nose, throat, lung, children's and surgical, as the various symptoms appeared. Because of the constantly recurring symptoms of interstitial keratitis, she was taken back and forth from one eye clinic to another for about eight months, the eye symp-



A LITTLE "CLINIC TROTTER"

Transferred from clinic rooms to out-of-doors, this little girl is being saved by fresh air and good food as well as treatment, from life long darkness.

toms all the while being correlated with no others."

Without interrupting the care of her eyes, the social service department of the Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary now takes her to the special clinic at the Boston Dispensary, where the fundamental disease can be treated. The social service department of the dispensary joins with that of the Eye and Ear Infirmary in making sure that the child's constitutional and local treatment go hand in hand. The result is "that the improvement in her eyes, ears and general condition is most marked" and that the child "has been saved from partial if not total blindness."

As interstitial keratitis apparently causes fully half as much practical blindness as ophthalmia neonatorum, and many more cases of seriously defective eyesight, this experiment in team work is one of the most promising, as well as one of the newest, in organized work for the preservation of eyesight.

One of the many practical ways in which social service departments reduce this medical waste is by facilitating the purchase of glasses. The occasional stupid or obstinate opposition of parents must, of course, be dissolved in persuasion, or even broken by the "neglect law" which, in Massachusetts, requires parents to furnish their children with eye-glasses when needed.

But far more frequent than parental opposition is that combination of carelessness and poverty which leads so many parents indefinitely to postpone buying the glasses prescribed for their children. One-third, as the exhibit shows, is no mere estimate but actual waste in prescriptions for eyeglasses at an important Boston clinic. To reduce this waste and to provide school children with the glasses which so many of them need, the social service department of the Massachusetts Charitable Eye and Ear Infirmary maintains a system of loans, repaid by instalments. The exhibit shows the results of 157 such loans to needy families; no single child was deprived of glasses because of the parents' poverty, only 21 per cent of the parents could pay nothing, and 64 per cent repaid in full, in small sums weekly.

By social service follow-up work, as the exhibit also shows, the waste in eye-glass prescriptions at the Boston Dispensary has been reduced one-third in three years. And more recently, it is pleasant to note, the waste has been further reduced to 4 per cent, with prospects tending toward zero.

Still more significant in the exhibit are the Boston Dispensary figures for certain acute eye diseases. A diagram compares the numbers of single visits, (useless for the diseases in question) and the plural visits, three years ago and today. The physician in each case was the same, the place the same, the season the same; follow-up activities by a social service worker are the only new factor. The single visits have been cut down from 68 per cent. to 48 per cent; the plural visits have correspondingly increased. What is more, the results of treatment, in patients improved and cured, have risen from 63 to 86 per cent.

PURIFYING WATER FOR CITY BATHING POOLS

W. A. MANHEIMER, whose article on ceremonial baths in a recent number of *THE SURVEY* (April 18) called our attention to the danger from these supposedly cleansing institutions, has been studying also the water of New York's outdoor floating baths. The city maintains during the summer about fifteen free floating baths. These are stationed at docks as far from sewer outlets as feasible, but that may be not further than 500 feet or even less.

Mr. Manheimer has often found particles of fecal matter from the sewers floating in the water and could always find as many as 100 colon bacilli to the cubic centimeter of water, while the general bacterial count ran up to half a million or a million. Yet these free baths are greatly patronized by the public, children as well as adults.

The Metropolitan Sewage Commission recognizes the unsanitary condition of these baths and has recommended that they be abolished, but it would be hard to do this without providing a substitute. The suggestion that the city remodel them into baths, using Croton water, involves an enormous expense. Mr. Manheimer recommends that the river water be used but the baths made water tight and the water pumped through filters. Gross impurities being thus removed, bleaching powder, chloride of lime, could be added to destroy bacteria. It is a pity, however, to put so much money into baths which can be used only a few months in the year; so Mr. Manheimer suggests that the pools be constructed at the ends of recreation piers and eventually roofed over and warmed, in order that they could be used in winter as well. There seems to be a preference on the part of bathers for salt water, and San Francisco has shown that sea water can be effectively disinfected by chloride of lime. A recent report of the U. S. Public Health Service tells us that the big swimming pools of salt water in that city are now being disinfected by this method. It is also in use in many big bathing pools of fresh water in colleges and gymnasia. The most interesting instance of its use in fresh water is said to be the disinfection of "Bubbly Creek." This is an unspeakably foul, polluted stream which drains part of the stockyards of Chicago, but which for much of the year has practically no current. Chloride of lime in the proportion of 45 pounds to a million gallons of water is said to have made this water even more germ-free than the drinking water used in Chicago.

A STATISTICAL STUDY OF MEASLES

MEASLES has not generally been "taken seriously." Indeed, a certain health officer is quoted as recommending that strong, healthy children, under careful control, should contract measles "to escape the malignancy of the disease in adult age."

Yet according to a recent study by Dr. F. S. Crum, of the Prudential In-

surance Company, 1 per cent of all deaths may be traced to measles, and 1 to 6 per cent of all cases of measles are fatal. It chooses its victims especially from children under ten years of age, but occasionally attacks an adult. It shows no preference of sex, locality, race or climate, but since the time when any records were kept of causes of death, "has levied a heavy toll on the populations of civilized countries. . . ."

There are, says Dr. Crum, "authentic records of great epidemics of measles in England and Scotland from the early part of the seventeenth century; and after Sydenham's description of the London epidemics of 1670 and 1674, there remains no doubt of the more or less continuous and wide havoc wrought in Great Britain and Europe by this particular form of eruptive fever. Epidemics of measles were frequent, widespread and fatal throughout the eighteenth and the nineteenth century."

Some findings of Dr. Crum's investigation are recorded in the *American Journal of Public Health* for April and the report is supplemented by charts. One of these charts shows a century of decennial averages of deaths from measles. Among children under ten years, the highest rate occurred in the decade 1882-1892; the lowest, in that of 1902-1912. Yet, it is stated, measles is now more widely diffused, even in rural districts, than in the fifties and sixties of the nineteenth century. Records from fifteen American cities show a fairly definite periodicity in epidemics of measles, these recurring apparently at intervals of from three to five years. Morbidity has been greatest during the spring months, although the percentage rises again in November.

One chart, based upon conditions in Glasgow contains an especially significant message for many a city of any land. In the Scottish city a close relation was found between attack-rates and housing conditions. Where the children belonged to families living in one-room tenements, the rate was ten times as high as where the families lived in three or four rooms or more.

Some reasons for the present inadequate sanitary control of measles which Dr. Crum mentions are, our incomplete knowledge of the virus, the infectivity period previous to eruptive appearance, general opinion of the harmlessness of measles, and its wide diffusion and high contagiousness. The best control will result from co-operation between parents and officials of schools and health departments. Dr. Crum emphasizes the need of overcoming ignorance and of pointing out the frequent complications and after effects of measles.

WITH BLUE PENCIL

A correction is needed, we learn, in our note which accompanied the interesting chart reproduced in *THE SURVEY* for April 18, page 79.

This chart was prepared by the Boston (not Massachusetts) Association for the Relief and Control of Tuberculosis to show the decrease of tuberculosis in Boston,—not as stated, in Massachusetts.



Editorials

EDWARD T. DEVINE
JANE ADDAMS
GRAHAM TAYLOR
Associate Editors

PAUL U. KELLOGG
Editor

THE Washington alley bill—designed to eliminate one-tenth of the alley dwellings in the capital annually during the next ten years—is now receiving serious attention from Congress. The vigorous educational campaign carried on by local, civic and social organizations has made senators and representatives look some disagreeable facts in the face until they are recognizing what the facts mean. But there is serious danger that an easy way to get a superficial improvement may be adopted instead of the more difficult way that leads to permanent improvement.

The alley bill provides for converting alleys into minor streets which will furnish suitable sites for small houses. This presents certain legal and financial difficulties, especially in Washington where the cost of improvements is usually divided between the district and the national governments. Questions asked by congressmen at the public hearings on the bill indicated a desire to side-step these difficulties. The burden of these questions was: Why not simply forbid owners to permit the use of alley buildings for dwelling purposes? Then it would be up to the owners to find another use for these structures while the governments, local and national, would escape all trouble.

There could be no better illustration of short-sighted legislation than is foreshadowed in this proposal. It concerns itself solely with the single eye-sore which has been forced upon public attention and calmly disregards all that experience might teach as to the inevitable results of such inadequate legislation.

Most of Washington's inhabited alleys run through unusually large blocks. This means that the lots are deep. The alley dwellings have furnished the owners a means of utilizing the rear ends of these deep lots. A simple prohibition will force the owners to seek some other means of utilizing their land, and the inevitable result will be the erection of deep tenement and apartment houses extending far back from the street. So in future Washington will be in even worse condition than at present.

If, however, the alleys are converted into minor streets the owners will cut the deep lots in two, with two frontages, and Washington will remain, what we want all our cities to be, a city of single family houses.

SPRING AND THE RURAL SOCIAL WORKER

FRED EASTMAN

SPRING sometimes means to the rural social worker mud and sleet and snow and the grippe, meetings poorly attended or called off entirely, scarcity of money, and aggravated distress among the poor and unemployed. Heaven knows this spring had plenty of all these in the northern states!

But this spring brings with it also a promise so great in importance to the rural worker that snow and mud and grippe are forgotten. It is this: A social consciousness is awakening in country villages. It is expressing itself in the formation of neighborhood, community and taxpayers' associations in hundreds of valleys where a few years ago neighbors lived side by side, each boasting his independence of the others. Hardly a newspaper but records this spring among its rural notes the fact that farmers and villagers of this community and that have been getting together. They are coming at last to see that to be the best sort of citizens they must not only be producers but co-operative producers; they are waking to the fact that the community's business is everybody's business and should be conducted in a business-like way.

In the vicinity of New York no less than twenty of these organizations are sprouting. Some of them like the community club near Suffern are in the open country stimulating better farming and better transportation facilities and better schools. Others like the Roslyn and Huntington associations are devoting themselves to the physical and social welfare of villages. Doubtless some of these organizations beginning under weak leadership, too timid to tackle anything larger than the task of picking up papers, will be nipped in the bud by spring frosts. But the majority have a prospect for usefulness almost unlimited.

What one of these organizations can do in a community is exemplified by the Matinecock Neighborhood Association at Locust Valley, N. Y. After six years of work this association can now look back upon a list of tangible results: A road macadamized largely at the expense of the association; a self-supporting library of 2,000 volumes with a monthly circulation of more than 400, and \$600 in the treasury; kindergarten, sewing, cooking, music

and manual training classes introduced into the public school; railroad station grounds beautified and cared for, gardens planted around the homes of school children; an anti-mosquito campaign each year, draining or flooding swamps and stagnant pools; a bathing beach and cottage leased for the people of this community, and the town persuaded to vote \$10,000 for a bathing pavilion; a recreation department founded which today furnishes recreation to the community and has a membership of seventy young men; a band of twenty members; an employment department; a permanent office near the railroad station under the charge of the secretary and a stenographer; the church revived and started on a new lease of life; a social survey; the music of the community consolidated under a music secretary; a successful campaign for \$24,000 for a neighborhood house completed and the Neighborhood Building built by a co-operative method of construction with a large amount of volunteer labor.

Doubtless other organizations have done as well and better. Doubtless, too, organizations just started will have to battle for their right to survive. But an awakened social consciousness will not take long to prove its right to existence. If the promise of the spring is fulfilled a happier day is dawning for life in the American village and countryside.

HOW WE KNOW IT'S SPRING IN A CITY NEIGHBORHOOD

OBSERVATIONS BY THE RESIDENTS OF SOUTH END HOUSE, BOSTON,
BROUGHT TOGETHER BY
ROBERT A. WOODS

HOW can one think of spring without its music, its pageantry, its upward swell of life? How few and how tantalizing seem to be the ways in which it can express itself in the tenement streets. The pussy willows and sprouting branches in the school room may give the children some faint intimations of the world of nature outside. But the scent of a long yellow catkin in the soft green of a willow stem is not one of the possessions of a city child. Can anything make up for it? His instinctive zeal for making good his losses is surely not absent. What the rushing, emancipated brook beside the woods would mean to him is shown by his delight in the muddy pool of water which has been dammed up by some chance excavation work in the street.

Nature in captivity begins to appear in the early budding of the pathetic trees in the back yards, among whose dust-begrimed branches the sparrows, in feathers soiled by the touch of their surroundings, are foolishly making their nests just where boys' hunting instincts will most quickly discover them. The wagons exposing potted plants for sale bring to some of the homes a ray of the gayety of the season, and the little fenced-in parks begin to draw people to catch some of the fragrance of the new life in the ground and see something of the new green shoots among the grass. Italian women have been known to bring

back joyously some dandelion greens from such a little country.

The children are all life and motion, though they are so completely deprived of the materials and background which is their birthright for the celebration of the season. Marbles is for every city boy the first pragmatic mark of spring; somehow to an old timer the game in many of its variations seems to have lost as a test of skill and precision, but to have gained much in the peaceful spirit with which it is conducted. Tops are not spun with the intensity of purpose which once characterized this pursuit; and hopscotch is a decidedly more languid matter. On the other hand, rope is skipped with a variety of figure which befits a more progressive epoch; and the football season is long anticipated, with a bit of rubber hose leaned against the curbstone to serve in place of the pigskin. In odd corners, younger children are found reviving some of the ancient ditties, with action to match, which have come down by child lip tradition all the way from Sanscrit days. The sound of the hurdy-gurdy is again heard in the land, and a new instalment of recruits for the dances of 1920—whatever they may prove to be—are striking their first paces.

The spirit of expansion is abroad. Spring does not bring fulfilment in school to boys whose hearts are of the season. Truancy in spring has an atmosphere of reality, almost of dignity, about it. The evil of such doing is now peculiarly far from the thoughts of the young offenders. "Committing reverie" they are—a reverie caused by the touch of the year's awakening, and the wonder of it; and they go about with a wistful expectation that something more of this fresh wonder will shine out in the brick-lined streets.

The street occupations are partly transformed. The cries of the city are again in our ears. After a dreary and anxious period of waiting, the solicitor of rags and bottles enters into his season,—his droning, persistent appeals, with the curious rising inflection, calling to mind the old-established ethical controversy as to the true logical relations existing between poverty and drink. The small peddler begins to think of changing coal for ice as a medium. The season for hucksters is still somewhat distant, though the Italian peddler of oranges and bananas becomes more confident as he finds a tendency among the children to come nearer to nature by giving his wares some consideration as against candy and gum. The demand for cucumber and lime pickles at the little store near the girls' school reaches its height; and will some divining interpreter please tell us why girls have such a strange fondness? A new building enterprise here and there creates a much observed continuous performance to absorb the leisured in the contagion of a work atmosphere.

There is a general sense that the rough outdoor labor performed by so many of the men, precarious at best during the long winter, is now beginning to present a favorable outlook. More teamsters begin to find employment. Building laborers become involved in long contract jobs.

Extra city men are called into service repairing or cleaning the streets. Even those whose immediate outlook shows no improvement catch the spirit of the season. Another winter has at least been lived through, and there is hope, if not prospect, of better things.

Let anyone who does not yet have this feeling, join the much enlarged procession of those who now begin to walk to their work. The human organism itself has an inward sappy feeling which induces to striding activity in the quickening, comforting sun and air. Did anyone ever urge in favor of beginning work early that it compels a few city people to retain the values of such acquaintance with the first two hours of a spring morning as even the city's version of it can set forth?

The immemorial tradition that the possibilities of change for the better in home environment should occupy the thoughts of the housewife, is everywhere observed according to one's means and lights. There now begins to be some certainty that windows will be opened. The settled, heavy sense of confinement is about to be sloughed off. The dust and impediments of the hibernating period now seem really out of place and out of the question. A fine feeling of superiority in respect of cleanliness expresses itself in the attitude of those who make a good start and a strong finish. A bustling determined little Jewish woman on her knees cleansing paint, looks up with a promise of real hospitality during the religious holidays, to say, "It was a wise God who gave us the law to do this once a year. I learn that from my near neighbors what do not do so." An Irish woman apologizes because she could not go shopping, make Easter clothes, and clean up, all at the same time.

PERHAPS the order in which these duties are placed may suggest a difference in religious background of two races—one finding its sanctions in the home; the other, in the more formal conventicle with its more varied and more exceptional associations. In either case, the spiritual meaning of the clean and bright exterior of habitat and habiliment surely lies deep in every vernal impulse. Happily this resulting ethical force often brings the neighbor to a spirit of effective rebellion. Many a moving is resorted to as an alternative preferable to the hopeless labor of cleaning up. Otherwise, landlords are appealed to with unusual determination, or the citizen for once in a way asserts himself, as against nameless risks, in a demand upon the Board of Health.

The general bursting of winter's bonds leads to a quickening of established acquaintance, the opening of fresh relations with old neighbors and new, and a considerable unconscious growth of common interests. Outdoor "ridding up" activities, and doorstep parties on warmer days, widen the scope of neighborly intercourse. They add to the subject matter of neighborhood gossip, while giving it a genial touch. A readiness not only to live but to let live is in the air. Yet increased contact brings also a certain added sense of re-

sponsibility; and some of the great problems of neighborly responsibility rise to a new height in the spring. Strangers from over the sea come in much larger numbers, and the inveterate human tradition that a stranger is an enemy goes on the wings of rumor up and down the streets. The impetuous stirrings of the power of life in the veins of youth and maiden bring into many narrow homes a higher pitch of helpless anxiety, as the seclusion which courtship requires—impossible in the winter's crowding—is found after nightfall in the shadows of deserted factory streets.

LIFE is most like a battle in winter, and winter in a tenement neighborhood seems often to exhaust the grimness of the figures. Spring seems to bring the natural order out as an ally, opening up a new vision of things possible in the quality of life, a new sense of equalness to moral responsibilities. The settlement nurse says that she finds it easier to elicit in wives and even in husbands a sense of really personal interest and care regarding expected babies. It is perhaps as the inspirer of a fine curiosity, and of the impetus for demanding life, that our people, with only high-walled grooves in which to move back and forth, and living too closely within for either society or privacy—chiefly miss the glory of unfolding nature in the open country. Le Gallienne's saying that "one branch of hawthorn against the spring sky promises more than all the summers of time can pay" suggests that there is a certain intoxication in the fullness of such a privilege. Its results, however, are the measure by which human nature will always estimate its not-to-be-denied destiny.

It flashes and burns into the mind an irrevocable sense of the inadequacy of the whole physical setting of life in our neighborhood, of the precarious monotony of its labor, of the sordid allurements which beset its pleasures. Spring is the season in which most of the world's revolutions have begun. It should bring to all of us in our neighborhoods in our different degrees a clean and high resolve that uncompromisingly, albeit patiently, whatever of the old order of our thought and work may need to be overturned, we will strive that all may have light and air and space, a due supply of material goods through worthy labor, and that true joy of life which is one of the chiefest means of grace.

But we surely miss the deepest import of what the spirit of this humble commune has to tell us if, in our zeal for measures and systems, we make little of the wonder and the power of the life that contrives to be lived even now with most of the horizon shut off. Only as the whole being of each person at the doorstep or on the corner is drawn out to its full present limits, only as it is by its own choice and conviction vitally inwrought into all our social enterprises and aspirations, shall we move toward the new spiritual order of neighborhood, city, nation,—shall we as a people come to have a deep-lying renascent energy, like that of nature to displace with verdure all the husks of a former season.

Communications

JUSTICE AND MERCY

TO THE EDITOR: In each one of the past seventy years I have spent some of my time at factory work. And now, at seventy-eight years of age, as, somewhat aloof from the activities of life, I read *THE SURVEY*, and ponder, I experience much satisfaction. It gives me evidence of the "newer compassion" of which Jane Addams speaks; also of the truth of her statement "that a new humanitarianism has arisen" and that, as it seems to me, there are some, at least, who hold that justice and mercy are inseparable.

AMOS SHEPARD.

Plantsville, Conn.

PEACH BLOOM

TO THE EDITOR: In *THE SURVEY* for March 28 there appeared a very severe criticism of Peach Bloom, a drama by Northrop Morse. Some weeks ago I read this play with much interest and hoped *THE SURVEY* would recommend it to its readers. In your review, the moral lessons, well worked out by the author, are entirely passed over, namely, the danger of ignorance for young girls and the difficulty in getting white slavers prosecuted.

Should not an organ, actively engaged in the protection of girls interest its readers in so valuable a contribution to the cause as Peach Bloom?

HAZEL PIERCE HUICKS.

Coyote, California.

ILLINOIS WOMEN VOTERS

TO THE EDITOR: As an old subscriber to *THE SURVEY* my name was on your books when *Charities* was a four-page leaflet—I beg to protest against Graham Taylor's article on Illinois Women at the Polls in your issue for April 18.

There are different deductions drawn from those elections by people quite as well informed and as conscientious as Mr. Taylor; and it would seem more worthy of the dignified standing of *THE SURVEY* either to give fair-play expression to the opinions on both sides, or else to present a perfectly neutral statement of the bare facts of the case.

GRACE NICOLL.

New York.

CHICAGO'S GARBAGE

TO THE EDITOR: I have just noticed in your issue of March 21, the statement in your article on the Chicago garbage situation: "The city resorted to the primitive plan of dumping the garbage in clay holes, the work being supervised by the Department of Health."

This gives an entirely erroneous impression, since the natural impression

is that the garbage was merely dumped in excavations and left exposed therein.

The facts are quite otherwise. A small part of the untreated garbage, that from sections so located as to preclude other treatment for the time, was mixed with ashes and rubbish, deposited in excavations, and covered. About twenty-five tons per day were destroyed in the incinerator at the Bridewell. The remainder, varying from 180 to 310 tons per day, has been handled at the temporary disposal station on the North Branch, just south of Grace street.

This plant was inspected not long ago by three well-known sanitary engineers, and very strongly commended, both for the efficiency of its results and the economy of its operation, the cost per ton disposed of being \$1.49.

G. B. YOUNG.

[Commissioner of Health.]

Chicago.

"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"

TO THE EDITOR: May I add my own to the many commendations which you must have received for the publication of "Beauty for Ashes." My wife has read the instalments thus far published to her group of Camp Fire Girls, and it has held them spellbound.

They do a good deal of reading together and I feel that it is an occasion for encouragement that the things which have influenced them most thus far have been Mary Antin's *The Promised Land* and Mrs. Bacon's "Beauty for Ashes."

The next generation promises to afford a good type of Christianity if we can catch them young.

Rev. WALTER C. JONES.

Waitsburg, Wash.

SOCIAL INSURANCE, PENSIONS, AND POOR RELIEF

TO THE EDITOR: It is essential to clear thinking on the problems of social insurance to distinguish that method of providing against personal disaster from a pension system, and this again from charity. The principle of insurance is entirely familiar. Men and women whose income, wage or salary is dependent upon their own physical or mental ability, may provide for periods of incapacity, due to sickness, accident, unemployment or old age, by making regular payments during the years of normal earnings into a common fund, with the contractual right to draw upon that fund when overtaken by incapacity.

This method of distributing risks has been adopted not only by insurance companies with a view to absorbing a

profitable proportion of the premiums paid in, but by trade unions and friendly societies of all degrees of solvency. Under social insurance, the state or the community comes to the aid of wage-earners whose revenue is insufficient for adequate insurance by contributing a considerable proportion of the premium payments and, in case private companies are permitted to negotiate the policies, by requiring adequate financial safeguards.

How thoroughly beneficent social insurance may be in providing against industrial disaster is being proved by the British system of insurance against unemployment. Where charity and public works, conscientiously and wisely administered, had only aggravated the evil, state-aided insurance is serving to stimulate foresight on the part of employers, employes, and the associated trade unions. Old age is a universal incapacity and one that may endure for years, and therefore an adequate insurance premium may be justly thought beyond the reach of the low-paid workman. Nevertheless old age insurance is required of the wage-earners of Germany, and Sweden is this year inaugurating a universal requirement. Denmark, on the other hand, has for many years provided, out of state and communal grants, pensions for such of her superannuated wage earners as are deemed worthy of such honor. Those deemed unworthy are cared for in appropriate institutions. The Danish system affords sharp contrast to the British old age pensions which are granted with slight regard to the previous record of the applicant. One is fain to ask, What is the difference between an old age pension so administered and out-door relief?

In general usage, a pension is granted for honorable service. Pensions are so granted to employees by business corporations, such as the Pennsylvania Railroad, and by city governments to superannuated members of the police force and to teachers who have served a long term in the public schools. The original design of our Civil War pensions was ignored when the requisite of honorable service was dropped and a pension came to be allowed to any man who had worn the colors, no matter what his record.

Army and police pensions are intended to attract recruits to an extra-hazardous service, teachers pensions and the pensions accorded to government employes in most European countries serve as offset to inadequate salaries. The Carnegie pension for college professors was offered in the hope of inducing able men and women to enter upon a poorly paid profession as a life work. The proposition to make such pensions contributory, if carried into effect, would tend to frustrate the original design. To confound a pension system with social insurance or with poor relief is to minimize the effectiveness of this admirable method of rewarding prolonged service.

The ultimate test of the wisdom of the various forms of public provision for destitute old age must be, not merely the comfort and gratification of the indi-

vidual concerned, but the influence on the moral fibre of the community. Insurance necessitates regular earnings and must eventually contribute to an advance of the wage scale wherever it is generally practised. Thrift is an old fashioned virtue, but it is still an essential element in race efficiency.

In criticising my account of the operation of the British old-age pension act in *THE SURVEY* of February 28 (p. 672), Dr. Rubinow confounds thrift with parsimony. Thrift is not merely "getting along without things which we need," but rather making the best use of all we can earn. Provision for old age is a need which, as Dr. Rubinow suggests, a young man does not keenly feel, and on this psychological fact rests the argument for compulsory insurance. A pension system, on the other hand, if it is to serve its highest purpose, must emphasize character, another national asset we cannot afford to ignore.

The honorable status of the Danish old-age pensioner contributes in no slight measure to the industrial energy of that remarkably efficient little commonwealth. As for the old men and women whose wages have been insufficient for insurance and whose life will not warrant the award of a pension, they will not be "permitted to starve or freeze on the streets," as Dr. Rubinow seems to fear.

There are public and private institutions for every form of mental and physical incapacity, there are poor houses for the incorrigibles and outdoor relief for the old men and women whose presence in the community contains no menace to health or morals. The prime necessity of public benevolence is the scientific classification of the persons to be benefitted, so that each may be assigned the remedy appropriate to his need. This is accomplished in Denmark and in certain poor law districts of England.

The promoters of the recent legislation in Spain made a careful study of the old-age pension system of Great Britain, compulsory insurance in Germany, and voluntary insurance against old age as then operated in France, Italy and Belgium and came to the conclusion that the Belgian system was best adapted to Spanish conditions. National conditions should be taken into account, not only in drafting social legislation but in estimating results.

The fifty thousand persons already insured under the *Instituto Nacional de Prevision* represents a remarkable victory over the complete ignorance of the first principles of insurance and the ingrained suspicion of the motives of officialdom characteristic of the Spanish workmen. That which is really admirable in the provisions of the Spanish law and its administration by the *Instituto Nacional* is the ingenious campaign of education among wage-earners and the readiness with which business corporations have agreed to co-operate with their employes and the state in this endeavor to mitigate the terrors of old age.

KATHARINE COMAN.

London, England.

JOTTINGS

BALTIMORE 1915

Baltimore is making an earnest effort to secure the 1915 session of the National Conference of Charities and Correction. Already more than the amount of money required by the conference has been raised by subscription. Baltimore has not entertained this conference since 1890 and a meeting has not been held on the Atlantic seaboard since 1911.

PHILADELPHIA PIGS

The Philadelphia pigs—of the four-footed variety—are squealing again. The judges have handed down their decision sustaining the city in its contention that stacks of pig manure in the rear of dwellings constitute a nuisance. Although the Philadelphia Live Stock Association is appealing from the decision, the Bureau of Health is serving ten days' eviction notices on batches of pigs. A few hundred more will have been driven out before the judges can hear the appeal. If the appeal is granted the pigs will have another reprieve. *THE SURVEY* in its issue for March 14 reported too many pigs in Philadelphia. There are only about 20,000 instead of 200,000.

RURAL VISITING NURSE

The first rural visiting nurse in Pennsylvania is claimed by Muncy, a town of 2,000 in a farming and hill country. This activity was promoted by the Pennsylvania Rural Progress Association; the original \$150 was contributed by the

state Y. W. C. A., \$350 was given by two local manufacturers, and the remainder raised among citizens of the region. The nurse has been at work now eight months, and aided by the cordial co-operation of the doctors is already a *sine qua non*.

INTERNATIONAL CONGRESS

The next (Sixth) International Congress on Social Work and Service is to be held in London the week ending June 5, 1915 at the University of London, South Kensington. The questions to be discussed at full meetings are:

The influence which, in accordance with modern ideas, thrift and providence should exercise in questions of assistance. General reporter, M. Van Overberg of Brussels.

International provision for the assistance of deserted or morally abandoned children. General reporter, M. Ferdinand-Dreyfus of Paris.

The assistance of families of prisoners and extradited persons. General reporter to be selected in Germany.

The care and control of mentally defective persons, other than certified lunatics. General reporter, Sir Bryan Donkin.

All questions but the last, which was the choice of the British committee, were selected by the international committee. At sectional meetings the following subjects will be submitted:

The reciprocal influence of state insurance schemes and the provision and management of hospitals.

The relation of the municipality to public and private assistance.

Public subsidy and the housing of the working class.

The organization and administration of the work of school care committees.

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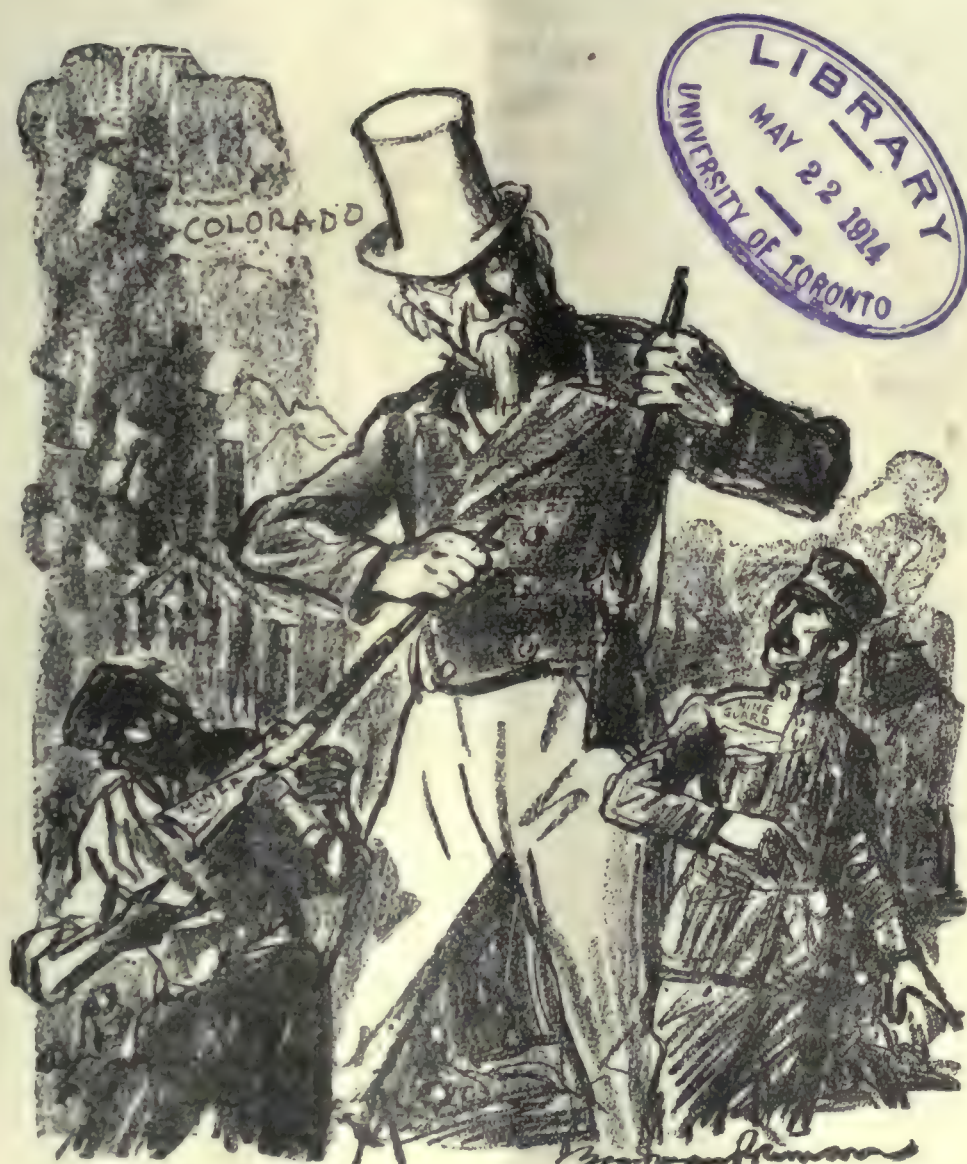
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THE SURVEY



Boardman Robinson in N. Y. Tribune

WILL DISARMING THEM BOTH BRING PEACE?

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New York

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Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 7

Contents

May 16, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

RESULTS OF AN 8-HOUR LAW FOR WORKING CHILDREN	189
LABOR EXCHANGES FOR CINCINNATI HANDICAPPED	189
PURE MILK ORDINANCE PASSED IN ST. LOUIS	190
EXHIBIT OF BETTER INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS	190
COMMISSION ON SOUTHERN RACE QUESTIONS	190
DELEGATES TO LONDON CONFERENCE ON THE BLIND	191
KENTUCKY'S PROGRESSIVE NEW CHILD LABOR LAW	191
FIRST CHAIR OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE	191
A MEMORIAL LIBRARY THE CENTER FOR REJUVENATING A COUNTRY TOWN	192
EAST SIDE STREET TYPES IN COLOR AND CLAY, Mary L. Chamberlain	193

THE CHILDREN, A Poem	Roy Temple House	189
----------------------	------------------	-----

INDUSTRY

"TRAPPER" BOYS AMONG THE DEAD IN WEST VIRGINIA MINE	Edward N. Clopper	194
DIRECTING THE WORK LIFE OF ENGLISH CHILDREN	Olga S. Halsey	195

EDUCATION

TEACHING CITIZENSHIP TO BOYS OF FIFTEEN NATIONALITIES	Jay O. Warner	197
PROFESSOR DEWEY'S REPORT ON THE FAIRHOPE EXPERIMENT IN ORGANIC EDUCATION		199

BOOK REVIEWS		200
--------------	--	-----

EDITORIALS		203
------------	--	-----

THE JUNIOR REPUBLIC IDEA	Henry W. Thurston	203
WASHINGTON ALLEYS: A PROPHECY FULFILLED		204
WHEN PEACE COMES TO COLORADO	John A. Fitch	205

COMMUNICATIONS		207
----------------	--	-----

JOTTINGS		208
----------	--	-----

Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents.

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The GIST of IT—

FOR a second time the National Conference of Charities and Correction has elected a woman as president—Mary Willcox Glenn. John A. Ryan, professor of economics at St. Paul Seminary, was elected first vice-president. Mrs. Glenn is a member of the executive committee of the New York Charity Organization Society, and is chairman of the Clinton District Committee. As Mary Willcox Brown, Mrs. Glenn was before her marriage secretary of the Henry Watson Aid Society and of the Charity Organization Society of Baltimore. She is the author of a book entitled *Thrift*. The conference will meet in Baltimore in 1915.

DECLARING that they can better aid the Colorado strikers by remaining at work, thus insuring them financial assistance, the special committee of the international executive board of the United Mine Workers of America voted May 8 against a general strike. They added that if conditions in Colorado do not improve they may change their minds, and they called upon the membership everywhere to hold itself in readiness.

MEANWHILE disarmament alone will not bring peace, says John A. Fitch. That will come only when there is protection to liberty to enjoy the fruits of toil. Page 205.

THE telegraph editors' interest in Mexico and Colorado kept many people from realizing that 180 coal miners were blown to death in West Virginia a fortnight ago. Five of them were boys, for West Virginia allows its fourteen-year-olds to work in the mines. Page 194.

ST. LOUIS is to have clean milk. Page 190.

THE point of attack of the University Commission on Southern Race Questions. Page 190.

THE village of X—lacked initiative and leadership. How a memorial library brought both. Page 192.

EAST SIDE street types as young East Side artists see them. Page 193.

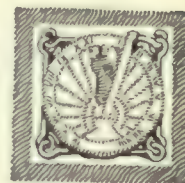
WHEN Andrew Jackson was president and friction matches had just been invented, six years after the first railroad and forty-two years before the first manual training school was started in Boston, David Lyman introduced "learning by doing" in Hawaii. The school he founded is to-day teaching citizenship to boys of fifteen nationalities. Page 197.

A FEW years ago three-tenths of the applicants to distress committees in England were under thirty. Many of these were recruited from the ranks of blind alley boy workers, who risked "useless at twenty-five" for their industrial epitaph. To-day the labor exchanges are diverting them into vocational thoroughfares open at both ends. Page 195.

SEVEN months' tests of the 8-hour day for children in Massachusetts. Page 189.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



RESULTS OF AN 8-HOUR LAW FOR WORKING CHILDREN

LAST YEAR Massachusetts gave to boys and girls under sixteen the eight-hour day already secured by most adult public employes and skilled adult workmen and by these young workers in sixteen other states. The law was enacted after two years of deliberation which brought out all conceivable arguments on both sides.

The strongest point made by the opposition was that the children would not receive the benefits of the law because they would be discharged—they would be driven into idleness and crime and their families would suffer from the loss of their wages. The law has had seven months' test. Of the 30,000 children under 16 at work before it went into effect, 28,000 were at work in December, 1913, as shown by the statistics of employment certificates issued. Most of this readjustment to eight-hour schedules had been completed in October.

Reports from attendance officers throughout the state show that there has been no increase in idleness and crime and that the few children displaced have returned to school as the law requires.

To determine if there had been an increase in family hardship, the Board of Labor and Industries sent an inquiry to all public and private charitable agencies in the state. They report only five cases where permanent aid had been necessary and eleven cases where temporary aid was necessary.

Investigations made by the Massachusetts Child Labor Committee, of which Richard K. Conant is secretary, show that under the eight-hour law children have more time to play, to read and to rest. The stories of children told to the committee's investigators, are interesting evidence:

Gene —, age 15; interviewed September 30, 1913; hours 6.45 to 3.45. "Had you rather work ten hours than eight?" he was asked. "Oh! no, ten hours is too long, it seems as though I never see the afternoon go by. Am so glad to get out early in the afternoon

and get a chance to play out of doors."

Francis —, age 15, interviewed September 24, 1913; earns \$6.50; hours 8 to 12 and 1.30 to 5.30. Francis was discharged from the — mill on September 3. The same day he obtained work in the — mill, his present position. He earned \$7.70 previously as a back boy but likes his present work as battery boy much better. He likes the new hours and does not mind having less pay. Francis was seen playing ball at 1 o'clock. He was enjoying his nooning playing with some of the school boys. The boy who "spells him off" works from 7 to 11 and 1 to 5. Eight or nine other boys and girls under sixteen work in the same room with him.

Occasionally children were found who said that they preferred the extra pay and were willing to work ten hours for it, but fully three-fourths of those interviewed told stories like the above.

The committee believes that the law has worked as well as could be hoped and that it has accomplished just what was intended—lightening the burden of over 20,000 children.

THE CHILDREN

ROY TEMPLE HOUSE

A Gascon village and the Civil Wars.

The hostile vanguards, marching east and west,

*Come flat together in the market-place
And lift their guns in concert. But
the square*

*Is black with little eager Gascon heads
Of children busy at their games. A
pause—*

*Then some one stirs, and cries the
word for all;*

*"Tiratz lus drollés" Get the children
out!"*

*A noble speech. But is it always so?
Our air is full of poisoned, flying
shafts*

*That kill more surely than French
musket-balls—*

*Of hate and malice, and black trickery
And sweet temptations that grow foul
as death.*

*It cannot be that we have less of heart
Than that old bitter partisan, who
stayed*

*His comrades' hand and braved his
foes', to cry*

*"Tiratz lus drollés" Get the children
out!"*

LABOR EXCHANGES FOR CINCINNATI HANDICAPPED

A CO-OPERATIVE ATTEMPT to aid the handicapped has been undertaken by the state of Ohio, the city of Cincinnati and private organizations. A department for them has been established in the State-City Labor Exchange, the new name with which the Ohio Industrial Commission has dubbed its old free employment agencies.

The commission thinks there is sometimes something in a name, especially when a new name signifies a departure from the inefficiency marking the old employment bureaus, to long-headed plans for finding jobs.

In harmony with its policy of joining forces with the municipalities wherein employment agencies are located, the commission has placed its local labor office in the City Hall, combined it with the city employment bureau, and given the superintendent of charities and correction supervision over it. Following a second policy of emphasizing those features of particular interest to each community, a division for the handicapped has been added. A vocational guidance bureau, under private auspices, is to be added also.

The department for the handicapped brings to fruition efforts of the Hospital Social Service Commission extending over a year. In order to focus public attention upon the problem, a survey was made of the three thousand handicapped persons of the city. One thousand cases were singled out for intensive study. Seventy-two per cent of these were either breadwinners or probably would have others dependent upon them; 57 per cent had years of life before them and seemed capable of adjusting themselves to economic independence with proper assistance. An inquiry carried on among a large number of factories showed that although only a few hired handicapped employes, many were willing to try them.

The special department of the labor exchange is to be conducted by a trained social worker who has been selected by the social workers of the community at



the Industrial Commission's request. His work as outlined is to fall into these divisions: First, he is to study the industrial field and find places where the handicapped can be safely placed. Then he is to make a careful study of each individual applying for help with the assistance of clinics, with a view to finding out his capacity and limitations. And finally the careers of those employed through the bureau are to be followed until they are firmly established.

PURE MILK ORDINANCE PASSED IN ST. LOUIS

St. Louis has just scored a big victory for clean milk. The Municipal Assembly has almost unanimously passed the bill drafted by the board of health and supported by a score of civic and social service organizations of the city and by the *St. Louis Republic*, which has been waging an active health campaign.

The bill provides for the same rigid standards for milk as are recommended by the federal Department of Agriculture. All milk dealers hereafter must register with the Board of Health, which has full power to grant and revoke permits.

The chief provision, however, is that one year after the date of passage, all milk sold in St. Louis must either be pasteurized by the Held method or come from cows inspected by the Board of Health.

The bill was endorsed by the large milk companies, which receive their supply from outside of the city, and which pasteurize practically all their milk. It was bitterly opposed by the city milk dealers. There are 1,750 cows kept within the city limits of St. Louis. No new dairies have been allowed for a number of years. The dairies now within city limits are survivors of the days when much of the city area was in farm land.

EXHIBIT OF BETTER INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS

THE EXHIBIT of Better Industrial Relations, held the past month in New York city by the business men's group of the Society for Ethical Culture, proved striking and interesting and may be set up in other cities.

Visitors could scarcely fail to be impressed with the display of a firm of Boston merchants six of whose eleven directors are employees; of the paint factory managed jointly by a factory committee and an office committee; or of the labor union which has raised the average quality of work in a whole trade and established a system of industrial education.

One poster read: "Tell your troubles to the grievance board; there's a member on every floor." Next it hung charts describing methods of settling industrial disputes in New South Wales, France, Canada and some establishments in the United States.

The problem of seasonal unemployment was shown to have been met by two firms by varying their products. One manufactures belts part of the year and suspenders another part, while a large shoe firm keeps running the year round by special attention to sales and alteration in types of shoes.

There were interesting exhibits of profit-sharing, bonus systems, physical welfare equipment and, in particular, of public continuation schools. Cincinnati, New York, Boston, Fitchburg and other Massachusetts towns have such schools and plans are afoot to establish one in New York under the garment trades protocol.

A display of copper ware, glass mosaics and engravings was made by a school which trains cripples for self-support. It bore this legend: "We take men from the industrial scrap heap and return them to the ranks of productive labor."

COMMISSION ON SOUTHERN RACE QUESTIONS

THE UNIVERSITY COMMISSION on Southern Race Questions is proving a source of encouragement to the thoughtful people of the South, who are trying to study the race question, especially as it affects their section of the country, in a spirit of fairness and scientific investigation. The commission was organized by James H. Dillard, president of the Jeanes Fund, director of the Slater Fund and formerly dean of Tulane University.

The greeting of President Edwin A. Alderman of the University of Virginia, to the members of the commission at their recent meeting, expresses eloquently the attitude of the commission:

"The so-called race question, which means the right adjustment of relations between the white man and the colored man in American life, still remains perhaps our most complex and momentous public question. On the whole, no man can deny that this complex problem has been handled for the past 30 years with a great deal of instinctive wisdom by the people of the South, and the result of their constructive thought has been acquiesced in by the people of the North with remarkable and commendable faith and confidence. The problem, however, is not settled, and probably never will be, but may be counted upon to present difficult phases to every generation. Indeed, a certain paralysis of feeling about the whole matter, due to exhaustion, I am inclined to think, seems to have overtaken both sections, and those who are seeking to think quietly about the matter should be grateful for the fact that the Negro has somehow gotten on the southerner's nerves and out of the northerner's imagination.

"Both sections have turned with unity of effort to bring about a change in the spirit and machinery of our democracy, whereby they believe the interests of all the people can best be advanced. It is wise that in this breathing spell, patient, wise, scientific, just men should labor at the problem and seek to place it where it belongs among the great economic and sociological questions of the time."

Students at the University of Virginia have taken a prominent part in seriously studying race conditions. Following the conference of the university commission, the race study groups, under the leadership of D. Hiden Ramsey, who holds the Phelps-Stokes fellowship, have gone at their work with renewed vigor. Many students are carrying on first-hand investigations into local conditions. The results of these investigations will be embodied in reports which will be presented at a general meeting held at the close of the academic session.

The university commission has divided itself into five committees for study and investigation. This work will be carried

on systematically this year and reports will be made at the fourth conference to be held in Washington next December. The commission consists of one representative from each of eleven southern state universities. The advisory committee is composed of President Alderman, Dr. Dillard, Chancellor Barrow, of the University of Georgia, and President S. C. Mitchell of the Medical College of Virginia.

DELEGATES TO LONDON CONFERENCE ON THE BLIND

AT THE LONDON CONFERENCE on the Blind to be held June 18-24, America will be represented by Supt. and Mrs. O. H. Burritt of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Blind at Overbrook, Mr. and Mrs. Philip E. Layton, founders of the Montreal Association for the Blind, Miss Cottingham of the Cleveland Society for the Blind, Winifred Holt of the New York Association for the Blind, and Mr. and Mrs. Charles F. F. Campbell of the Ohio Commission for the Blind.

Mr. Layton, Miss Holt, Mr. Burritt and Mr. Campbell are to present papers, the two latter combining on a report on Recent Tendencies in Work for the Blind in America, including an elaborate set of lantern slides. The slides show the new institutions for the blind at Overbrook, Pa., Baltimore and Boston and cover other new work since 1900.

These slides were shown by Mr. Campbell at the meeting at Washington in April of those interested in preventing blindness and aiding the adult blind. Delegates were present from states as widely separated as Texas and Maine, Wisconsin and Georgia. Besides the papers read, there was an unusual amount of round table discussion which proved of very practical interest.

Senator Gore spoke and one of the most interesting addresses was by Dr. C. F. Fraser who has been in charge of the Nova Scotia School for the Blind at Halifax for forty-one years. Last spring Dr. Fraser was called to the bar of Nova Scotia to receive public recognition of his work in that province, the first time in seventy-five years that anyone has been so recognized in Nova Scotia.

KENTUCKY'S PROGRESSIVE NEW CHILD LABOR LAW

AFTER A CAMPAIGN conducted by the Kentucky Child Labor Association and the National Child Labor Committee, through its special agent Herschel H. Jones, the Kentucky Legislature has passed a child labor law which contains practically all the provisions of the uniform child labor law. It includes the eight-hour day, the sixteen-year age limit for dangerous occupations including mines, and the twenty-one-year limit for night messengers.



A BOY AND HIS PETS

The sixty-fifth annual report of the Worcester Children's Friend Society, from which this picture is taken, emphasizes the financial difficulty of carrying on child-placing work.

"In the old days, when twenty-five or thirty children were supported in the 'orphans' home,' it was easy for people to see the need of money and easy to see how and where it was expended.

"Nowadays when one hundred or more children are supported in country homes scattered throughout Worcester county, with the same advantages and under the same social conditions as the children of the communities in which they are placed, the public does not see them and forgets that they must be fed and clothed, guided and supervised, until such time as they may safely return to their families or be put in the way of caring for themselves."

In one provision of the law Kentucky is unique. She has realized what no other state has yet done,—the advisability of prohibiting street work to boys under fourteen. Other states have a ten- or a twelve-year limit, but Kentucky is the first state to establish a fourteen-year limit for all such work.

The law also provides an eighteen-year limit for girls in street work, a standard which has been reached by only two other states, Massachusetts and Wisconsin. Whether this street work provision becomes an actual fact, or simply remains unused upon the statute books, depends largely upon the school attendance officers. They, as well as the labor inspectors and police officers, are charged with its enforcement; but other duties of the inspectors and the police officers are so numerous that the street work provisions may remain unenforced unless the attendance officers fully realize the importance of the law.

There is a good opportunity for the people of Kentucky to help in the enforcement of this provision. The street trader comes continually under their observation, and if they are careful to re-

port to the proper authority all the violations they see, they will greatly aid the attendance officers in their task.

FIRST CHAIR OF VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

A SPECIAL professorship in vocational guidance, the first in this country, has just been established by Boston University. Meyer Bloomfield has accepted the chair. Mr. Bloomfield will not leave the Vocation Bureau of Boston, of which he is director.

The course for the year 1914-1915 will deal with the theory and practice of vocational guidance. The objects are described as follows: to provide instruction and practical training in the duties of vocational counselors in schools, philanthropic agencies, and business establishments; to afford opportunity for the study, under direction, of vocational problems in education and educational problems in employment; to open the way for contributions, based on reading, research, and service, toward more socially effective material and processes in education and employment; to enable school departments to undertake tentative experiments in vocational guidance.

TIME EXPOSURES *by* HINE

CANS AND KIDS

IS THE STREET BIG ENOUGH FOR BOTH ALL DAY?

A MEMORIAL LIBRARY THE CENTER FOR REJUVEN- ATING A COUNTRY TOWN

BECAUSE OF THE lack of resident initiative and leadership, the village of X—for many years had failed to make any real progress. Similar conditions prevail in hundreds of other communities in our country. The village is calling for leadership and many of our young men who have the vision and the personality and who are looking about for the best way to invest their lives might well consider the small town as a field of service.

That this can be done is shown by the Memorial Library in the village of X—. The library was the gift of a prominent man and his wife who saw the need and gave the building to be used as a social center for the community. The work was started a little over five years ago.

The Memorial Library includes a well-lighted and ventilated auditorium accommodating about 200 people. Here entertainments, fairs and socials are held. Classes in physical culture for both boys and girls are conducted during the winter months. On two evenings a week the people are entertained with the best motion pictures. This keeps in their home community the young people who had been in the habit of going to neighboring towns for these pleasures. A room containing a billiard table and other games attracts the young men and serves to keep them from places that

are of morally destructive character.

A room with showers and a bathtub was added to the equipment about two years ago and is used by the women and girls on specified days as well as by the men and boys. A manual training shop forms a part of the equipment of the Memorial Library. Boys from twelve to sixteen years of age have been instructed in making all sorts of useful articles of furniture.

A domestic science room with every facility for efficient and systematic work in sewing and cooking is included. The girls thoroughly enjoy the work and carry the training into their homes. One year the girls conducted a fair and from the sale of articles realized a considerable sum which they used to pay their instructor in physical work. At a community banquet, the first of its kind ever held in the village, the catering was done by the girls in the domestic science class.

For several years the domestic science and the manual training work has been part of the school curriculum. By being under the direction of the school the work is carried on to better advantage as every child of eligible age is obliged to attend the classes. The wife of the secretary of the Memorial Library has general supervision over the girls' work and most of the classes are under her instruction.

The children are being educated to thrift and economy by a savings system which has been introduced. For several years a number of the village boys have attended a county camp and have been influenced for good through the comradeship and the influence of the other boys. One summer a camp for girls was conducted.

During the past summer a ten-acre lot within a quarter of a mile of the village was rented and used for a playground. The playground contained a baseball diamond and a basketball and tennis court. A cottage was built on the grounds and the secretary and his family lived here all summer, giving personal supervision to the work at all times.

In the first year of the work a village improvement committee was organized. This was appointed from the representative men of the village and residents of the surrounding estates who gladly responded when approached for financial assistance. The first thing the committee decided upon was to light the streets with electricity. It was thought that the taxpayers would not assume this expense until they had seen the great improvement the lights would make in the streets. The committee had the lights installed and for two years met the expense through public subscription. The amount they were obliged to raise was \$1,500. The third year a lighting district was established and practically every taxpayer signed the petition to have the lights paid for through taxation.

One of the greatest needs of the village was a water supply. For five years the committee tried to solve this problem and recently its labors have been rewarded. A company supplying water to a village three miles distant has been induced to extend its mains to the village of X—. A fire company is to be organized with its home in the Memorial Library.

One of the churches had been struggling for years with a debt. At a meeting called to discuss the finances of the church the secretary of the Memorial Library offered to co-operate in a canvass to pay off the entire indebtedness. He outlined a tentative plan and was asked to "go ahead." A large paper elephant blocked off to represent various amounts, the aggregate representing the church debt, was placed in one of the stores. Everybody was enlisted to help and two days before the time appointed for the canvass to close the entire sum had been raised. Everybody gave to "kill the elephant."

These are the more spectacular achievements due to the influences emanating from the Memorial Library; but in point of fact, the whole community has caught the spirit of progress. Do such results merit the investment of a life in a small town?

EAST SIDE STREET TYPES IN COLOR AND CLAY—BY MARY L. CHAMBERLAIN

AN EXHIBITION of paintings, etchings and sculpture has brightened the club rooms of the University Settlement, New York city, the past few weeks. The three exhibitors, all under twenty-five years of age, are members of the settlement. They have spent most of their lives on the crowded, noisy East Side and in clay and in paint they have recorded many familiar figures of the swarming streets—the rabbi, the sweatshop toiler, the blind beggar, the organ woman.

William Auerbach-Levy is by no means an obscure "garret painter." As an etcher he is well known in New York and in Chicago where his *Man with the Cloak* was winner of the first prize of the Chicago Society of Etchers in 1914.

Even as a little chap he was not satisfied with shooting craps and following the gang. He wanted to draw, and so with a group of older lads he formed a life class where each member took turns at being model. Later his talent was discovered by a sympathetic teacher who took him to the National Academy of Design and asked that he be enrolled as a pupil in a night class. In 1911 he won the Mooney traveling scholarship from the academy and, his ambition realized, he was off to Paris to study.

Mr. Levy's etchings are a rare combination of soft delicate line and bold decorative composition. Until four years ago he had not touched a paint

brush and he is still a bit timid in handling paint. His color, however, is always mellow and harmonious, and every canvas betrays a remarkable sense of texture.

Abbo Ostrowsky is not a finished, skilful artist like his fellow exhibitor.

lieved by studies of American and Russian landscape, but always the color is somber and the scene desolate. There is a big gruesome canvas of a Russian graveyard; another, depressingly grey, of New York from the harbor; and many little pictures of deserted country. Even the sunniest, a little sketch called Noon with green marshy background and quiet blue water, leaves an impression of solitude and loneliness.

sion of solitude and loneliness.

Mr. Ostrowsky was formerly a student at the Royal Art Academy at Odessa. He is continuing his studies at the National Academy of Design in New York and is using a room of the University Settlement for his studio.

The youngest exhibitor, Pauline Margulies, has been literally brought up in the settlement. She played games in the settlement kindergarten, she was a loyal member of a girls' club and she learned to model in the settlement modelling class. From this class she graduated to Cooper Union and later she won several medals and a scholarship at the Art Students' League. She has also been a pupil of Abastenia St. Leger Eberle.

Miss Margulies' work most of all reflects the busy neighborhood where she has spent her life and which she knows

so well. The stooping Sweatshop Worker passes daily in front of her home on Delancey street, The Newsboy sells the Jewish *Vorwarts* on the corner, and The Laborer and Family are found in every block—in these familiar figures she finds inspiration for her work.



The Rabbi, by William Auerbach-Levy

But his very lack of tutelage has prevented imitation and encouraged self-expression—a self-expression that reveals the melancholy temperament of the Jewish people. Driven with his family from Russia six years ago, young Ostrowsky has painted dark memories of the field of massacre. These are re-

INDUSTRY

“TRAPPER” BOYS AMONG THE DEAD IN WEST VIRGINIA MINE—BY EDWARD N. CLOPPER

ON TUESDAY afternoon, April 28, another heavy toll of life was taken in the mining region of West Virginia. At Eccles, a little village nestling in the hills not far from the southern border of the state, 180 lives were suddenly snuffed out by an explosion in a coal mine, hundreds of feet below the surface of the ground. All the dead were employes of the New River Collieries Company except one, an insurance agent of Charleston, who had gone down just before the accident occurred, to solicit business from the men.

Intensifying the tragic features inseparably associated with such a disaster was the presence in the mine of several young “trapper” boys who lost their lives with the others. The youngest were only fourteen years of age and of these there were five according to the affidavits of their parents obtained by the company when they were engaged. The law of West Virginia permits fourteen-year-old boys to work in mines and demands no proof of age, “except in case of doubt” when a parent’s affidavit fulfills all requirements. Surely the untimely end of these children should be sufficient argument for the establishment in this state of the sixteen-year age limit for employment in this exceedingly hazardous occupation, especially as coal mining is the chief industry there. Many other mining states have already set this standard.

Two horizontal seams of coal are worked in this mine. One at a depth of 250 feet is reached by shaft No. 6; the other, 500 feet below the surface, is operated by means of shaft No. 5. The two shafts are connected underground, thus affording ventilation by the fan system, one serving as intake, the other as exhaust for the air current. The explosion was in the lower level, near shaft No. 5, where most of the men were at work. At the time there were in these workings 171 employes and the insurance agent, all of whom were killed. In shaft No. 6, at work in the upper level, were 75 employes, of whom 67 were by prompt action taken out alive, and only three of these were injured. Eight men who were close to this shaft lost their lives, although at a long distance from the place of the explosion.

In striking contrast with the disaster six years ago at Monongah, W. Va., no appeal to charity will be necessary, nor will there be any physical suffering on the part of the bereaved families. The new workmen’s compensation law of West Virginia, which took effect last October, makes provision for the care

Completely overshadowed by two wars, one in Mexico and the other in Colorado, the death of the 180 coal miners in West Virginia who were blown into eternity a fortnight back has passed almost unnoticed. It now develops, as shown by Mr. Clopper, who is an agent of the National Child Labor Committee, that five young boys were among the killed. The sending of children into coal mines has been stopped in many states. In West Virginia it is still legal for boys over fourteen to be so employed. It ought to be evident by this time that it is a practice not dissimilar from sending them to stand in the front line of battle.—ED.

of the dependents. To each widow the state will pay \$20 monthly until death or remarriage, and \$5 additional for each child under fifteen years, not to exceed three children in each family. A father, mother or other person who had been dependent on the earnings of a workman under twenty-one years of age, will receive 50 per cent of his average weekly wages for the period that would have elapsed before he reached his majority. The state also pays the funeral expenses not to exceed \$75, and \$150 is allowed to the injured for hospital treatment. Two car-loads of coffins and boxes were furnished at once by the state. The fund out of which these moneys are paid is created by the

monthly payment into the treasury of one dollar for every one hundred on the payroll of each employer, 90 per cent of the amount being contributed by the employers and 10 per cent by the employes. This applies to all lines of industry in the state except agricultural and domestic work. It also includes intra-state railroad service.

Officers of the State Public Service Commission, which administers this fund, were on the scene promptly receiving the claims of relatives of the deceased. The company also stands ready to relieve distress. The mine is one of the properties of the Guggenheim interests; President Guiterman of the company and Charles P. Neill, who is in charge of its labor welfare work, went to Eccles immediately to direct operations and look after the stricken families.

Of the victims of the explosion, 52 per cent were Americans, a few less than half of these being Negroes; 13 per cent were Italians; 11 per cent Polish; 7 per cent Lithuanians; the others were Russians, English, Hungarians and Germans. So far as is known at present, about half of the men were married; but some of those recorded as single may have families in Europe and it will be some time before the exact number of beneficiaries is learned.

The actual cause of the disaster has not yet been ascertained and may never be known. Scientists and officers of both the federal and state bureaus of mines hurried to the spot prepared to give aid and make a careful investigation, but the inquiry awaits the removal of the bodies, only half of which have been recovered at this writing.

The mutilated condition of many of the bodies attests the fearful force of the explosion. Identification has been possible only by means of the numbers on the brass checks given to the men as they went into the mine. In all probability most of the men met death instantly, while others who were found with handkerchiefs tied over their nostrils must have succumbed within a few minutes.

The badly wrecked condition of shaft No. 5 seriously impeded the work of recovery. Timbers, mine cars, and masses of coal and slate were hurled against the shaft by the explosion, blocking the passage and preventing ingress and ventilation. The subsequent accumulation of gas and water further complicated the situation and held the workmen back. The helmet corps of the federal government penetrated into the workings as soon as possible in the hope that some of the miners might be rescued but no signs of life could be found.



GOVERNOR HATFIELD OF WEST VIRGINIA
In the garb he donned to investigate the mine explosion.

DIRECTING THE WORK LIFE OF ENGLISH CHILDREN —BY OLGA S. HALSEY

"USELESS AT TWENTY-FIVE" is the menacing prospect which faces boys who leave school at fourteen to enter blind-alley and unskilled occupations. In London, 61 per cent of the boys leaving school in 1907-1908 entered unskilled occupations which could absorb but a small proportion of these boys when they attained manhood. In the Lancashire cotton mills three-fourths of the piecers fail to become spinners, and must eventually change their occupations. Only one in ten of the tiny "half-timers," who divide their days between school and factory, will ever become a spinner.

The dangers of casual employment or of unemployment threaten all these boys and increase their costliness to the state. It is rare for a boy to pass through less than six places between 14 and 21 years; common to pass through twelve; and occasionally a boy has had twenty or thirty jobs. The demoralization that results from the nature of the work and the constant shifting is of sufficient magnitude to appear in criminal and in Poor Law statistics.

In 1906 in Glasgow, out of 1,454 youths fourteen to twenty-one years old, charged with theft and dishonesty, 87 per cent were from such non-educational occupations as messengers, street trades, and "van boys."

The Poor Law returns for the whole of England for 1907 show that 30.2 per cent of the applicants to distress committees were under thirty years. Majority and Minority Reports of the Poor Law Commission both agree that "the casual market has been increasingly recruited of late years from boys, barely adolescent, who have been cast off by the blind alley occupations which they enter upon leaving school."

The increasing demand for cheap labor in processes which do not require the strength and intelligence of a man has until recently been unhampered in obtaining a ready supply of juveniles. It has even been aggravated by haphazard methods of "picking up a job," and by ignorance on the part of boys and parents of the importance of industrial training and of trades that offer opportunities for advancement.

The juvenile labor exchanges in England have not been established to provide an accessible market for child labor. The immediate purpose is to stimulate intelligent selection of employment and to assist boys and girls leaving school to secure positions for which they are most suited. At the same time the juvenile exchange aims to encourage school attendance and an appreciation of vocational training.

Authority to establish juvenile exchanges in England rests on two legislative acts. By an act of 1909 permission was given to create juvenile exchanges in connection with the National Labour Exchanges conducted throughout England by the Board of Trade. The next year, 1910, the choice of employment act gave local educational authorities power to undertake similar

In THE SURVEY of March 28, Katharine Coman described Great Britain's remarkable system of labor exchanges and the part they play in the system of national unemployment insurance, which went into effect a year ago.

In this article Miss Halsey shows how the labor exchanges are doing service in another direction, that of diverting juvenile labor from the blind alley industries, and directing them into channels that lead to advancement and positions of security.—E.D.

work. Although at first this duplication of effort caused some confusion, a satisfactory division of work has gradually been effected in the majority of exchanges.

In general, the actual placing of the children is done through the Board of Trade Exchanges, since they are conversant with the labor market throughout the country and since they are the natural medium to which an employer turns for labor. On the other hand, the more personal side of the work—such as guiding and advising applicants and superintending "after care"—is done by the educational authorities.

Birmingham and Edinburgh, in common with sixty other towns, have made arrangements under the choice of employment act, whereby volunteer committees of the local education authorities supervise the boys and girls for whom the exchanges have found situations. In London volunteer members of the juvenile advisory committees of the Board of Trade meet *in rota* to advise girls and boys about their future work and the exchange officer is expected to carry out their recommendations. The personal "after care" is again left to the "care committees" of the schools.

In placing children in positions for which they are best suited, the officer of the exchange is assisted by the "school leaving form" filled in by the teacher and others who have known the child. This places at his disposal knowledge of each child's scholastic attainments, special aptitudes, health, home conditions, and preferences of parent and child in regard to employment. A note is also made as to whether the child will need after care.

In Birmingham, in 1913, 17.6 per cent of the children were recorded as needing special after care; 36.9 per cent moderate care; and 38.1 per cent none, except for encouraging further education. In London, about 40 per cent are recorded as needing no further supervision. During the year, officers of the exchanges speak to the children, and parents' meetings are arranged so that both parent and child may be impressed with the necessity of learning a trade, and the desirability of applying at the exchange. In Birmingham, for example, in the second year of the exchange, 23

parents' meetings were held, with an average attendance of 140. As a result of such efforts about 50 per cent of the London children apply at the exchange, often accompanied by the mother, and talk over the prospects of the future.

It is a difficult task to match the desires of the children and the work for which they are most fitted with the available vacancies. In contrast to finding employment through newspapers, signs or hearsay, the brightest lads are given the positions with the best promise of advance. As far as family circumstances permit, they are advised to start with low wages, and learn a trade, in preference to high wages with no future prospects.

In Birmingham the better class of girl is urged to go into the skilled trade of making jewelry. The skilled but coarser work of lacquering, French polishing, and upholstery is recommended to the rougher class of girl. With all, every effort is made to place boys and girls in factories with a good "tone," and to steer them from blind alley and overcrowded occupations.

When a decision has been reached, the child is sent with a card of introduction to the employer with a vacancy. The employer is free to accept or reject the applicant, and to make his offer of terms. The child then reports to the exchange, whether or not he has secured the job, and what wages he is to receive.

In Birmingham 6,457 vacancies were filled, out of 9,803 notified at the juvenile exchange for the year ending October 31, 1913. About 32 per cent of these were filled by boys and girls direct from school. The largest number of boys placed, 1,188 or 32 per cent of the total 3,663 boys, was in the various branches of engineering; the largest number of girls, 507 or 18 per cent of the 2,794 girl applicants, was sent to warehouses. Only 1.5 per cent of the boys become "van" boys, i.e. drivers, trucksters, etc. These figures may well be compared with returns giving situations of 351 boys who had placed themselves without the aid of the exchange. One-fifth of these boys went into the less favorable occupations of errand boys, tube drawers, van boys, and beer bottling.

It must be remembered that Birmingham is exceptionally rich in the number of its skilled industries, so that the exchanges have every opportunity to divert boys and girls from the least promising into the more promising trades. Seventy-five per cent of Birmingham employers make use of the exchange and ten of the largest firms obtain all their juvenile workers through this channel. Co-operation on the part of employers enabled the exchanges to place in a single month 39.4 per cent of the children who had left school in that period.

In placing the best boys and girls in the best openings, a central office acting as a clearing-house for each local exchange is essential in the large cities. In London, for example, the East End, a district with a big working class pop-

ulation, offers few really promising openings. Through the central office of the Labor Exchange capable boys and girls of the East End are sent to better positions in the West End.

During three months, ending in October, 1913, one particularly fortunate exchange placed 536 children locally, and 499 in other districts. Although workers in the London exchange complain of a lack of suitable openings, returns showing the distribution of vacancies filled by seventeen juvenile exchanges in London are regarded as satisfactory, in comparison with a former return which disclosed the fact that not more than one-third of boys leaving school found advantageous openings on their own initiative.

In these returns from seventeen exchanges the vacancies are graded A, B, C, according to their promise of absorption into the industry. In general the possession of a school leaving form implies that the child has just left school.

TOTAL VACANCIES FILLED (BOYS AND GIRLS) BY 17 JUVENILE EXCHANGES IN LONDON

With school leaving form	
A vacancies.....	1344
B ".....	1546
C ".....	494
	3384
Without school leaving form	
A vacancies.....	1641
B ".....	2562
C ".....	1156
	5359
TOTAL	8743

The high number of "A vacancies" and the small proportion of "C vacancies" filled by applicants direct from school speaks well of the preventive work.

Throughout the length and breadth of England exchanges are carrying on similar work. In 1913, 90,387 vacancies were filled by boys, and 65,921 by girls. Deducting those placed more than once, 74,535 boys, and 54,206 girls were placed. Twenty-four per cent of the openings for boys, and 30 per cent of those for girls were filled by children who had just left school.

The juvenile exchanges are constantly attempting to increase the possibilities of advancement in the different trades. To a certain extent they have succeeded in inducing employers to regard the youthful applicant as an individual who will need a man's wage, when he reaches manhood, and to reorganize their plant accordingly. In one instance, an East End firm formerly discharged its boys of seventeen, and recruited its staff of buyers and salesmen from outside. Through the efforts of the exchange, the work has been rearranged so that the boys are in line for promotion to this high grade of work.

The London County Council now allows time off to its boy employees, to attend continuation school. The post office, which formerly dismissed half its boys sixteen and seventeen years old, is now offering a permanent career to promising youths. In Birmingham the effect has been to improve the number and quality of applicants, so that

an insufficient supply of labor has been replaced by a waiting list.

The work of the volunteer in taking a friendly interest in these boys and girls is a most important adjunct to the scheme. In Birmingham the work is organized by the education committee, which has formed seventy care committees with a membership of 1,586 helpers for the 130 schools. The second annual report of the central care committee of Birmingham, describes the infinite variety of duties that devolve on the volunteer visitor.

"Visits to the homes, interviews with parents and children, industrial information given, questions answered, warning imparted, sense of responsibility reawakened or strengthened, educational guidance, matters of health discussed, character influence, individuals brought into touch with recreative, social and other organizations,—evidence of all these and more is to be found in the eight thousand odd reports, but these things cannot be set out in tables or served up in statistics."

As 68 per cent of the Birmingham young folks are credited with membership in Boy Scout troops or other organizations, the volunteers aim to secure club leaders who are in contact with the children to eventually assume the after care work.

In London school care committees were organized originally to care for necessitous children who required school feeding or medical treatment. The additional work of after care for the labor exchanges is often a burden and inadequately done. Some people believe a serious defect in the scheme is the responsibility that rests upon a corps of volunteer workers who may not be fully trained to meet the responsibility that the work demands. Those in charge of the work, however, feel that a large body of volunteers in preference to paid workers is essential to the success of the plan.

At present the complaint is made that only about half the school children who ought to come to the exchange apply. Undoubtedly the usefulness of the exchange would be increased by compulsory registration for all school children. The present organization of exchanges in England does not prevent this and may be preparatory to this further development.

Coupled with this demand, many people urge that instead of the present arrangement of including boys and girls up to seventeen years of age, guidance is needed until the period of shifting from blind alley work to permanent work is ended at eighteen years.

These two reforms would give the exchanges effectual control over children for four years after leaving school and would gradually eliminate half-grown boys who have never had a good start since leaving school and who are habitually out of work. In this connection it is interesting to note that one exchange has actually started a school which unemployed youths may attend, and that the general effect of the exchanges is to shorten the period of demoralizing unemployment.

Critics of the juvenile labor exchange

urge that no permanent improvement in industrial skill can be attained until on the one hand the school-leaving age is raised and a system of compulsory half-time schools introduced, and on the other hand until business is so reorganized that there are suitable openings with reasonable hours of work. Such critics remember only the commercial function of the exchange and overlook its broad educational value to the child, the parent, the employer and the public.

As the result of the effort of volunteers in urging children to continue their education there has been an increased attendance at the continuation schools in Birmingham, Edinburgh and Huddersfield. The committees are uniformly impressed, however, with the difficulty of attending evening classes when the hours of employment are frequently so long as to leave the boy tired and unfit for further exertion. The constant attention of large numbers of volunteer workers to the evil of overworking children and the collection of information upon child labor are the surest preparation to laws for a shorter working day and an older working age.

The fact that it is difficult to keep children in any one situation for any length of time and that the exchanges are filled with inefficient boys and girls has focussed public attention on the educational and industrial systems which have produced this kind of prospective wage-earners.

Finally, aside from its success in placing promising youths in better openings and its probable reduction of adult unemployment, the juvenile labor exchange must be tested by its influence upon the parent and home. At the present time parents welcome this new guidance. According to J. W. Peck of the famous Edinburgh exchange, "Even the most careless parents are constrained . . . to devote a certain amount of consideration to the future career of the children. . . . The community is bound in the long run to reap benefit from the consequent awakening of this sense of responsibility."

DRINK AND WORK ACCIDENTS

"Workmen frequenting drinking places coming to or going from their work will be replaced by non-drinking men as rapidly as possible."

This notice, posted in the American Car and Foundry Company's plant at Berwick, Pa., has resulted in a marked decrease in accidents among the 5,000 men employed there. It was put up following the visit to Berwick of the Rev. Henry W. Stough, who conducted a vigorous crusade against the drink evil.

The meetings by Dr. Stough were held the end of October and the beginning of November. Since that time, it is asserted, accidents have been reduced 34 per cent. The output in the passenger car department has been increased from one and one-half cars a day to two cars, with the same force employed. The bank deposits in the six weeks following the meetings were \$80,000 larger than in any other six weeks' period.

It is reported that the judges in Berwick will refuse to grant any licenses in the town next year.

EDUCATION



GROUP OF STUDENTS AT HILO SCHOOL. (MIXED TYPES. LEFT TO RIGHT)

Front row—Part-Chinese, German-Samoan, Half white, Portuguese, Hawaiian-Porto Rican, Porto Rican.

Middle row—Russian, Japanese, Korean, Eng-Samoan, Pure Samoan.

Back row—Filipino, Jap-Hawaiian, Gilbertese-Hawaiian, Chinese-Hawaiian, Pure Hawaiian, Spanish-Hawaiian.

TEACHING CITIZENSHIP TO BOYS OF FIFTEEN NATIONALITIES—BY JAY O. WARNER

CHAPLAIN, HILO BOARDING SCHOOL FOR BOYS

WHEN IN 1820 the American missionaries first landed on the sunny shores of Kailua it was with instructions from the home board that they were "to aim at nothing short of covering the Sandwich Islands with fruitful fields and pleasant dwellings, and schools and churches, and of raising the whole people to an elevated state of Christian civilization." Accordingly the early fathers set about this high commission with characteristic New England zeal. These wise men from the east knew that any change in the heathen heart that might be affected by their efforts would avail little without a corresponding development of the head. Schools were imperative, but what kind of schools? Theory had little place in those days and experience was to solve this with many other subsequent problems.

Perhaps the greatest impulse to learning in the early days was given in 1824 when Queen Kaahumanu was induced to leave off card playing to study the art of "book-talking." Old and young followed her example and took up the popular fad; before the end of the year two thousand persons had learned to read and write. But the sagacious missionary fathers saw deeper than this. Education as a mere accomplishment could have little redemptive value with a people naturally indolent. Besides, school buildings and churches were necessary and where could capable builders be found? There was but one answer—*teach the natives to work*. The earliest attempt at manual training was in 1831, when native students erected a school building under the direction of their teacher on

the island of Maui. Lahainaluna Seminary, as this school was named, flourishes to this day, retaining its department of manual training.

After this first experiment in industrial education the missionaries began developing the idea in other places. The oldest and in certain respects the most remarkable of the island vocational schools was founded at Hilo, island of Hawaii, in 1836. This school, hereafter known as Hilo Boarding School for Boys, began operations in a lowly thatched grass house with Rev. David B. Lyman and his good wife as teachers. It is their grandson, Levi C. Lyman, who is the present principal. Starting with eight pupils the number soon swelled to sixty-five native Hawaiians. By heroic means more commodious buildings were then provided and a program adapted to the needs of the applicants was laid down.

By this it is seen that industrial education in Hawaii antedates that of the mainland; or, in other words, the method of "learning by doing" is hardly more modern than the first quarter of the nineteenth century. The genius of David Lyman, founder of Hilo Boarding School, is apparent not only in the local success of the enterprise, but in its far-reaching influence. He was inaugurating a system of instruction, however simple at first, far in advance of the educational world of this day.

It was not until 1878, forty-two years after David Lyman had begun elementary tool instruction in Hilo Boarding School, that the first of a long series of manual training schools

was inaugurated at Boston. It was a well-deserved tribute paid to a notable educator when General S. C. Armstrong said, that when he wished to make Hampton the best kind of school for the freedmen he took Father Lyman's Hilo school for a pattern."

Since it is not the purpose of this sketch to trace the seventy-eight romantic years comprising the history of Hilo Boarding School, mention must be made of certain historical influences which were determining factors in the present character of the school. The work was done for the express benefit of the native Hawaiian. By 1840 the school had advanced sufficiently to promulgate the new rule: "No boy can leave his sleeping apartment without pantaloons." Up to this time the boys had been allowed to work in their native dress with a shirt as the foreign addition.

About this time also the missionaries prevailed upon the government to establish a public school system throughout the kingdom and the Rev. Richard Armstrong, father of the general, was appointed minister of public instruction. Mr. Armstrong secured a grant of forty acres of fertile land and this with a small herd of cattle became at once the chief endowment of the institution. In 1850 the missionary board withdrew its support, the financial burden resting largely upon the trustees, while the *sine qua non* of the students was hand labor.

In the thirty-eight years of Mr. Lyman's principalship 870 boys were enrolled upon the school register. During this time more than 200 graduates entered Lahainaluna Seminary. Over 400 became school teachers and 30 became ministers in these islands or missionaries to the Marquesian or Micronesian Islands. About 1850, a change in population of the Hawaiian islands, occasioned by the rise of the sugar industry and a consequent importation of foreign laborers, wrought a corresponding adaptation of Hilo Boarding School to the new conditions. In a few years the children of the *kamaainas* (newcomers) began to apply for admission, and the school was morally obliged to open its doors to them. Today, no fewer than fifteen nationalities are represented by the boys, most of whom are native-born American citizens.

More than half the entire island population are Orientals at the present time, but immigrants are coming from Europe and elsewhere in increasing numbers. Meanwhile the native Hawaiian has been rapidly disappearing, partly through a high death-rate, but mostly through miscegenation. The social composition a half-century ago was simple and homogeneous; today it is quite complex. The opening of the Panama



BOYS AT WORK IN THE GARDENS AT HILO BOARDING SCHOOL

More than half the supplies for the dining hall are produced by the farm and dairy.

Canal, according to social prophets, will have a tendency to heighten the complexity.

Add to this the tendency of the children of the plantation laborers away from the peonage in which they see their parents living, and the function of vocational schools in the community becomes apparent. The public schools in Hawaii are only beginning industrial training now, while Hilo Boarding School, after three-quarters of a century of service, finds shop and class-room overcrowded and its equipment inadequate to meet the demand. If Hawaii is to support any considerable number of homemakers, that is, if the rising generation is to become a community of independent citizens instead of a horde of serfs, the training offered by such a school is of incalculable value.

The courses of study followed in this school, in general features, are identical with those of industrial schools elsewhere. The training offered, while encouraging advanced study in special cases, aims to provide a well-rounded and fairly complete course for those who cannot for any reason continue their education in higher institutions. The forenoons from 9 to 12 are devoted to the class-room; the afternoons to farm work, shops and athletics; evenings to study.

The agricultural work is both practical and experimental. For years these boy farmers were the acting custodians of Uncle Sam's Agricultural Experiment Station in Hawaii. That has finally reached such proportions as to justify a separate establishment under the direct control of the government. The principal crop is taro (*Caladium colocasia*) cooked tuber into a mash with a shaped stone, mix the mash with water and allow his staff of life "poi." The native method of making "poi" is to pound the well- from which the Hawaiian manufactures

it to ferment. It is amusing to observe the astonishment of the native parents who visit the school on seeing the rapidity with which their sturdy sons "pound poi" by motor power. So important is this food item in the Hawaiian pabulum that the natives are sometimes styled the "poi polloi" of the islands. But "poi" fame is extending far beyond Hawaii, for small quantities of it are being shipped to Washington by Hilo Boarding School at the instigation of Professor Shepherd of the Geo-physical Laboratory

who is conducting experiments with it for its valuable medicinal and food properties.

Besides taro, many kinds of vegetables and fruit are raised, there being no fewer than twenty-five varieties of bananas alone. A fine herd of Holstein cattle produce butter and milk, and the boy-butchers keep the school table supplied with sweet, fresh meat.

The best known product of the school, however, is the exquisitely polished wood-work wrought out of the beautiful Hawaiian hardwoods. Wood-craft is a fine art here. *Koa*, sometimes termed Hawaiian mahogany, being most handsomely grained, is especially popular and commands a high price.

Without the grant of land by the government and gifts of money and tools from friends, Hilo Boarding School could never have existed, but it is equally true that without the loyal co-operation of the students in the form of hard manual labor, the school could not have been maintained.

The benefits are mutual; the boys' labor on the farm contributes substantially to the upkeep of the school. More than half the supplies for the dining hall are produced by the farm and dairy, while the carpenters, plumbers, blacksmiths, harness-makers and electricians do work in both construction and repair. No boy is turned down because he has no money when he applies for admission. There is no tuition charge. Thirty-five dollars and three hours' daily toil on the farm covers his board expense for a year. For the boys who cannot secure the \$35 in cash, a system of "work-scholarships" is provided which enables them to earn the amount during the school year.

The school offers a course in home training indispensable to the boys who apply. Many of them come from



TARO—HAWAIIAN STAFF OF LIFE

poor homes or worse, and some from no homes at all. In the dining hall, dormitory, shop and class room, good manners are imperative, while the individual rooms of the older boys are models of neatness and purity. One of the most important departments of the school is the home crafts, which aims to instruct the future home-maker in many kinds of repair, culinary and embellishing arts, requisite to well-ordered homes.

Then there is the civic aspect. Here is a school for patriotism. Inter-racial differences must be harmonized in the collective life or individual failure would be certain. The attendance by nationalities is about as follows: Japanese, 35; Hawaiian, 20; mixed, 20; Chinese, 5; Korean, 5; Samoan, 4; Filipino, 2; others, 4.

There is a democratic spirit about this school community greatly needed in this age of class struggle and social unrest. As is well known Hawaii has maintained a feudalistic society for nearly half a century, but the beginning of the end is at hand and a new social order is in sight. The present cosmopolitan population of the islands demands cosmopolitan schools. Hawaii is not only a crucible on Uncle Sam's frontier, it is the melting-pot of opposing civilizations in which all the world is concerned. On this small spot the Japanese learn to labor shoulder to shoulder with Russians, Samoan meets European under the flag of a common freedom. Is not this an important step toward the solution of one of our greatest social problems?

Great responsibility here devolves upon the American people. There are already in Hawaii 5,000 Japanese American-born citizens. They are constitutionally entitled to all the rights of American citizenship—yet at this writing their Hawaiian birth certificates are rejected by the authorities on the Pacific coast, as a result of a recent action of the Department of Immigration. Whatever danger or incongruities may be involved in such a national policy as this, it may help to insure the stability of our island population, and make the inculcation of democracy on our frontier all the more necessary.

The discipline of Hilo Boarding School is military, yet there is much in keeping with popular government. There is a judiciary system which permits every member of this community to have a voice in the maintenance of order. Three judges from the student body are elected by the boys as a school tribunal which meets once a week under the supervision of the principal to try all offenses and mete out penalties. Punishment consists in a restriction of privileges and rarely is a case ever appealed to the faculty.

Lastly comes religion. Hilo Boarding School is a Christian institution. It does not reject the Bible in its curriculum. The Christian faith is not compulsory and there is no effort at coercion beyond the wholesome requirement of church attendance. The school is non-sectarian and aims to be as broadly progressive in its religious life as accords with the best thought and practice of enlightened Christianity.

PROFESSOR DEWEY'S REPORT ON THE FAIRHOPE EXPERIMENT IN ORGANIC EDUCATION

WHEN Marietta L. Johnson came out of the South a year or so ago and won a hearing among northern teachers for the educational experiment which she had been carrying on for six years at Fairhope, Ala., she alone could speak of her work from first-hand knowledge. Even when the Fairhope League was organized in the hope of putting her work on a permanent basis, Mrs. Johnson's word for what she had actually accomplished had to be taken on faith. People listened, believed and were glad, for from a region where illiteracy lies heaviest and the needs of childhood are most marked there had apparently come a gleam of promise.

The first rounded presentation of her work was published in *THE SURVEY* last December, but even then, gave for one or two hasty visits of educators traveling in that region, who could report nothing more definite than favorable impressions, no educational authority from the North had gone to Fairhope to see for himself.

This situation no longer exists. Prof. John Dewey of Columbia University, invited by the Fairhope League to visit Mrs. Johnson's school, has returned "without any doubt as to the school having made good." Professor Dewey's fourteen-year-old son accompanied him.

At the end of their first day Professor Dewey's son reported that all the children he talked to were "crazy about the school" and before the visit ended he begged to be left in Fairhope himself.

In his report to the league Professor Dewey says that before going he had expected that it would be necessary to make allowances because of obstacles against which the school had worked,—the inherent difficulties of any new step as well as the lack of means to secure properly trained teachers. "But while there were, of course, many details susceptible of improvement," he goes on, "I did not find it necessary to make nearly as many allowances as I had anticipated." To quote further:

"In my judgment the school has demonstrated that it is possible for children to lead the same natural lives in school that they lead in homes of the right sort outside of school; to progress bodily, mentally, and morally in school without factitious pressure, rewards, examinations, grades, or promotions; while they acquire sufficient control of the conventional tools of learning and of the study of books—reading, writing, and figuring—to be able to use them independently.

"The demonstration is all the more striking because of the odds against which Mrs. Johnson has labored and because of the simplicity of the means by which the results have been attained. Anybody who went to Fairhope expecting a revelation of wonderful new methods and devices would come away much disappointed. There are no tricks of the trade, no patent devices, no unique nor even peculiar appliances, no methods in one sense of that term.

"If the expression be not misunder-

stood, I would say that what impressed me most on the side of educational procedure was negative; namely, the absence of all special devices calculated to make up for the lack of the various forms of pressure usually brought to bear upon children. What has been done is simply to provide the conditions for wholesome, natural growth in small enough groups for the teacher (as a leader rather than as an instructor) to become acquainted with the weaknesses and powers of each child individually, and then to adapt the work to the individual needs.

"As a demonstration that normal growth and education are really identical, the school is more impressive than if it had had more external appliances and more skilled teachers at its command. In the latter case, the question might have been raised as to how far the desirable results were to be charged to the account of teachers and equipment and methods of instruction better than are found in the ordinary school. This does not mean, of course, that Mrs. Johnson's own personality has not counted for a very great deal—the existing school would have been impossible without such a personality, but at the same time what she has done has been to give her time, energy, devotion, and intelligence to seeing to it that the children had the opportunities of growth undistorted by external pressure."

Freedom in the school, declares Professor Dewey, is treated as a mental and moral matter, not as a matter of whim or caprice. He goes on:

"The school was not only orderly in the intellectual and moral sense—the only standard that ought really to be applied—but displayed a decent external order of the usual kind—save for the greater freedom of physical posture and movement and conversation. Both in Mrs. Johnson's own classes and in the manual training, taught by Mr. Johnson, children were busy, active and interested in their work, and there was no fooling at all."

Professor Dewey urges that Fairhope be kept as the experiment station and that its method be made to "spread and permeate the rural schools of the county and then of adjacent counties." The very simplicity of rural life in the South, he says, makes its education more plastic to radical changes.

As a further means of propagating the ideas and practices of the school he urges the training of local young men and women to carry on similar work in the vicinity, and the preparation of teachers from the North to undertake the work in the North. Mrs. Johnson, says Professor Dewey, should be relieved from constant financial worry. A guarantee fund covering a span of years, he declares, would give her opportunity for supervision; for greater attention to the assisting teachers; for her training work, as well as for trips north to make her work known and to give assistance and supervision to like attempts there.

BOOK REVIEWS

THE WINE PRESS

By Alfred Noyes. F. A. Stokes & Co. 49 pp. Price \$.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.65.

War Verse— Peace Propaganda



The Wine Press is a notable contribution to the literature of the peace movement; nobly and passionately conceived, carefully wrought, the poem is indeed literature in a very real sense, and deliberate propaganda as well. No one has set forth the horrors of war with more detailed and cold intensity than Mr. Noyes. The verse drips red and shrieks. By a studied intermission of rhyme and an occasional conscious break in the meter, the poet has achieved a harsh, rushing cadence which almost makes one cover one's ears:—

"The shrapnel severed the leaping limbs
And shrieked above their flight.
They rolled and plunged and writhed
like snakes
In the red hill-brooks and the black-
thorn brakes.
Their mangled bodies tumbled like elves
In a wild Walpurgis night.

"Slaughter! Slaughter! Slaughter!
The cold machines whirled on.
And strange things crawled amongst the
wheat
With entrails dragging round their feet,
And over the foul red shambles
A fearful sunlight shone."

The technician, intellectually detached and savoring aesthetic values, will find much to appreciate in these descriptions of battle; but for the ordinary reader, cradled in the romance and pageantry of war, they will hold no pleasure. Mr. Noyes undoubtedly did not mean that they should. The glittering battalions of earlier romanticists do not cross these pages: instead, we have ignorant peasants herded in trains to battlefields where is "no sight, no sound of an enemy," but on a sudden, "a thunder of shrieking air," red ravin, and after "scarecrows that once were men." We have "villages in panic rout," and the innocent home defiled:—

"The child, the child that lay on her
knees.
Devil nor man may name
The things that Europe must not print,
But only whisper and chuckle and hint,
Lest the soul of Europe rise in thunder
And swords melt in the flame."

But Mr. Noyes is too genuinely the artist to give us unmitigated horror. The relief is afforded by the terza rima

in which is told the idyll of the young Balkan peasant, Johann, and his wife; and by the exalted songs of Michael. After all, it is as a lover of peace that Mr. Noyes describes war, and it is in picturing peace that he is most truly the poet. The difficult terza rima is used with a haunting simplicity which no other English poet has excelled.

*"O, little blue pigeon, sleep. Sleep, Dodi
mine,*

*She murmured.. Sleep little rose in
your rosy bed.*

*The moon is rocking, rocking to rest
in the pine.*

"A great grey cloud sailed slowly over-
head.

She stood behind Johann. Around
his eyes
Her soft hands closed. 'Dodi's asleep,'
she said."

As poetry, the idyll marks the highest point in The Wine Press. Spiritually—though not always poetically—the songs of Michael are at the summit of the poem. They strike the mystical and frankly religious note, without which the cynicism and brutality of the "tale" could not be endured. It would be hard to tell why these verses do not rise as high as they were meant to. Something they lack in music, perhaps; something, perhaps, in passion, or passion's adequate expression. The most moving is the simplest, the one in which Michael sings: "This war is not as other wars—Freedom rides before you

"On the last of the crusades."

Later, when his eyes have been put out, he can still triumph with his resounding hexameters—describing the Face of Christ pictured waiting and watching from the walls of San Sofia, for the coming of His own. He can still say—"Blessed are they that see—The beautiful angel of our Fatherland"—the angel of Liberty walking through the "tattered hospitals." At the end, crucified in the apple tree, he is still dauntless, singing,— "Conquered, we shall conquer!—

"Till, members of one Body,
Our agony shall cease:

Till the souls that sit in darkness
Behold the Prince of Peace."

It is in this same dauntless spirit, the crusading spirit of his Michael, that Mr. Noyes closes his poem:

"An arrow is at the heart of Death,
A God is at the doors of Fate!

It is the Dawn! The Dawn!" . . .

FLORENCE CONVERSE.

HEPBURN OF JAPAN AND HIS WIFE AND HELPMATES

By William Elliot Griffis. The Westminster Press, Philadelphia. 231 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

Medical Crusader at Work in Japan



The transformation of Japan from the "old" to the "new" has been so rapid, so marked, as to seem almost miraculous. To one seeking a real explanation of this wonderful phenomenon, Dr. Griffis' book will prove most interesting and enlightening.

The call, "Go ye into all the world and preach the Gospel to every creature," had long been ringing in the chambers of the soul of Dr. Hepburn, when the Harris treaty in 1859 opened a possible door in Japan. He at once turned his back on the alluring prospect of a continually increasing and lucrative medical practice in a metropolitan city, and on January 6, 1859, wrote a letter to the Presbyterian Board of Foreign Missions offering himself and his wife, who was equally devoted, for work in the new field. On January 12, 1859, his offer was accepted.

This arrangement led the way to a most happy and fruitful period of service in Japan, longer than the average life-time, extending from 1859 to 1892. Their home was set up at Kanagawa across the bay from Yokohama, which was then inhabited only by a few fishermen. One of Dr. Hepburn's first achievements there was instructing the Japanese in the chemistry and the manufacture of soap.

"As soon as possible this crusader, armed with the lancet, attempted to begin medical work. He rented a Buddhist temple, not far from his dwelling, fitted it up, and opened it for the benefit of submerged humanity. Soon it was thronged with sick people of every kind, often from six to eight score a day. Thereupon the government interfered, drove the sick people away, shut the gate, stationed a guard before it and allowed none to enter."

The doctor surmised that this was done to drive the foreigners from Kanagawa to Yokohama where they could be more easily guarded. He continued to visit the sick and administer to their needs, however, never flinching through fear of danger.

In 1863 the Hepburns removed to Yokohama where the doctor "reopened his dispensary and was at work in it every week day, until 1879, ministering to the diseased. . . . He prescribed for from six to ten thousand patients

The Survey, May 16, 1914.

yearly, and had about him a corps of five to ten young Japanese men anxious to learn the healing art. . . . It is no exaggeration to say that for the Japanese born since 1870, he, under God, made theirs a different world to live in. . . . He was always referred to in Japan as 'Kun-shi,' the righteous and noble gentleman."

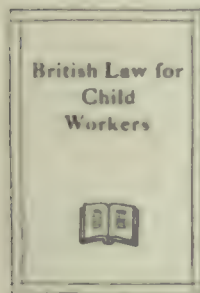
To a foreigner the mysteries of the Japanese language are appalling. The doctor had to attack this problem without the help of phrase-book, grammar, or dictionary, "but soon had leaped over the wall and was in the strange world of Japanese thought and roaming in the garden of Japanese literature." By dint of consistent and assiduous industry, "he got out the first edition of his great Japanese dictionary, on which all the others are based, as early as 1867." In 1891 he brought out his Bible dictionary in Japanese, a work begun in 1889. February 3, 1888, was made memorable in Japan by a meeting held to celebrate the completion of the translation of the entire Bible into Japanese.

It would be interesting to follow Dr. Griffiths through his recital of the story of the building of the Shiloh Church, and labors in it; of the growth of a small school till it ended in the noble Gakunin University, and of the doctor's election to its presidency and his success in that position. But space will not allow. "In 1892, after thirty-three years of loving service, Dr. Hepburn, the Christ-filled pilgrim, retired from active toil, to spend his remaining days in his native land."

MARSHALL R. GAINES.

CHILD LABOUR IN THE UNITED KINGDOM

By Frederic Keeling. P. S. King and Son, London. 326 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.14.



This is a study of the development and administration of the law relating to the employment of children, prepared in behalf of the British section of the International Association for Labour Legislation. The committee in charge of the study and report consisted

of Lord Henry Bentinck, M.P., Constance Smith, Mary Phillips, Mr. Keeling and Miss Sanger. The report embodies the work of a large number of volunteer investigators and is a model of painstaking editing.

The divisions of greatest interest to American readers deal with street trading and public entertainments. In London the minimum age for the former is now fourteen years, and the government bill which was introduced at the session of 1913 proposed to extend that age limit to all towns in England, Wales and Scotland, and to require street traders to be licensed and to attend a continuation school. From many different starting points, the evidence converges upon the point that "of all forms of blind alley labor, street trading is, without exception, the worst."

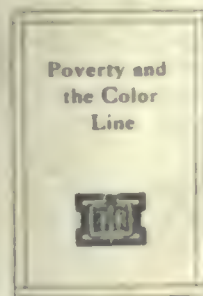
In the somber mass of confused and discouraging facts, one bright spot shines forth. The diminution in numbers of children employed in public entertainments is astonishing. According to the officials of the London County Council there are at the present time never more than ten applications in a week for licenses for children under fourteen years old. Usually there are not more than five or six, and at Christmas the number does not exceed 100. Compared with New York this is most cheering progress. Indeed it seems to be excelled only by Massachusetts and Illinois which forbid outright the employment at night of all children below the age of sixteen years.

Charts, schedules, tables, texts of by-laws, indexes and a bibliography afford the student every available aid for understanding a most intricate, difficult and discouraging subject.—the confused and incoherent mass of British legislation concerning child labor.

FLORENCE KELLEY.

IN BLACK AND WHITE

By L. H. Hammond. Fleming H. Revell Co. 244 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.



Within recent years the South has produced a number of sympathetic books upon the Negro,—the best known among them being those of the late Edgar Gardner Murphy. In Black and White comes as the latest contribution to this group, and sounds the clearest, most decisive note. Mrs. Hammond is a southerner who has an intimate knowledge of working class conditions, both North and South, and she makes the keynote of her book the assertion that the Negro problem is primarily not a Negro problem at all but a poverty problem, and that the colored people have suffered grave injustice from the failure of the South to understand this fact.

The book deals therefore with poverty among the Negroes and its amelioration,—with health, housing, delinquency, education, civil rights. It speaks in gentle but no uncertain terms of the Negro's helpless position and the injustice he often experiences. Examples are given of refined colored women who have been forced into jim-crow cars and obliged for hours to hear filthy language amid filthy surroundings; of colored boys sent to the chain gang for ten and fifteen years for the commission of petty offenses; and of educated, industrious Negro families forced, because of segregation, to bring up their children on streets where vice is permitted to traffic unrestrained.

The book, however, is a hopeful one since it shows the awakening of social consciousness among thoughtful, educated southerners, and the beginnings of preventive work. Especially touching are the author's anecdotes of the social work of individual, often unlettered,

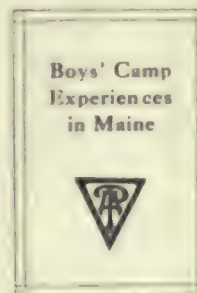
colored men and women. As an example, she tells of Sam Daily, a Negro of Alabama, who donated himself and his family and one hundred and twenty-five acres of land (which at his death he had not been able to clear of mortgage) to the use of the state. He received during his lifetime 300 boys from the Birmingham juvenile court, fed them, clothed them, and taught them industry, cleanliness and honor, so that ninety-five per cent "made good". Yet the state never gave him money for his services. Her stories make us realize that once given the impetus to social service the South will find a hearty response among her people, of whatever race.

In Black and White is the book of a philanthropist and is oblivious of the political and labor movements of the Southern working class since the war, movements in which the Negro has taken a small part. It is the appeal of *noblesse oblige*; the recognition that advantages are obligations. We believe that it will meet with a warm response among the many thoughtful southerners who desire to meet the race problem in the spirit of humanity; and the Northerner will find it full of interest, and written with a delightful humor that makes it one of the most readable of our sociological books of today.

MARY WHITE OVINGTON.

ROUGHING IT WITH BOYS

By Geo. W. Hinckley. Association Press. 266 pp. Price \$.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.82.



In a true sense this book might be called the real diary of a real man. The boys also are real, and the various chapters tell the stories of different groups of boys from the Good Will Home, in Hinckley, Maine, with whom he has tramped and camped in the woods

and along the coast of Maine. The style is that of the diary and the newspaper and reveals the man.

This revelation of a real man living with and not just for his boys gives its chief value to the book. The chapters brighten the eye and fill the lungs and expand the nostrils as the real woods and sea do. There is also advice and experience about simple methods of taking outings. These outdoor experiences are interesting and suggestive, but what the reader must not miss is the sight of the man himself in the midst of his boys. A man with a yellow streak in him cannot stand such intimacy. One does not need more evidence than is given in this little book to learn the real reason for the remarkable success of the Good Will Home.

For example, note the all wool quality of a man who invites one of his huskiest boys out from a winter camp for a walk, with this result: After they were a mile from camp and the man thought no one in the camp could hear a cry for help, he grappled with the boy,

and after a doubtful struggle put him down on his back in the snow and sat on him, with the words: "I came out here so that I could put you down and give your peachy cheeks the biggest rub they have had in many a long day, sonny; take that." And with those words I began to rub his cheeks vigorously with frozen snow." On the way back the boy watched his chance and threw the man down and sat on him with the words: "Do you know what I have got you down here for? 'Twas so I could." And then he gave my face the severest rubbing with that sandy crisp snow that I have ever experienced." No shoddy relationship with boys can go through a washing like that and come out without wrinkles.

HENRY W. THURSTON.

PLAY AND RECREATION FOR THE OPEN COUNTRY

By Henry S. Curtis. Ginn & Co. 265 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.37.



Dr. Curtis presents what may be considered the latest word in the recreational problem for rural communities. With brevity, conciseness and breadth of view, the subject is presented from the practical standpoint. At the same time the philosophy of play

and its full significance to country life are strongly emphasized.

The introduction gives a general outline of the problem. Play in the farm home is then considered, showing that the mother is the natural social organizer for her home circle. The fireside group, corn popping, chestnut roasting, games, Christmas parties and visiting afford color and culture to home life and opportunity for social development. Family happiness rather than family prosperity should be inculcated as the ideal of the farm home. Practical suggestions are given for play in the doorway with sand bin, slide, swings, tent and home pets, and for outdoor games. The experience of country childhood has been incomplete unless there has been tree climbing, hunting for nests of birds and bees, swimming, and outdoor romps and rambles.

Rural school play possibilities cover four chapters showing the need for equipment of school ground, organization of school play and value of school exhibitions and corn clubs. The broad question of recreation for the rural community as a whole—the opportunities open to the country boy and girl, to the farmer and his wife—is treated in seven chapters. Clergymen, teachers, school superintendents, agricultural secretaries, Y. M. C. A. and Y. W. C. A. secretaries find here a field for service as community social organizers.

The need of play for the adolescent country girl is emphasized. Her life on the farm offers more drudgery than that of her brother whose work takes him into the fields and woods. Some wholesome stimulus to the spirit of ro-

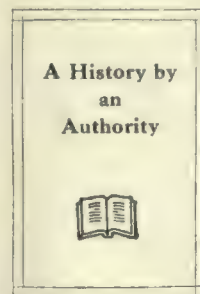
mance and adventure latent at least in every growing girl must be afforded. The rural social center, its ideals, methods and agencies is the final topic, covering five chapters.

Dr. Curtis in his insight, expert judgment and presentation gives convincing proof of the deep significance of the country life movement and its wonderful potentialities for bringing back to the farm some of the poetry and romance of pioneer days; for vitalizing to a truer and more wholesome conception of life our large rural populations; for preventing stagnation and monotony, the bane of many dead rural communities; and for keeping the younger generation on the farm by offering them life that will satisfy the spirit in place of the life that is at present too full of colorless drudgery, and that is driving the farming population, in restless thousands to the already overcongested cities.

MABEL RAINSFORD HAINES.

MUNICIPAL FRANCHISES—2 Volumes

By Delos F. Wilcox. McGraw Hill Book Co. Vol. I, 710 pp.; Vol. II, 885 pp. Price \$5.00 each; by mail of THE SURVEY, Vol. I, \$5.18; Vol. II, \$5.24.



Mr. Wilcox's work embraces two closely printed and compact volumes containing a mass of much-needed and well-assorted data concerning municipal franchises. It is somewhat remarkable and interesting that history in part is repeating itself. During the middle ages

the cities were the centers of commercial and intellectual activity, the hotbeds of politics, as well as the abodes of patrons of art and learning. In fact, to a large extent the history of the period is the history of its cities.

Today, again, the city is occupying the center of the stage by reason of the tremendous aggregation of wealth which it represents and the congested population which finds shelter within its boundaries. It has assumed an importance in American history and matters politic which demands attention.

The tendency in America has been for the population to drift to the cities and the urban population has increased at the expense of the rural.

Coupled with phenomenal increase in the urban population came tremendously vital and perplexing problems in the political lives of the cities as well as in the states in which they were located. There arose also problems of properly housing the congested population, properly transporting them through the cities, properly lighting their homes, supplying them with water, sewage service and schools.

A great mass of people hastily thrown together all intent upon their individual business were very apt to allow a few interested politicians to manage their affairs for them. Hence a great part of the Saturnalia of municipal corruption of the United States, which has

been a source of shame to the country and to its right-thinking citizens.

It is only of recent years that the American public has begun the examination of its own business and intelligently to study municipal conditions. Today municipal franchises and privileges are being regarded as a property of the citizens which are to be parted with only for an adequate consideration. The value therefore of a study of this kind can scarcely be overestimated. Mr. Wilcox is especially fitted to write upon the subject, being chief of the bureau of franchises of the public service commission of the first district of New York and the author of several works on American cities. Here we have in its most accessible form, not only the history of franchises and a discussion of their real nature but a wonderful collection of franchises which have been granted in various American cities, not only under the old pernicious system of private profit but under the modern theory of public benefit.

The evils which have grown from the former system are clearly outlined; the methods indicated of averting them for the future. There are also chapters outlining the history of various public utilities,—electric light and power, telephones, telegraphs, water works, and street railways,—with franchises under which they are operated in different American cities. A particularly valuable part of the work is that dealing with the taxation and the control of public utilities. The author is in favor of municipal ownership.

To the student of municipal franchises, to publicists and those interested in improving conditions within their municipalities the book will be especially valuable. It is clearly, sanely, and logically written and is rich in the collected material.

EMANUEL STERNHEIM.

BOOKS RECEIVED

SCHOOL COSTS AND SCHOOL ACCOUNTING. By J. Howard Hutchinson. Teachers College, Columbia University. 151 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

WOMEN WORKERS IN SEVEN PROFESSIONS. By Edith J. Morley. E. P. Dutton & Co. 318 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.12.

DEMOCRACY AND RACE FRICTION. By John M. Mecklin. The Macmillan Co. 273 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.37.

JOSEPH PULITZER. By Alleyne Ireland. Mitchell Kennerley. 286 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.

MERCANTILE CREDIT. By James Edward Hagerly. Henry Holt & Co. 382 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.12.

THE DEAF. By Harry Best. T. Y. Crowell. 340 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.11.

THE FUNDAMENTAL BASIS OF NUTRITION. By Graham Lusk. Yale University Press. 70 pp. Price \$0.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$0.54.

REGULATION. By W. G. Barnard. Stewart & Kidd Co. 124 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.

SOCIALISM. Promise or Menace? By Morris Hillquit and John A. Ryan. The Macmillan Co. 270 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.

THE BACKWARD CHILD. By Barbara Spofford Morgan. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 263 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

THE RIDE HOME. By Florence Wilkinson Evans. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 389 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.

INTERPRETATIONS AND FORECASTS. By Victor Branford. Mitchell Kennerley. 411 pp. Price \$2.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.70.



Editorials

EDWARD T. DEVINE
JANE ADDAMS
GRAHAM TAYLOR
Associate Editors

PAUL U. KELLOGG
Editor

HOW the small town is to obtain trained leadership in social progress is one of the most puzzling problems incident to the country life movement. The fact that small towns do not yet realize the need for such leadership does not alter the fact that social problems in the village need just as expert treatment as those in the city. It does mean, however, that professional leadership from outside is unwelcome and so likely to be unsuccessful.

The first difficulty is to find the position into which to put the leader without arousing the antagonism of the community. Permanent results in a small town are surest to come from the leadership of a person who resides in the town, and who has as his visible means of support a position in an established institution. Of such institutions, affording the opportunity for social leadership, the church, the school, and the library are the chief, if not the sole, examples. A village library does not ordinarily employ the full time of a librarian; but how it may do so, and, upon the basis of its recognized service, move on to other and broader service, is told in the article on the nameless town, published on page 192.

The second difficulty is to find a man willing to devote his life to a small community who is at the same time big enough to handle those problems. Yet there is a peculiar satisfaction to be derived from the personal, intimate, exhaustive services to the people of a small community. And large results may be obtained by the man who is big enough to see the vision of a small community. Here, again, this article is suggestive, for it is written by such a man.

THE death of Robert C. Hall of Pittsburgh removes a man of social intuition, generous and original. Mr. Hall was one of the first Pittsburghers to grasp the Pittsburgh survey idea, giving the staff the use of offices in the Apollo Building throughout the field work.

This attitude was characteristic, for Mr. Hall espoused the cause of Miss Moore when she started at Aspinwall the first camp school for immigrants in the United States, and supported her legislative campaign to empower other counties to start similar schools, the beginning of a widespread work for foreigners in the industrial districts of the state. He was one of the first backers also, of the Pittsburgh Associated Charities when backing meant both initiative and conviction.

THE JUNIOR REPUBLIC IDEA

HENRY W. THURSTON

THE action of the trustees of the Junior Republic at Freeville in putting on record "their unqualified belief in the moral integrity of William R. George," and the action on the same day of the directors of the National Association of Junior Republics in officially expressing their "continued and complete confidence in Mr. George," are in the nature of decisions by a court of last resort. Although personally interested, these directors more truly than any other persons had "full and complete knowledge of all the facts in all the various matters involved in relation to William R. George."

Taken in connection with the decision of Joseph H. Choate, Samuel Seabury and Miss Wald, quoted in full in *THE SURVEY* of March 14, the action of these two Boards of Directors shifts the whole question as related to Mr. George personally from one of crime and moral character to one of conventionality, good judgment and good pedagogy.

In other words, according to these verdicts there is no evidence to prove that "Daddy" George is other than he has always seemed; namely, a big, warm-hearted, unconventional dynamo of a man whose consuming passion is to try to teach boys and girls to play a square game from free choice and not from external compulsion.

Mr. George is asked by the National Association to "continue to carry on the great Junior Republic work founded by him," by helping to establish and develop Junior Republics throughout the United States.

IN the light of these official decisions as to the character of Mr. George, this question may well be left behind and all future discussion of the man and of the republics established under his influence most profitably be focussed on the three pedagogical problems involved:

What is the Junior Republic idea?

What conditions are essential to make the idea effective?

Among what groups of people is the working out of the idea of practical importance?

As a dogmatic contribution toward such a discussion the following theses are submitted:

1. The Junior Republic idea in essence is that

all immature persons and all persons who are habitually anti-social in conduct must repeatedly have real freedom of choice as to their actions, both as individuals and as members of groups, before they can learn to become really self-directing individuals and effective members of their group.

2. Three conditions are essential to any real working out of this idea:

There must be situations in which there are problems to be solved which the persons concerned regard as worth solving. In the language of athletics there must be a real game to play.

The method of solving the problem must grow out of the nature of the problem itself; it must not be chosen as a method merely because it has proved successful in solving some other problem. The rules of the game must grow out of the game itself.

The immature persons who are trying to solve real social problems together must know each other well. The members of the team need much practice in order to learn how to play a good team game.

3. The George Junior Republic idea, as stated above, is of fundamental importance in all homes, schools, reformatories and prisons whose aim is to produce citizens who have self-control and social initiative.

It is probably due to Mr. George more than to any other one man in America that the Junior Republic idea is now challenging every parent and pedagogue among us. It would be remarkable if some of the conditions which during the evolution of the republic he has thought essential to the working out of the idea do not finally prove to be unessential.

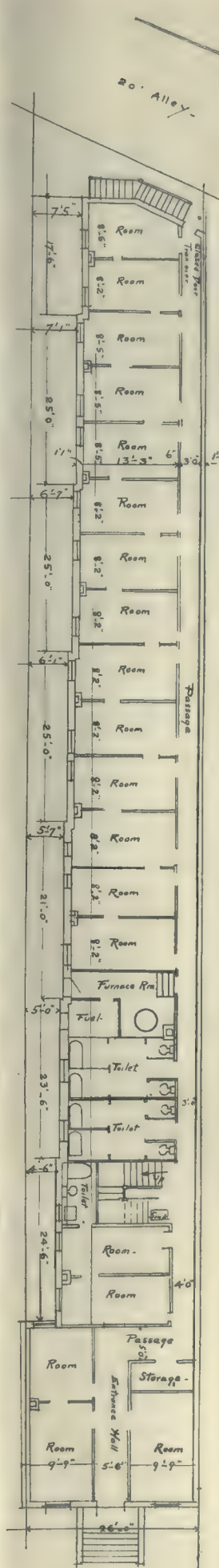
The challenge of the republic idea is nevertheless a permanent one to all the rest of us to show that under different conditions we can get the results he seeks.

WASHINGTON ALLEYS: A PROPHECY FULFILLED

SEVERAL times during the past year THE SURVEY has called attention to efforts of various social, civic and commercial organizations in Washington to secure from Congress legislation which would convert into minor streets the hidden alleys that constitute the capital city's slums.

In commenting upon this proposed legislation it has been prophesied that unless such action were taken, thus giving two frontages to the deep lots, the alley dwelling would be superseded by a type that is even worse, the deep, many-room tenement or barrack that extends back from the street to the rear lot line. To all the disadvantages of the alley dwelling, the tenement adds lot overcrowding, the herding of families, and dark, unventilated rooms.

Such was the prophecy. Already, while Congress dawdled, the prophecy has come true. There has



been erected on Rhode Island Avenue a dwelling which surpasses all our imaginings. On a lot 26 feet wide, which runs back to an alley cutting it at an angle so that one side is 194 feet deep and the other 206 feet, is a house that for two rooms' depth covers the whole width of the lot and then leaves a passage at the side varying from 4 feet 6 inches to 7 feet 5 inches in width. This house extends back 188 feet on the short side of the lot and 193 feet on the long side. A bend brings the rear wall within 6 feet of the rear lot line. Into this narrow space projects an outside stairway that occupies all except $2\frac{1}{2}$ or 3 feet. This is the back yard!

Inside, this iniquitous dwelling is divided into a long series of rooms opening from a gloomy hall 3 feet wide and 166 feet long! Each of these rooms has a doorway opening into the rooms on either side so that they may be rented singly or in pairs. The rear of the house—within three feet of the alley—is, of course, just as much an alley dwelling as is any of those now under the ban.

So the law is flouted by the simple expedient of joining the alley dwelling to street dwelling and so filling up the yard space that used to give light and air to both.

The people of Washington and their rulers in Congress have persuaded themselves that Washington was not threatened by the tenement. Their simple argument was that there are no tenements, consequently there will be none. Now there is a tenement and such a tenement as would not be tolerated on crowded Manhattan. Perhaps with this fact before them they may pass their alley bill and secure an adequate housing code which will ensure that all future dwellings shall provide at least the fundamentals of decent living.

WHEN PEACE COMES TO COLORADO

JOHN A. FITCH

THE federal troops in Colorado may be depended on to disarm the combatants in the warfare that their coming has temporarily ended, to stop the shooting of women and children and to insure safety for human life. But there is one thing they cannot bring to Colorado, and that is peace. Nor will it come until the issues raised in this present strike are settled.

What are those issues?

In the public statement with which he supplemented his testimony before the congressional committee, John D. Rockefeller, Jr., attempted to define them.

His statement is that 90 per cent of the miners have been satisfied and contented and that the strikers were coerced by the threats and intimidations of unprincipled agitators from eastern states; that all the demands of the strikers had been met long before the strike was called or thought of, except the demand for union recognition; that the issue raised is one of personal liberty, because the union, if recognized, would determine who might or might not work in the mines; and that the final issue is "whether the state, or failing the state, the nation shall make good the constitutional guarantee of law and order."

For clarity of expression and apparent conviction as to the large moral issues involved, no other statement from the operators can compare with this of Mr. Rockefeller. It must be read, however, in the light of Mr. Rockefeller's acknowledgment made before the congressional committee that he has not been in Colorado in ten years and has never talked with the miners he believes he is defending. An examination of the facts clearly demonstrates that of these statements the only accurate one is the last. The final issue does concern the constitutional guarantees of law and order, but not as understood by Mr. Rockefeller.

The statement that 90 per cent of the coal miners of southern Colorado are happy and contented would be ridiculous if it were not too tragically false to be ridiculous. During the ten years that Mr. Rockefeller has not set foot in Colorado the miners have worked there under the domination of armed guards, employed by the companies and deputized by the state as peace officers.

Intimidation of the coal miners has been rife as Mr. Rockefeller says. The operators charge that union members have been guilty of it the past year and the Federal Grand Jury backs them up in the charge. Not only last year, however, but for a decade preceding intimidation has flourished, and men guilty of it have been guards which in the words of the same grand jury have been controlled by local companies. They have assaulted and beaten miners who offended them or the company. At the point of the gun they have compelled men to leave camp. They have refused admittance to the camps to men who did not please them, including officials of the state labor department who came under authority of the law

on trips of inspection. They have arbitrarily arrested men, who were behaving themselves, and thrown them into jail.

Does any one believe that 90 per cent of the miners are happy and contented under such a regime? One of the demands of the strikers is for the "abolition of the notorious and criminal guard system." Mr. Rockefeller in his statement does not mention this demand.

A list of demands is enumerated in Mr. Rockefeller's statement, however, and he declares that, excepting recognition of the union, they have been "voluntarily granted" by the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company. These include the eight-hour day, semi-monthly payment of wages, freedom to trade elsewhere than at company stores, the right to a check-weighman and an increase in wages.

The use of the word "grant" in connection with these demands reveals something of the situation that has prevailed in Colorado. Can it be that Mr. Rockefeller, member of the Board of Directors of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, does not know that the laws of Colorado require the doing of every one of these things except the wage increase?

Mr. Rockefeller, speaking for the leading corporation, is wholly vague as to the date when his company got around to observing the laws. There are many indications that it was not until the strike was brewing that the coal companies generally began to obey them, and the Federal Grand Jury last fall made no exception in its sweeping charges against the coal companies on these very counts.

A CHECK-WEIGHMAN is a man chosen by the miners to represent them at the scales and keep a record of weights as a check on the tally kept by the employer's representative. The law of Colorado, as is the case in practically all other mining states, requires that the operators shall always allow the selection of such a representative and give him access to the tippie.

Two years ago the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company posted notices on its properties that a check-weighman selected by his fellow workmen would be allowed at any of the company's mines. President J. F. Welborn testified before the congressional committee that, with the exception of one mine, the men have never seen fit to maintain a check-weighman for more than a few weeks. He denied that any request for a check-weighman has ever been declined by his company or the men discharged for asking for one.

The Federal Grand Jury notwithstanding found a general belief among the miners that a demand for a check-weighman would be followed by discharge. Reports of deputy inspectors of the Colorado Department of Labor have for years stated that mine scales in southern Colorado were grossly inaccurate and always on the side of light weights.

J. C. Osgood, chairman of the Board of Directors of the Victor-American Fuel Company, testified before the congressional investigating committee that his company did not regard the eight-hour law until 1913. Mr. Osgood professed to be

lieve that until that time it had not been binding on the coal companies. He intimated that he had had some influence in putting language into the former law which drew its fangs. And yet for more than ten years the Colorado constitution has required an eight-hour day in coal mines. That has also been the clear intent of the law, which, until 1913, every coal company in southern Colorado interpreted to suit itself.

When the Colorado operators cry out for the enforcement of law as the final issue of the strike, they are not coming into court with clean hands. Nor do they carry conviction in their espousal of the open shop.

Mr. Rockefeller declares in his statement that should the union be recognized, all the employes who have not cared to join the union—and he thinks the number would include about 90 per cent of them—would have to be discharged unless they submitted to union dictation. This is a principle, country-wide in its scope, he tells us, and asks whether a small minority of union men shall control the vast majority outside. As a matter of fact viewing the industry as country-wide there are about 750,000 coal miners in the United States, and of these 400,000 are members of the United Mine Workers of America.

To judge of that organization we must look not only to Colorado but to Iowa, Indiana, Illinois, Ohio and the other states where the union is on a peace footing. At a recent hearing before the Commission on Industrial Relations a large coal operator from Illinois testified that in the mid-western field the union had been straightforward and honorable in dealing with the employers, and for the miners it had meant immeasurable social betterment. There the check-off is in full operation, and union dues are taken out of the pay envelopes of all miners by the companies themselves. The same issue of the closed shop was raised in the great anthracite strike, when the United Mine Workers carried their organization into eastern Pennsylvania, and there it was met by an award which left union membership optional with every man, and created a conciliation board which for over ten years has made for peace and mutual understanding.

The terms upon which employers and employes in the Colorado field might work together would have to be threshed out between them, there as in these other districts. But the present strike is for a more elementary principle, the right to negotiate.

JUDGED by their past performance the operators of Colorado are not fighting for the "open shop." They have stoutly maintained a closed shop—closed to organized labor—in violation of a law of the state. True enough, they offered several months ago to yield to many of the important demands of the strikers if they would only give up their demand for union recognition; but what did that offer of the employers involve? It was nothing more nor less than the offer of a promise to obey the laws of Colorado! The strikers refused the offer.

For ten years and more the operators have been

under an obligation stronger than a promise—that of every citizen to obey the laws—and they have utterly flouted that obligation. What reason have the miners to expect now that they will regard a lesser one?

The miners in vain have looked to the state to protect them in their rights. The state has made no effort to enforce the laws. What reason have they to expect better of it in the future? There is just one power left in which they have confidence—the power of their own organized strength.

If further evidence is needed read the testimony before the congressional investigating committee, the report of the Federal Grand Jury at Pueblo, the reports of the commissioner of labor. Go to Colorado, to Pueblo and Trinidad, as did the writer of these lines. Three years ago, on the ground, at every step, he was assailed with facts that revealed a condition of high-handed disregard of law, of labor exploitation and of repression of personal liberty. The half of the story has not been told.

To Mr. Rockefeller also it is a struggle for personal liberty—in defense of which he is willing to risk a fortune. Curiously enough the issue seems to rise with every decade. In 1884 the miners struck and lost. They lost again in 1894 and again in 1904.

Three times in thirty years Mr. Rockefeller's principle has been vindicated. Individual, as opposed to collective, bargaining has been maintained. And three times the miners upon whom the principle has been imposed have emerged again from pit mouth and shaft and have faced hunger, cold, deportation and death in opposition to the Rockefeller ideal. It is a liberty that has made for recurring war.

And so in 1914 the struggle came on again, and men, women and children have been killed. There has been quibbling discussion about who fired the first shot, as if the half of Colorado could be thrown into open war by a single rifle ball! The employers who have disobeyed the laws, the state which has not enforced them; the employers who hired mine guards to assault and intimidate, the state which took those mine guards in company pay into its militia, made some of them officers and then turned them on the strikers; the employers who had machine guns shipped in from West Virginia, the state which took those machine guns and turned them on the tented camps where dwelt the families of the strikers—what answer have they to the question of responsibility for war?

Peace will not come to Colorado with disarmament. It will not come if Mr. Rockefeller spends his fortune in defense of the thing that he thinks is personal liberty. It will not come if the strikers are starved into submission. For with 1884, 1894 and 1904 in retrospect; with Ludlow and Forbes crying to high Heaven in 1914, all precedents point to war again 1924. It is no peace that merely chokes the issue down.

When peace does come, there will be personal liberty. But it will be more than a liberty to toil. It will include liberty to enjoy the fruits of toil. And until there is protection for that liberty there will be no peace.

Communications

MIKVEH BATHS

TO THE EDITOR: Replying to the article on Mikveh Baths in *THE SURVEY* for April 18, permit me to say that this question has for some time engaged the attention of the Board of Authoritative Rabbis of the Jewish Community (Kehillah) of New York city. We hope that the rabbis themselves will be able, in the course of a reasonable length of time, to work out this problem in a manner that will meet all Jewish religious requirements and the standards set by the Health Department.

J. L. MAGNES.

[Chairman, Jewish Community.]
New York.

WE HAVE WITH US TONIGHT

TO THE EDITOR: At the recent City Probation Conference in New York two things stuck out like the proverbial stubbed toe and sore thumb. As characteristics common to "conferences" in general these things call for frank criticism in particular, viz: tardiness and dilatoriness of procedure on the one hand; on the other, undue deference to the authoritative self-complacency of presiding officers and to the assumed expert knowledge of "guests", so-called.

All sessions were scheduled for 8 p. m. None began prior to 8:30—some, indeed, as late as quarter of 9. In one instance adjournment took place after 11 o'clock.

Presiding officers had been requested not to "talk" themselves, which, nevertheless, after so stating, one and all promptly proceeded to do, and their "opening remarks" consumed all the way from one-quarter to one-half an hour.

Those called upon to "lead the discussion" should have confined themselves to 15 minutes; but some of the "we-have-with-us-tonights" used up double that time.

"General discussion from the floor" was to have proceeded on the five-minutes-per-speaker basis. The few who responded—chief probation officers, chiefly—far exceeded this limit. They not only spoke frequently in each session, and night after night, but in the majority of instances, many more than five minutes at one time. As a result there was much weariness of the flesh and vexation of the spirit.

On behalf of these gentlemen, however, it should be said that, for the most part, they did address themselves to the subject under discussion and that most of them had something to say at that. The "guests", almost without exception, and the chairmen, one and all, talked platitudes all around Robin Hood's barn.

To be sure, these gentlemen at the outset invariably entered meek disclaimers as to practical knowledge or personal familiarity with the professional

proficiency of the men (let alone women) actually on the job. The court had come to "listen and to learn" at the feet of its own creatures and agents. Indeed, it was much like "carrying coals to Newcastle" for a mere magistrate to enlighten a civil service probation officer either upon the nature of the problems confronting him (or her) or upon the methods applicable to their solution. Duly impressed the officers sat in solemn silence, while the court held forth—and then some!

DR. KAY.

IDEAL CO-OPERATION

TO THE EDITOR: I stood looking out of my office window, one rainy day, and my attention was directed to the drops scattered over the pane. There was not enough energy in any one of the drops to make it move and there seemed no way to unite them.

Then, one drop that was a little larger than the others rolled down and joined one just beneath it. This made a large drop and it began rolling down the pane, getting larger and gaining force as it went, until it swept everything before it.

Here, thought, I, is an example of what we may do by uniting and throwing our energy into one common cause. There may not be energy enough in a single one of us to accomplish anything, but by quietly uniting our efforts, one at a time, we finally gain such a force and momentum that we carry everything before us.

Since learning that lesson the old adage, "United we stand, divided we fall" has shaped itself in my mind to, "Separated we stand, united we move." Analyze this reconstructed adage and we have, "Separated, we can do nothing; united, everything is possible of accomplishment." This is the great principle of co-operation and makes for the upbuilding of any community, public movement or work of any kind.

ALAN PRESSLEY WILSON.

[President Episcopal Society
for Social Advance.]
Baltimore, Md.

THE GUNMEN

TO THE EDITOR: In a recent number of *THE SURVEY* there was a brief sketch of the lives of the four unfortunate human creatures who have been brutally electrocuted. During my eight years' stay in the United States, I never before read a more hard-hearted legalized murder and fundamentally unjust punishment toward so-called "criminals". In the brief sketch of the lives of these four human beings the writer depicts most vividly the hard circumstances and dirty environment these

young men had to live in in childhood.

Personally, knowing the indifference and selfishness of those who are responsible for the making of criminals, I think this method of punishing them is a black stain to our "civilization", a disgrace to humanity and a damnable crime before God and Nature. Let the innocent ones turn the electric current on the murderers, Jesus of Nazareth would say. If society did its duty, by preventing young men from becoming criminals, it would benefit in two ways. It would hasten the Kingdom of God right here on earth, and it would spare itself the occasion of murdering men with the funny pretence of "curing" murder.

There is no doubt the slogan of "prevention" is much better, cheaper and more effective than "cure", morally as well as socially and materially. It shall soon prevail in our means of putting things to rights, and coming generations will smile at our stupidity and lack of common sense, but will forgive us, supposing that we lived in a more barbarous, uncivilized, and unsocialized epoch. They will keep our electric chairs only as reminders of the degree of their moral, mental and social progress.

STACHYS MEIMARIDES.

[Greek Missionary, Congregational Church.]

Haverhill, Mass.

POLICEWOMEN

TO THE EDITOR: So many inquiries reach me as to how many policewomen there are in the United States and in what cities, that I want to ask the co-operation of your interested and widely scattered readers in compiling a complete list.

This movement has met with great approval and little active opposition, yet there is some opposition, together with indifference and false rumors. These can be met by the ample array of facts and figures now available, if assembled.

At the present time no one knows exactly how many cities have such officers. I have personally spoken in over one hundred cities in the United States and Canada to help secure their appointment and have sent information to many others in response to letters of inquiry, besides addressing three great national gatherings whose delegates represented every section of the country. Yet I have absolute knowledge of but twenty cities where regular policewomen exist. I am sure there are many more.

If *SURVEY* readers will be kind enough to write me giving the names, time of appointment, whether under civil service, etc., I will, from the accumulated data, work out a complete list for later publication in *THE SURVEY*. To make such a compilation valuable it must be accurate.

I will willingly make it comprehensive enough to include all co-operating with, as well as those who are working directly under police departments. But, in order to do so, those sending letters need to inquire carefully and state the exact facts. This is emphasized, since for a while the giving of a star to

women workers in other lines, like charity workers, was hailed by the press as the appointment of a policewoman.

Regarding regular policewomen, the facts to be noted are, whether they are under civil service, whether not under civil service, but paid by the city, or whether paid by clubs or private citizens as a demonstration in the hope that the city will take the work over.

This includes policewomen in small towns who also do the occasional matron work and the valuable travelers' aid agents, some of whom have police stars.

Exact statements regarding local appointments, statements of special difficulties overcome and whatever additional information may be furnished will be greatly appreciated and given back as a co-operative service.

ALICE STEBBINS WELLS.

[Policewoman.]

P. O. Box 1856,
Los Angeles.

FACTORY HANDS

TO THE EDITOR: It seems to me that THE SURVEY occasionally makes the easy mistake of judging by irrelevant standards. Because a writer would be unhappy if he worked in a factory is no reason why factory hands should be pitied.

In your issue of February 21 was a poem by Howard M. Jones called Plows. It called the manager of a plow factory to task because he failed to appreciate his men, and it rather pitied a lot of the men because they were sweaty and unappreciated.

In the first place, nine times out of ten the factory manager did appreciate his men. He might not talk about them and he might not think of them as being picturesque, but he would appreciate them in a definite, active way. He would know what men were workers and what men were not, and what men were loyal, and what men were cheerful, and what men were trying to improve themselves, and what men were not. He would know their economic worth very accurately, and he would also know whether they had families and children. Also he would be very proud of his best men, but he would not be at all sorry for any of them because they had to work and have sweaty skins.

Why is the idea of a man working in a factory so pitiable? Are not the men who toil and sweat of just as positive service in the world as any of us? Is it not a good thing to work hard and produce? Are not most workers happy doing it? And if workers lead strong, useful lives, are not the men who give the workers a place to work and good tools and machines to work with and sound methods under which to apply their efforts and earn increasing wages? Are not these men, these managers, living useful lives also? And why should a manager who is accustomed to a vigorous environment and strong men and who knows that his men are better off than their fathers and happier than if they loafed, why should he speak of his men with a sob in his voice?

It is true that if a poet worked in a

plow factory he would be miserable. In his case, a few soft words of sympathy from the manager would not fall on barren ground. But plow-makers are different—fortunately for our country which still has many fields to be plowed—and plow makers, in their way, are happy no matter how distant the manager's manner may be. They are strong men and they do not need indiscriminate pity.

VIOLETS

An Industrial Poem

There were a thousand men in the factory;

Some thrummed guitars,
Others ran whining emery wheels
Cooled in Florida water.

In an electric brougham, a workman passed by me;

His handsome curls twined with violets,
Beside him a plowshare.

After him came another man

In a morning coat,
Hands full of orders

Which he tore up and threw away
Gaily

He seemed happy to me, but the manager
Wept softly to see him work.

Later in the office,

He told me proudly

That of all the men in the plow business,
His were the handsomest.

CHANNING TURNER.

Geneva, Ill.

TO THE EDITOR: Mr. Turner's letter is so entertaining and his parody so amusing that I don't want to spoil it by saying anything, except, of course, the perfectly evident fact that he has entirely missed the point of my poem.

HOWARD M. JONES.

Madison, Wis.

JOTTINGS

LONDON LECTURER COMING

Rev. James Marchant, F.R.S., director and general secretary of the National Council of Public Morals for Great and Greater Britain, will arrive in this country May 17. He is on a lecture tour which will include visits to the large cities of North America, Australia, Africa and New Zealand. His first lecture here, on The New Gospel of Race Regeneration, will be in the Y. M. C. A. auditorium, Brooklyn, May 18, under the auspices of the World's Purification Federation and the Y. M. C. A.

PUTTING OUT RED LIGHTS

Mayor Baker has agreed to co-operate with the Cleveland Federated Churches in gradually eliminating the segregated district. The first move was to order that no patron might carry liquor into a resort—sale of liquor in them had been prohibited for some time—and that a resort once closed was closed for good and could not reopen under any circumstances.

SCOTT DECISION REVERSED

The Supreme Court of New Jersey has reversed the decision of the county court of Passaic where Alexander Scott, editor of a labor paper, was sentenced to a term in prison for "hostility to government" in criticizing the Paterson police during the silk strike.

The opinion points out that if the law could be interpreted, as it was in the county court, it would be a crime to urge the retirement of an administration and the election of members of an opposing political party.

NEW YORK CITY CONFERENCE

Public health, families, settlements and recreation, municipal needs, delinquency and children are the major topics to be discussed at the fifth New York City Conference of Charities and Correction, May 19-21. The opening session will be held the evening of May 19 in the Polytechnic Institute Hall, Brooklyn. The sessions of May 20 will be held in the United Charities Building, Manhattan. On May 21 a visit will be made to the Lincoln Agricultural School, Lincolndale.

RELIEF ON CENSUS LINES

The divisions of Manhattan and Bronx, New York city, used by the Federation of Churches and the Census of 1910, have been adopted as districts by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. This gives a basis for direct comparison between the association's family records and the census statistics of race, age, immigration, and the like. The number of nurses and visitors has been increased.

NATIONAL EMPLOYMENT-BUREAUS

The federal Industrial Relations Commission has proposed a system of employment bureaus and labor clearing-houses to cover the whole country with a national bureau in charge at Washington. An advisory council would be made up of equal numbers of employers and employees. Public hearings on the proposal began May 4 in New York.

PhotoPublicity

SLIDES and PHOTOGRAPHS

ON

Social Subjects

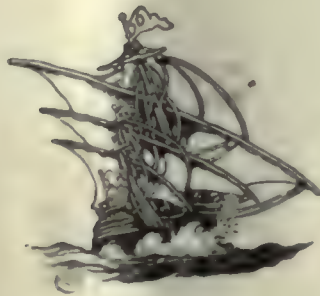
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92

THE SURVEY

May 23, 1914
Price 10 Cents

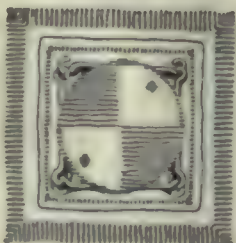


Volume XXXII
Number 8



The Eight Hour Day in Great Britain
and in the
United States Steel Corporation

The Union *and* the Chicago Restaurants



AN ADVENTURE IN
CO-OPERATIVE JOURNALISM



SURVEY ASSOCIATES

PUBLICATION OFFICE
105 East 22d Street
New York

INCORPORATED

Robert W. deForest, President
Arthur P. Kellogg, Secretary Frank Tucker, Treasurer

WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 8

Contents

May 23, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

AMERICAN TRAINING FOR BULGARIAN NURSES	209
A PAGEANT OF THE NATIONS IN NEW YORK	209
ACCIDENT PREVENTION IN MINNESOTA	210
UNIVERSITIES AND THE PUBLIC SERVICE	210
STRIKE BREAKERS BANNED IN COLORADO	211
MEDIATION PLAN OF INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION	211
DRASTIC PRISON REFORM URGED IN NEW YORK	212
PURE FOOD LAWS: SANITARY AND ECONOMIC ASPECTS	212
FAILURE OF EFFORT TO STOP FORTUNE-TELLING	213

UP THE ROAD, a Poem	Charles S. Newhall	213
-------------------------------	--------------------	-----

INDUSTRY

EFFORTS TO STANDARDIZE CHICAGO RESTAURANTS—THE HEN- RICI STRIKE	Ellen Gates Starr	214
BRITISH EXPERIENCE WITH AN 8-HOUR DAY IN THE STEEL TRADE	John Hodge	216
AFTERMATH OF INDUSTRIAL WAR AT IPSWICH, MASS.	Edgar Fletcher Allen	216

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY Edited by Graham Taylor		
THE CHURCH AND PHILANTHROPIC ORGANIZATIONS	Allan Conant Ferrin	218
WITH HALF A LUNG: THE STORY OF A COMMUNITY PREACHER	Fred Eastman	219
THE SOCIAL SERVICE CHURCH UNIONS: ITS OBJECTS	Annie T. Mock	220

THE TREND OF THINGS		221
EDITORIALS		222

PERSONALS		224
---------------------	--	-----

FINGER PRINTS		
THE PRICE OF A PENCIL	C. M. Goethe	225

COMMUNICATIONS		226
--------------------------	--	-----

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Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents.

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The GIST of IT—

IF the eight-hour day in the steel industry is successful in Great Britain (page 216), why does the United States Steel Corporation refuse to adopt it (page 222)?

BANNING strike-breakers in Colorado—a unique Presidential order coming just as the staff of the Commission on Industrial Relations submits a bill to create a national board of mediation and conciliation. Page 211.

DON'T destroy Sing Sing—make a criminological laboratory and hospital of it, urges the New York State Prison Commission. The commission calls also for a court of rehabilitation. Page 212.

AN American nurse to head a training school in Bulgaria. Page 209.

THE Henrici restaurant strike in Chicago, which has received little notice in the newspapers, was a demand for less work and more pay (two-thirds of waiters and waitresses "go flatfooted"). It showed how much a policeman loves a law-abiding "peaceful picket." Page 214.

PRESERVATIVES and incorrect labeling are not the dangers to our food supply most in need of emphasis, says Dr. C. E. A. Winslow. Page 212.

AN inventory of stock in a New England church. Page 218.

HOW a preacher with half a lung achieved whole-hearted service for his community. Page 219.

GRAPHITE isn't the only thing pressed into reporters' pencils; a little human exploitation is contributed for good measure. Page 222.

PUTTING personal elements into social service via the church. Page 220.

FATAL accidents in industry have declined in Minnesota. Page 210.

THE Peoples' Institute of New York is planning a pageant that will aim to show the immigrant that there is a place here for his native customs and national ways. Page 209.

THE textile strike at Ipswich, Mass., was called lost, but was there not a gain in "sweetness and light"? Page 216.

THE master craftsman of East End Neighborhood House, Cleveland. Page 211.

CHIEF Iron Tail visits a settlement. Page 210.

THE college man and public service. Page 210.

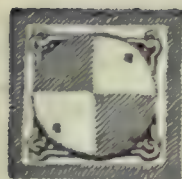
SEEKING fortunes and finding fortune-tellers. Page 213.

F. P. A. could think of a better one, but how is this for a last line—

NURSE rattlesnakes or teach temperance? Page 226.

THE SURVEY

209



COMMON WELFARE



AMERICAN TRAINING FOR BULGARIAN NURSES

ONE OF THE announced purposes of the coming visit to this country of Queen Eleanora, of Bulgaria, is to afford her majesty an opportunity to study American hospitals. Out of her interest in Bulgaria's nursing and hospital needs, quickened by the recent wars, has already sprung an arrangement with the American Red Cross which will result in giving American training to Bulgarian nurses in this country and in the sending of a Red Cross nurse to take charge of a training school for nurses in Sofia.

Through Madame Bakhmeteff, wife of the Russian ambassador to this country, Queen Eleanora made her appeal to the Red Cross. Accompanying her letter to Madame Bakhmeteff was the following statement of the queen's plan:

"Her Majesty Queen Eleanora wishes to establish a training school for nurses on the American plan, in the State Alexander Hospital, in Sofia. To this end she wishes to have four young Bulgarian women trained in the United States. She would like to find a hospital of good standing where they would be given their training, their board and lodging, free. In order, however, to be able to begin the training school now, when interest in nursing has been awakened by the last war, the queen would like, if means could be found in America, to engage a superintendent who could begin the work and get it well started while the young women were being trained. At the end of this time the queen hopes to have demonstrated the ability of the training school, and that the government will then arrange to have its expenses included in the regular hospital budget."

Helen Scott Hay, superintendent of the West Suburban Hospital, Oak Park, Ill., who has consented to go to Sofia to start the training school for nurses, will leave, it is expected, in August. The School for Nurses of the Presbyterian Hospital, New York, has agreed to take four nurses from Bulgaria and train them free of charge for three years.

Miss Hay is prominent in the work of many of the national organizations for nurses in this country and has also had a general teaching experience.



The children's judge of Denver expresses his opinion of "Beauty for Ashes," the autobiography of a housing reformer, appearing serially in THE SURVEY. Next installment June 6.

It just seems to have been impossible to go over Mrs. Bacon's story until recently. It is a wonderful story—just the kind of a story that ought to have been written a long time ago. The conditions and the difficulties described by Mrs. Bacon are those met with in nearly every city, large or small; and in writing the story of her own experiences in one city, she is writing what might be the experiences in every city. It should be an inspiration and a help to others and multiply the Mrs. Bacons throughout the country. We are sadly in need of them.

The kind of opposition and difficulties, pointed out by Mrs. Bacon in her most interesting narrative of personal experiences, will exist as long as communities are indifferent and fail to produce the type of woman who is sincere, sane, sensible, earnest and determined in calling attention to housing conditions, and other conditions that have to do with poverty, misfortune and crime, not only in the great cities but in the small cities and even the towns.

The articles are most entertainingly and interestingly written, and I sincerely trust will be published in book form and have the circulation they so richly deserve.

BEN B. LINDSEY.

Denver, Col.

PAGEANT OF THE NATIONS IN NEW YORK

A FESTIVAL AND PAGEANT OF NATIONS—aiming to interpret, not America to the foreigner, but the foreigner to America—is to be given in New York city June 1-6 by the the People's Institute. It is to be in large part the product of the immigrant and one of its purposes is to make the immigrant feel that there is a place in this country for his native customs and national ways.

Entertainments by different national groups will be given at Public School 63 each day from June 1 to 5. The pageant will occur on the sixth. A dozen nationalities will participate, each contributing a spectacle of something worthy in its native life. Nora Van Leeuwen, of the People's Institute staff, who has planned the pageant, describes it as follows:

"The pageant will go in a long procession through the streets of the lower East Side. There will be ten or more different groups of school children in costume, with banners and music, and a still larger number of adult groups representing the nationalities. There will be floats, streamers and cavalry. The procession will move to a great, bare field, in Eleventh street.

"All around this field there are looming tenement houses. These will be ablaze with color. The real pageant will be held on the field. The children will represent, in a rapidly moving pantomime, the human history of the neighborhood, beginning with the Indians and ending with the rise of the school house. Then the foreign societies, each in turn, will give a brief, striking presentation of that which they consider most worthy of their national name and national pride.

"But each nationality, before it exhibits its own national stories, will lay an appropriate gift at the feet of a great triad of figures representing the three races whose amalgamation is producing the new America—the Teutonic, Latin and Slavic—with a representation of Liberty rising above them all.

"Then the children will build instantly, right out in the arena, a school house. There will be a symbolic presentation of the quest of the people for a place to meet—the saloon, with its open arms, and the school house and church, with closed doors. Then will be seen the

POW-WOW OF BOY SCOUTS, INDIAN BRAVES, CAMP FIRE GIRLS



THE INDIANS, BOY SCOUTS AND CAMP FIRE GIRLS AT DINNER

Many a Boy Scout visits an Indian encampment to see the braves and their mode of life, but few Indians ever visit their pale-face brothers in the city. It was a unique experience at Spring Street Neighborhood House, New York, the other evening when Chief Iron Tail, head of the Sioux tribe for twenty years, Chief Black Fox, their wives, Charlie and Susie Yellow Boy and an interpreter came down from 101 Ranch, Wild West Show, to eat dinner with the oldest Boy Scout troop in the United States, Troop Nine of New York city. Some Scouts from Springfield, Mass., and a number of Camp Fire Girls were on hand also.

Chief Iron Tail, whose profile adorns the Buffalo nickel, assisted by Chief Black Fox and little Susie Yellow Boy, showed how he danced after the massacre of General Custer and his troopers at the battle of Big Horn Creek in 1876.

The chief grunted his approval of the Camp Fire ceremonies and the Scout stunts. Many of the boys and girls are treasuring copies of the old Sioux leader's thumb-print.



CHIEF IRON TAIL WITH HIS HAND ON A SCALP

coming of the social center and the organization of the human life of these crowded neighborhoods into public school buildings. As a finale there will be a flag tableau, in which the children will form a huge American flag and the foreign societies will salute it with their own banners."

It is hoped that this pageant will help to point ways in which the immigrant may enrich not only his own life in this country, but that of Americans as well, by holding on to a part of the rich stores of his national customs.

Miss Van Leeuwen says it was a shock to her to be told by a prominent Servian that among the thousands of Servians in New York not a single national costume could be found. Servian immigrants had either exchanged their native dress for American outfits before coming here, or had disposed of them after their arrival.

"It is pitiable," she says, "how little we have of their wonderful customs, of their beautiful traditions, of their loy-

alty to their countries, and to the ideals they know, and their willingness to expose all this if they only had the occasion."

ACCIDENT PREVENTION IN MINNESOTA

THE PEOPLE of Minnesota were astounded when the Labor Department's report for 1910 showed that 251 fatal accidents and 8,137 non-fatal accidents had been reported by the industries of Minnesota (exclusive of the railroad transportation, maintenance of ways and construction accidents) for the fiscal year ending July 31 that year. A vigorous safety campaign was at once inaugurated.

During the four years that have since elapsed there has been a steady decline in fatal accidents. In 1913 there were 136, a decrease of 46 per cent. This does not fully reveal what has been accomplished in accident prevention. Agricultural fatalities, which had been averag-

ing from 11 to 12 a year, jumped to 21 in 1913, while the railroad shop and mercantile industries had an unusual series of peculiar mishaps which increased the railroad shop and repair yard accidents from an average of 3 fatalities a year to 11 in 1913 and the mercantile industries from an average of 4 a year to 10 in 1913. If those three industries had not had such abnormal fatality rates in 1913 the decrease since 1910 would have been 56 per cent.

In the mines there was a decline from 83 fatalities in 1910 to 28 in 1913, and in lumbering and woodworking from 55 to 18. Many other industries reveal similar decreases. Non-fatal accidents, in spite of the fact that they were much more completely reported in 1913 than in 1910, declined from 8,137 to 5,490, a decline of 32.6 per cent.

UNIVERSITIES AND THE PUBLIC SERVICE

AT THE conference on universities and public service, held in New York May 12-13, under the auspices of the committee on practical training for public service of the American Political Science Association, Mayor Mitchel sounded the key note in his opening speech. He had observed that college men could not carry the duties of public service without a period of training, and urged that opportunity be given the college man to secure practical contact with public affairs while in college.

The opportunities of public service as a career furnished an interesting discussion in which the city manager, the consular service and civil service reform were particularly emphasized by different speakers as leading to openings for remunerative and distinguished service.

Charles McCarthy, chief of the Legislative Reference Library of Wisconsin, and chairman of the practical training committee, described the need for practical study of legislative affairs and the advantages of such a study over the stay-at-home methods usually employed in the past by students of civic affairs.

Dean Hicks of the University of Cincinnati described the close relations between his university and the city, and succeeding speakers showed the opportunity of co-operation between the universities and the municipality in New York city and what has already been accomplished.

During the discussion of public service activities of the universities, Director Cooke, of the Department of Public Works of Philadelphia, described the help given to his department by university professors, and Professor James of the University of Texas told how his graduate students were making surveys that had attracted wide notice. The university of Texas has established a

bureau of municipal research and reference and a school of city administration.

A national university, to use the facilities of the national capital as a laboratory for political science students, was advocated by Chancellor Brown of New York University. Mr. McCarthy led the discussion on the question of giving credit in the universities for work done in municipal research and legislative reference bureaus. The plan of the committee on practical training for public service provides that one year of practical work in selected bureaus be counted toward the degree of Ph.D. in universities. The committee will inspect these bureaus and designate certain of them for this work, on the basis of supervision and facilities given to the student. This plan has already been put into action by Mr. McCarthy in Wisconsin.

Professor Holcombe of Harvard, described the advantage to the college man of entering practical public affairs. The Training School for Public Service was described by Leroy E. Snyder of the New York Bureau of Municipal Research. In this school, which is conducted by the bureau the program of practical civic work as outlined by the conference is being carried out.

A resolution was unanimously adopted for future annual conferences. The descriptions of work already accomplished and the opportunities still to be grasped appeared to foreshadow a greatly increased activity on the part of the universities to come into closer contact with actual political conditions.

STRIKE BREAKERS BANNED IN COLORADO

THE ORDER of the President of the United States, prohibiting the importation of strike breakers to work in the Colorado mines, and ordering the deportation of all who have been brought in since April 20, the date of the Ludlow battle, is the unique feature of federal control in the Colorado strike districts. Already a number of men who were brought into southern Colorado after that date have been put on trains and sent out of the mining section.

This is probably the first time in America that such a course has been followed by troops policing strike territory. It is not unfamiliar, however, in England. The theory seems to be one of maintaining a strict neutrality. The troops will not permit the strikers to interfere with men at work before the recent outbreak of hostilities, but on the other hand, they will not allow their presence to be used as an opportunity for the commission of overt acts on the part of the operators tending to strengthen their position.

The disarmament of strikers, militia, sheriffs and company guards is going slowly forward.

THE MASTER CRAFTSMAN AT WORK



A marvelous desk did fifteen-year-old Emri Techa fashion. Of hard oak wood he made it, true to his own careful plans. Four-square it stood when finished, resting evenly upon slender legs which pressed the floor at each point. The top was broad and smooth. In the back a drawer was craftily set, nicely dove-tailed and mortised together, fitting perfectly in its socket. On the shelf surmounting the drawer were pen-racks of beaten copper, hammered out of the red metal by Emri, youthful master-craftsman.

Rightly proud was Emri, when his desk finally stood the wonder of all who visited East End Neighborhood House in Cleveland, Ohio. There it was that he wrought out his ideas of desk-craft in the short afternoons after school hours and in the long winter evenings. As he labored, increasing cunning came to his firm fingers, to his strong arms and to his vigorous young brain. The joy of creative work was his in increasing measure as the desk grew under the teeth of his saw and the blade of his plane.

But as he worked, his thoughts winged above the crowded neighborhood in which he lived, to a glorious future which he might in time make for himself and those he loved with the cleverness of his hands and the keenness of his brain. And as he thus wrought in the days which are yet to come, those who guide the fortunes of the East End Neighborhood House saw part of their problem solved; for their mission is to provide inspiration to the better things of life for the many groping people whom they serve.

Shortly afterward, all the people of the neighborhood were given a chance to see the work of Emri and his ten youthful fellow-artificers. A great store window blossomed for a week in April with many useful articles besides the desk—made by Emri and his comrades. Footstools, tabourets, lamps, chairs, pedestals, cup-and-saucer racks and many other bits of furniture were there displayed.

To the name of Emri, desk-maker, stood, in addition to his masterpiece, a chair, a lamp and a footstool. And as those who passed were seen to marvel at evidence of such skilful industry, the eyes of Emri, master-craftsman of fifteen years, glistened with pride, and his soul expanded with the joy of artistry fulfilled.

MEDIATION PLAN OF INDUSTRIAL COMMISSION

OF SPECIAL INTEREST in connection with the events above outlined is the tentative draft of a bill drawn up and submitted to the United States Commission on Industrial Relations by the commission's staff, creating a national board of mediation and conciliation to deal with all strikes and lockouts in any part of the country that seem likely to involve the federal government.

A memorandum accompanying the bill points out that within the past year Congress has been called upon to investigate strikes in the three states of West

Virginia, Michigan and Colorado, and that in the latter state federal troops had to be called in. All of these strikes involved interstate shipment of gunmen and strike-breakers.

The bill provides strictly for voluntary conciliation, and expressly denies to the board any compulsory powers of arbitration or prohibition of strikes or lockouts. In this way it avoids all conflict over any question of state or interstate jurisdiction.

A precedent for a federal commission is found in the Anthracite Coal Strike Commission of 1902, which settled the great strike in Pennsylvania. It is

TIME EXPOSURES *by* HINE

OUTSIDE "THE POOR MAN'S CLUB"

pointed out that all efforts at conciliation by the federal government in recent strikes have failed, and that if intervention is to be resorted to, it is advisable that the government have a permanent board, representing the entire nation and having the confidence of both employers and employes, to be of service at the very inception of such disputes.

One of the important features of the bill is its plan for co-operation with state boards of mediation whenever such exist, and its plan for joining with such boards in any section of the country for united action whenever a dispute extends beyond the limits of a single state.

DRASTIC PRISON REFORM URGED IN NEW YORK

A NEW TURN has been given to the movement to abolish Sing Sing Prison, New York's antiquated mausoleum on the Hudson. The State Commission on Prison Reform, of which Thomas Mott Osborne is chairman, has recommended to Governor Glynn that the place be converted into a receiving station for the observation and study of all persons sentenced to a state prison, for the medical examination and treatment of those afflicted with disease and for weeding out those found to be mentally defective.

Among other recommendations in the report of the commission, made public last week, is one that a Court of Rehabilitation be established, and indeterminate sentences given all persons sent to state prisons, in order that the reformation of law-breakers may be determined as accurately as their guilt.

In urging the abolition of Sing Sing, the commission calls attention to the "incredible fact" that public opinion has for over half a century been aware of the barbarity of confining human beings in the cells there and yet has let the institution remain—"a disgrace to a civilized community." The commission calls strongly for the erection of a new prison to take the place of Sing Sing. The new prison, it declares, should have a site of 2,000 acres, consisting of forest and arable lands, and should not be more than 100 miles from New York city.

With reference to converting Sing Sing into a receiving station the commission says it contemplates the establishment of a hospital and neurological institute as well as place of detention and observation. This will require, it points out, the services of a staff of genuine experts, physicians and officials of special training, broad sympathies and knowledge of human nature. The cell block will not be needed for this purpose and should be abandoned.

In urging sentences without maximum or minimum limit for all persons sentenced to state prisons, the commission declares that "the unequal sentences imposed by different judges for the same offense, or even by the same judge at different times, is little short of a scandal in the administration of our criminal justice, and creates in those discriminated against a rankling sense of the injustice and inequality of the law."

The idea of a court of rehabilitation to determine when prisoners are fit to be returned to society was first given prominence some years ago by Roland

B. Molineaux, and has since been strongly urged in Texas. Such a court, as usually conceived, will be a court of record to try a person for release on the evidence of his conduct in prison. If he has been given an indeterminate sentence, as the commission urges, the court can diminish or prolong his term as it sees fit.

The commission declares: "While perfect justice cannot be expected from any human instrumentality, it is conceived that a single court, acting for the entire state, and sitting as a Board of Parole or Court of Rehabilitation will be much more apt to administer an equal justice than is possible under the present system. Under such a system it will be the prisoner and not the crime that will be tried.

Pending the creation of such a court, the commission recommends the establishment of local advisory boards, of three or five members each, for each prison and reformatory, for the purpose of investigating all applications for pardon or parole.

Believing that the greatest obstacle in the way of real prison reform in the state is the confusion and demoralization in the prison administration, the commission urges as the necessary ground work of all other changes the consolidation of all offices, boards and commissions into a permanent state department of correction. In this it recommends the vesting of the entire penal administration of the state.

Among its other recommendations are a separate institution for the care of all adult mental defectives convicted of crime; the "honest, efficient and business-like administration" of all systems of prison labor in the state; the creation of an employment bureau for paroled and discharged prisoners in the office of the superintendent of prisons; and the establishment of a thorough system of education in the penal institutions under the state commissioner of education.

PURE FOOD LAWS: SANITARY AND ECONOMIC ASPECTS

IS THE pure food law of real use? Does it actually protect the average citizen? Or help to reduce the cost of living?

To these big questions an answer was offered at the New York State Conference of Charities and Correction this week by Dr. C.-E. A. Winslow, curator of public health, American Museum of Natural History.

Dr. Winslow's belief was that "as actually enforced the pure food law has had an infinitesimal effect in the prevention of disease and has often tended to increase rather than decrease the cost of living."

This failure Dr. Winslow considered due to the point of view of early exponents of the law. Thus far the greatest emphasis has been laid upon ques-

tions of adulteration and preservatives, and of correct labeling.

"There is, of course" he said, "an important economic and ethical question involved in the control of adulteration and misbranding, aside from the supposed sanitary one. . . . foods and fabrics and all other products on the market should be what they appear to be. . . . "[Yet] other dangers to our food supply, much more real, need emphasis.

"The most serious of these dangers are due to the pollution of some food-stuffs like water and milk which are often consumed raw, and of other food-stuffs after cooking, by human excretions, which are always likely to be the bearers of the germs of communicable disease. The safeguard against such dangers must be two-fold: first, the exclusion as far as possible of sick persons and carriers from the business of food preparation; second, a standard of general cleanliness to minimize, so far as may be, the amount of excretal matter from the respiratory or intestinal tract, which is smeared on food by unrecognized cases. This involves a strict supervision of kitchens and serving-rooms and a campaign of education reaching the individual in the home where so many cases of typhoid fever and other intestinal diseases, and of colds and tonsillitis and other respiratory diseases, originate in prosodemic fashion.

"The possible infection of food by flies is another real danger which well deserves the attention it is now beginning to receive, and the same dangers to which all foods are liable after cooking, pollution by mouth spray, by handling and by flies, menace foods, such as fruits which are to be eaten raw, in the store as well as in the kitchen."

It is important, of course, that poisonous matter shall not be mixed with food products, and that food products shall be properly labeled. But attention should be concentrated more largely upon suppression of the traffic in unclean milk, meat and vegetables and other products that may carry disease.

Important to any progress, Dr. Winslow emphasized, must be patience on the part of those who watch and wait, while scientists study and report results.

Violent prejudices which once existed against canning and cold storage have been allayed; the question of preservatives needs further study that their effects in varying amounts and under varying conditions may be determined. There are certain household preservatives, like salt, sugar, cloves, etc., which are familiar and approved without question. Certain other preservatives, newer and less familiar, still suffer under the terrible reproach of being "chemicals." "Why sodium benzoate is a chemical and sodium chloride is not, is a puzzle to the scientific mind."

In closing, Dr. Winslow appealed for co-operation of all social workers:

"It will take the work of years by trained experts with a single-minded desire to find out the facts and use them for the public good to get from the pure food law a maximum of efficiency, sanitary and economic. You, as social workers, will have an increasingly large part in this task, for the whole business of better social organization is your province and you are each year possessed of greater power in molding public opinion for good or for ill.

FAILURE OF EFFORT TO STOP FORTUNE-TELLING

IN THE BUFFALO State Hospital for the Insane a nineteen-year-old boy has been slowly recovering the past winter from insanity brought on by the pretended disclosures of a fortune teller. While his delusions continued the Legislature failed to pass a bill which would have made it possible to punish more effectively this class of charlatans. Meanwhile hundreds of fortune tellers are still doing business at the old stands.

The boy referred to came to New York last year to find work. He was employed as draughtsman's apprentice in a down-town architect's office and for two weeks gave excellent service. Anxious to know what the future held for him, he went to a Sixth Avenue fortune teller.

This man declared that by reading the stars he could foresee a dreadful calamity

in store for the youth. He added that he could divert it for fifty dollars. The boy, who had paid the magician four dollars for every previous visit, answered that he didn't have that much money. The fortune teller kindly agreed to receive payment in installments of four dollars a week.

To make these payments the boy began to deny himself food and other necessities. His work suffered and he was discharged. One day, in an attempt at suicide, he jumped into the Hudson River from the West Thirty-ninth Street pier. He was rescued before dead and sent to a hospital, where he was adjudged insane.

A lieutenant of police tells the story of a girl who was chloroformed and assaulted by a fortune teller and who became insane as a result. These cases probably represent an extremity of evil to which the practices of fortune tellers do not often carry. For the most part they are content to swindle.

The law at present permits a magistrate only to place fortune tellers, who are legally defined as disorderly persons, under bonds to keep the peace. They can not be fined or imprisoned unless the bonds are forfeited. This almost never happens.

"If a couple of dozen of these men and women were sent to the workhouse for two or three months," says Chief Magistrate William McAdoo, "it would do more to break up fortune telling than any other thing I can conceive of. Some people think fortune telling is a joke, but really it is a very serious evil."

The bill presented to the New York Legislature was drawn in Mr. McAdoo's office at the suggestion of the Joint Application Bureau. It made fortune telling for a consideration, or telling where lost or stolen goods could be found, a misdemeanor, thus enabling magistrates upon conviction to impose prison sentences of six months.

The failure of the bill marks the defeat of the first positive effort in New York to make fortune tellers as serious offenders in the eyes of the law as their evil effects justify.

UP THE ROAD

CHARLES S. NEWHALL

"FRIENDS of mine along the way,
Whither bound this windy day?"

"Join us, friend, our way is one,
Up the road, till day is done;

"Up the road toward light of Home
Shining far for all who roam,
Shining for us brothers all,
Lest we falter, lest we fall;

"Up the road, with words of cheer
Fit to banish every fear,
Helpful deeds and kindly smiles,
Easing so the wind-swept miles.

"Up the road we brothers all!
Brave to answer every call;
Up the road, till day is done
And the goal at last is won."

INDUSTRY

EFFORTS TO STANDARDIZE CHICAGO RESTAURANTS —THE HENRICI STRIKE—BY ELLEN GATES STARR

A pioneer resident of Hull House tells in this article something of the difficulties encountered by unionists who attempt to keep within the law and yet make a strike effective. In the Henrici strike the police made arrests freely, although the Illinois law permits peaceful picketing. The courts have seemed to lend their aid to this harrassing of the union, for to date not a single striker's case has been tried, although they have sometimes been arrested twice in one day.—Ed.

At Henrici's restaurant in Randolph St., Chicago—which it is not claimed is worse than many others—the bakery is wholly underground. Since February 28, 1910, it has been illegal to build underground bakeries. There is no window whatever in the kitchen and the bread bakery; the only ventilation is by an air shaft; at night there is often no power on for mechanical ventilating purposes though there is a night shift; the sweat of the bakers frequently drops into the bread. These facts given me by cooks and waiters I have verified at the office of the Bureau of Sanitary Inspection.

For six months previous to February 5, the beginning of the Henrici restaurant strike, unions of waitresses, cooks, bakers, milk-wagon drivers and delivery-wagon drivers had been negotiating with the restaurants in the "loop" district to the end of establishing a scale of hours and wages; in fine, of standardizing their industries in that district.

The waitresses' main demands were for one day's rest in seven, \$8 for six days' work (instead of \$7 for seven days' work), as a first step toward freeing them from the pernicious tipping system; and, as always, for recognition of the union, without which no contract is of the slightest value.

Why the Strike Was Called at Henrici's

One hundred restaurants had signed the agreement; Henrici's was the first to refuse and was thus naturally, and not arbitrarily as the Henrici manager alleged, the point of attack. The manager not only complained that his restaurant was unfairly singled out, but that it was unfair to proceed against any one restaurant. He maintained that some measure should be adopted applying to all at once.

Obviously, the only kind of measure which could so apply would be a legislative measure, and it must be remembered that, whenever any attempt is made at legislation to improve the conditions of hours, wages, etc., in restaurants, the Restaurant Keepers' Association is promptly on hand to defeat it.

The four union waitresses engaged at Henrici's were dismissed—on pretended charges—after having been followed by detectives to their union meetings. The two union cooks, of a total of four, and six union bakers, of a total of eight were called out on an officially declared strike; also the milk and delivery wagon drivers. No attempt was made, as is usual in strikes, to influence the waitresses remaining at work either to come out or to join the union at that time. This caused misunderstanding which served to allay public sympathy, and was probably a tactical mistake.

The reason for this inaction was that the season had been a severe one by reason of unemployment. Any strike, at any time, implies a tremendous drain upon union funds. The Henrici Company promised to discharge any waitress who joined the union at that time and, in case the union won, to pay the initiation fees of all those who had staid in. It was decided to be the most fair and humane course to fight it out without disturbing those within; but it gave apparent ground to the Henrici adherents, who constantly stated that no waitresses were on strike, and as constantly ignored not only the locked-out union waitresses but the cooks, bakers, and milk and delivery wagon drivers who were on strike.

The public, which had complained in the last garment workers' strike that pickets had attempted to call out all the workers, now objected that they did not. The lockout of union waitresses and strike of union cooks, bakers and milk and delivery wagon drivers, was named solely a "boycott."

Mr. Collins, president of the Henrici Company, by his own statement on the witness stand, paid between \$1,300 and \$1,400 to the Chicago newspapers for printing his statement of the situation. Only one paper—the *Evening Post*—would print the union statements. There remained to the union the method which is usually left to unionists on strike—to make their statement as well as they could in the open street.

Peaceful picketing has been pronounc-

ed legal in Illinois by repeated court decisions. The instructions given to the pickets by their unions were explicit—never to touch anyone, nor to stand still in front of, or near, the Henrici premises obstructing passage. Peaceful picketing, it is maintained, includes the right to give information in a quiet way. It should be remarked that passage was really obstructed by groups of from twelve to twenty nondescript persons wearing no badge of authority—plain clothes men, private detectives and men who stopped to talk with them and who were not ordered to "move on."

"Peaceful Pickets" Arrested

Although the instructions were carried out, arrests were repeatedly made and with increasing frequency, the same persons being twice placed under arrest and released on bonds during the interval between 12 and 2 o'clock. More than 125 arrests were made. The charge at first was for conspiracy, a state offense for which the bond required is \$1,000. Sometimes both conspiracy and disorderly conduct were charged; in this case the bond was \$1,400.

A section in the Municipal Court act provides that judges may enter an order of record authorizing police officers to accept bail. The attorney of the unions, Edgar L. Masters, considering the \$400 bond for alleged "disorderly conduct" four times as great as it should have been, sent to find what the order of the court had been, and learned that the court had entered no order, and the police were fixing the bonds at their own pleasure!

The arrested persons were arraigned and assigned to a hearing in the Municipal Court where the cases were perpetually continued on motion of the prosecution. Judge Ryan at last refused to allow any further conspiracy charges until a case should have been tried.

The strike began on February 5 and up to the present time, May 7, no case has been tried either for conspiracy or disorderly conduct, although a committee appointed by the City Council for the investigation of police procedures passed resolutions urging the speedy trial of these cases. Untold time of the defendants has been wasted by the cases being so often called and continued, and more than \$130,000 has been furnished in bonds by unions and sympathizers.

Added to this abuse of power, were charges of police brutality, substantiated by the sworn evidence of two injured waitresses and of a physician who attended a waitress whose arm was so badly wrenched that the attending hospital physician (Dr. Hedger) was unable, until she had had an X-ray taken,

The Survey, May 23, 1914.

to tell whether or not it was broken. Also by the careful statement, out of court, of Dr. Bertha Van Hoosen, surgeon at the Mary Thompson Hospital.

On February 22 a meeting was called at Hull House to suggest measures for investigating the conduct of the police. Jane Addams, head of Hull House, presided and Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen, president of the Juvenile Protective Association, offered resolutions. A committee was appointed by the chair to attend court proceedings. At that meeting was circulated a leaflet, "Facts Concerning Henrici's," issued two days previous by the Women's Trade Union League, stating the grievances and demands of the unions. This leaflet was sent to the daily papers but appeared, so far as I know, in the *Evening Post* alone.

Arrested for Disorderly Conduct

I was present on Randolph Street four days between February 22 and March 2; on the fourth day I was put under arrest. I went there for the purpose of getting first-hand knowledge of the situation, of preventing recurrence of brutality, if I could, by my presence, aid in doing so, and of protesting against illegal and unwarranted arrests.

I composed a fixed formula for use in case of witnessing such arrests, which I had occasion to use three times: "As an American citizen I protest against the arrest of these persons who are doing nothing contrary to the law." I was arrested on the third occasion of reciting it in a clear but ordinary tone. No answer was made to my inquiry of the arresting officer as to the charge, but I was booked at the police station on a charge of disorderly conduct, which was sworn to by the officer, and on my declining to send for bail I was placed in a cell but released shortly thereafter on the bond of a friend who appeared and offered bail. (It has not been the policy of the trade unionists to decline bail and suffer imprisonment.)

This sworn charge was afterward changed, without any assigned reason, to another charge (sworn by the same policeman) of "interfering with an officer in the discharge of his duty." To my mind it is clear that the charge was made for two reasons: to avoid the incitement to mirth and consequent disadvantage to the prosecution of a middle-aged gentlewoman appearing on a charge of disorderly conduct; and, more important, that my case, pushed on to earlier trial, might not furnish a precedent for the many cases of waitresses arrested on the former charge. It was, of course, precisely to furnish that precedent that I had been anxious for an immediate trial.

The prosecution (the city) adopted the same policy of moving continuances, as in the cases of the arrested waitresses. My attorney, Harold L. Ickes, however, succeeded in urging the trial on after four continuances, against a further motion for continuance on the part of the prosecution. The only witnesses on the side of the prosecution were four police officers who overreached themselves and swore to state-

ments nobody believed, and which made the fabrication of their entire testimony evident. The jury returned a verdict of "not guilty."

This brief outline of my personal experience is interesting only as it gives some very slight idea of the system of harrying to which unionists on strike are subjected, and the illegal excess of power assumed by the police. It would be next to impossible to an outside sympathizer, even if one had the courage to try, to find out by personal experience the extent of what the real combatants suffer, for the reason that methods are immediately and considerably modified by the presence of outside witnesses.

My relation to the Henrici strike was given a significance which it would not otherwise have had by a meeting of downtown business men (some of whom have restaurants in connection with department stores), in which they passed resolutions requesting Miss Addams to "withdraw her representative." Miss Addams' reply was the obvious one—that I was not acting as her representative and that she had no authority to "withdraw" anyone, even if she wished to do so. This action of the business men was telephoned me, the night before its appearance in the daily papers, by a press representative, together with the question "Isn't Hull House supported by contributions?"

A Two-Edged Conspiracy to Injure the Union's Business

A legal procedure of great importance was that in which three judges, McGoorty, Baldwin and Windes, sat together to hear and decide upon an injunction bill filed by the Philip Henrici Company against the waitresses' cooks' and bakers' unions, and a cross bill filed by the defendants in the above, against the Henrici Company and the Restaurant Keepers' Association.

Briefly summarized (from the dictated statement of Edgar L. Masters, attorney for the unions) the bill filed by the Henrici Company charged the above unions with a conspiracy (the stock charge in such cases) to injure the business of the Philip Henrici Company, and prayed that they be enjoined from picketing, distributing literature—particularly the *Bakers' Journal*—and using such phrases as, "We want \$8 for six days' work" and "there is a strike on at Henrici's."

The cross bill, filed at the same time, made defendants the Henrici Company, its manager, and an organization known as "the Restaurant Keepers' Association" (being the employers' union) and the members of the latter, charging them with conspiracy to injure the business of the waitresses and of their unions, and to wreck the said unions and to prevent the said unions from increasing their membership and widening their influence in the economic world; and set up that the Restaurant Keepers' Association was "picketing" by means of inserting advertisements in the newspapers, tending to corrupt public opinion and prejudice the public

against the unions, and praying that the said Henrici Company and its manager, and the Restaurant Keepers' Association, be enjoined from prosecuting said conspiracy. The claim was set aside by the court.

In this hearing, which consumed two weeks, the entire case (and, indeed, much more) was on trial, all the important witnesses and parties concerned having been put upon the stand. Only the merest fraction, editorially sifted, of this most significant testimony ever reached the public.

Undoubtedly, anyone in sympathy with the trade union position would be glad to have the evidence in this case spread out, in its entirety, to public access.

The trial ended on March 19. At the opening of the case the judges directed that there should be no picketing, pending a decision. They also directed that there should be no arrest of pickets. The unions conformed; the Henrici Company resumed its "picketing" advertisements in the daily press.

After two weeks the judges handed in a decision which to the average lay interpreter seems to forbid "peaceable picketing" by the spoken word as "tending to intimidate" those addressed—at least in the vicinity of the Henrici restaurant; but, on the other hand, refused to "enjoin the defendants from printing or publishing printed matter of any kind, calling attention to the fact that the business of said company is not unionized, or that a strike is on at its said place of business, or that it is unfair to labor, etc."

The unions conformed as before and proceeded to get out their printed statements and distribute them at the railway stations. One arrest was made of an official of the Waitresses' Union who submitted peaceably but warned the arresting officer and the booking station that she would prosecute. She was not booked. The waitresses are also employing the method of slides at nickel theaters to make their strike statements.

An interesting sequel is now being enacted in the strike of all the George Knab restaurants in the loop district, nine in number. Knab refused to renew his contract with the unions in order to become a member of the Chicago Restaurant Keepers' Association. Picketing is being silently conducted before these restaurants by means of cards carried in the hands or pinned upon the hats or clothing of the pickets. These cards announce "Strike of cooks, waitresses, bakers and waiters at Knab's. Don't be a strike-breaker." Or sometimes merely "Don't be a scab."

It would seem that the recent conflict for freedom of speech and action had not been in vain, for only two arrests have so far been made in this strike; one of a waitress accused of distributing printed matter and one of a cook who was arraigned before Judge Stewart. This judge discharged the man and instructed the police that he wished no more such arrests made. The strike seems now to have a chance of fair play.

BRITISH EXPERIENCE WITH AN 8-HOUR DAY IN THE STEEL TRADE—BY JOHN HODGE

SECRETARY, BRITISH STEEL SMELTERS, MILL IRON AND TINPLATE ASSOCIATION

The secretary of the strongest and most intelligently conducted organization of steel workers in the world tells some of the reasons for adopting the eight-hour day in England and discusses the practical results that have followed where it has been put into operation. Mr. Hodge is a labor member of Parliament, and a member of the Industrial Council, over which Sir George Askwith, secretary of the Board of Trade, presides.

For editorial comment on recent developments in the United States see page 223.—Ed.

Those familiar with the atmosphere of steel works, know that the great heat, the dust, the noise of machinery, the extremely exhausting nature of much of the labor, the constant dread of a death-dealing slip in handling the great mass of molten metal, and the constant strain on the mind, all have their effect upon the physique of the workmen. As a result of these conditions, coupled with long hours, men have had to stop work at an age which in less strenuous callings would be regarded as the prime of life, and one looks in vain for old men working on the furnaces.

Moreover, after working twelve hours a day under such conditions, what chance has a man, wearied in body and mind, to interest himself in mental improvement, civic or religious activities, in the technique of his craft or anything else? He becomes a beast of burden and nothing more.

An eight-hour day for the worker affords some time for recreation, for mental cultivation, for civic duties, for enjoyment of home life, and opportunity of following his trade until old age permits him to relinquish his work, instead of being cast on the scrap heap at forty-five.

For the past twenty-five years there has been a continuous agitation for an eight-hour day in Great Britain, ranging from academic discussion to sustained and persistent demand. At times the workmen in individual works, incensed by what they thought was inactivity on the part of their leaders, have tried to force the issue. Their demands have subsequently been withdrawn, but their action has demonstrated to the employers that the demand for an eight-hour day is not entirely the invention of labor leaders, but that the exhausting physical labor, combined with an ever-increasing mental strain caused by speeding up and the introduction of new processes, makes it essential.

Many conferences have been held with the employers to discuss the eight-hour day. The workmen declared their willingness to divide their earnings for twenty-four hours by three instead of by two. While the steel operators did not dispute the workers' readiness to do this, they argued that if they conceded the shorter day to steel smelters, the agitation would not end there but every one else would want it too, and, as the money of these others would not divide, the

costs would be increased. To this the reply was that for sixteen years West Hartlepool steel smelters had had an eight-hour day and the other grades had never asked for it.

The first eight-hour experiment with open-hearth furnaces was at Port Clarence. The introduction of the hot metal process there made the work of so strenuous and laborious a nature that the firm became convinced of the value to them of an eight-hour day. The employers association, however, refused them permission to put the scheme into operation. The firm thereupon withdrew from the association, in order to have a free hand, and the plan was arranged.

The higher paid workmen not only voluntarily divided their earnings, based on the tonnage of twenty-four hours, by three instead of by two, but gave a percentage from their earnings to make the wages of gas producer men and charge wheelers the same for eight as for twelve hours. The firm on their part gave the

tonnage men a bonus on any increased output. The success of the eight-hour shift here is best emphasized by the fact that the bonus has more than recouped the men for the percentage they gave to the lower paid classes of labor.

Since this experiment, the employers association has permitted the Hawarden Bridge Works and Bolckow, Vaughan & Co. to put the eight-hour tour into operation. Now that the objections have to some extent been removed, greater progress is hoped for.

At the Hawarden Bridge Works, a firm rolling sheets for the corrugated sheet trade, the mills used to be operated on the twelve-hour system, the rollermen being in the position of contractors. The Steel Smelters' Association was instrumental in having the contract system abolished and an eight-hour shift established. The dual change resulted in greater output in eight hours than under the old twelve-hour plan. The firm then naturally came to favor the eight-hour shift in smelting shops and bar mills.

In South Wales the eight-hour shift is almost universal in smelting shops and bar mills, the change being made with beneficial results. So far as the smelters union has been able to collate figures, they show an increase in the average output of 12½ per cent in smelting shops and 22½ per cent in bar mills.

The greatest difference, however, is in the general health and habits of the workers—a change in some instances bordering on the miraculous. As one employer tersely put it, "It has made bad men good and good men better."

AFTERMATH OF INDUSTRIAL WAR AT IPSWICH, MASS.—BY EDGAR FLETCHER ALLEN

It is fairly easy to get the story of a strike in process. Dispassionate after-analysis is less common. In this article the minister of South Church, Ipswich, Mass., who was a member of the Citizens' Committee on arbitration during the strike a year ago and secretary of the committee on the Fourth of July celebration, discusses some of the things that Ipswich people learned from it. It was said the strike was lost. Here it is suggested that something was gained.—Ed.

There are times when advancement and liberty can be won only at the cost of revolution. Devastation alone could have won the desired liberty for Israelitish slaves under Pharaoh. The Egyptians had to be taught by a "strong hand," and the world has had to move from entrenched privilege to a nearer approach to equity by the same means throughout its history. This need not be so, it merely is so. We take thought after revolution.

Almost a year ago, the little town of Ipswich, Mass., was terrorized by one of the great chain of I. W. W. strikes which spread through the textile industry of the country. The crisis came in May, and the strike lasted through the spring and summer, costing one human life, several broken heads and minor wounds, the invasion of the town

by an armed force of police who were necessary to safeguard property and preserve the peace, a depression in general trade which cannot well be estimated, an enormous increase in the tax rate, poverty among the laborers and their families, a perpetual sitting of the district court, prison sentences for the strike leaders, a general estrangement and misunderstanding between the townspeople and the alien population, with the ultimate defeat of the strikers.

The strike was called before any real statement was made of the grievance, and when demands were ultimately made, the cause seemed to be an invention. In one room of the mill, a new product was being made, which could not be turned out in such large numbers as the old style, and would have

worked some hardship if the same rate had prevailed. The price of this work, however, was advanced, which would have evened up wages, and so removed contention. In addition, there was a rather indefinite complaint against the dismissal of an inefficient worker. The basis of the complaint does not seem clear yet.

Early in the disturbance a citizens' committee was formed of representative people of all shades of sympathy, who in a fair investigation sought the truth of the situation. It was impossible to get a definite understanding. The writer was among the strikers several days after the real trouble commenced, and tried to find what demands the strikers had. The invariable reply was "40 per cent."

The strike has two distinct periods. The first was the brief period when the citizens' committee hoped for arbitration and tried their utmost to obtain it, while the strike was being led by local leaders. It was the local leader who replied to the writer that the demands were "40 per cent." The strikers failed to make a great impression under this leadership, their funds began to diminish, and the mills opened with a short-handed staff, but able to keep going. This opened the second period, under I. W. W. leaders, and resulted in bloodshed and riot.

Some of the I. W. W. leaders in speeches advanced arguments against American institutions, following the example of the agitation in Lawrence. This led to the establishment of another citizens' committee, directed not against the strikers, but for American institutions. The newspaper reports, called them "vigilantes" and stated that they had power to ride the strike leaders out of town, and to put an end to the strike by summary violence. This was simply newspaper sensationalism. The only duty of the committee was to arrange for a Fourth of July celebration, when the flag should be much in evidence, and an effort made to stir up enthusiasm for American institutions.

The mill continued operations, and slowly the strikers added to the working force, and the strike died for lack of interest and funds.

In the trials resulting from the riot one girl was questioned concerning her wages, and replied that she received \$2.50 per week as an average. On investigation it was found that she had never received less than \$5 per week. Recalled by the judge and questioned as to her previous testimony, she replied that her pay envelope was given unopened to her father, and that he told her she got \$2.50.

The matter of wages ought to be carefully considered. The working class needs more income, it is true, but such misrepresentation is unfair. Probably, however, it is no more unfair than the average wage in the textile industry.

Previous to the strike, a survey of the town had revealed serious housing defects among the laboring classes.

These defects, so far as they were merely structural, have in a large measure been modified, but there is still remaining much of the voluntary overcrowding, misspelled economy, among the workers.

But as we look back, what was the cause of the strike? What did it accomplish? Who won?

Close touch with the operatives has left the definite impression that one of the fundamental causes of industrial disturbance of this kind is a disappointed idealism.

The immigrant who finds employment in the textile industry is, generally speaking, from the undeveloped races. He has entered into a great idealism which he cannot understand. The tale of the past for him is a tale of oppression. In his despair America is the promised land, flowing with milk and honey. So he comes, only to find that he has changed his country but not his fortunes, and if he would get ahead, it must be by long and arduous work, and rigid economy.

In the immigrant, from whom direct oppression has been removed by his journey, in whom ambition is hopeful and liberty no distant dream, the past has to be fought anew. His idealism needs direction, and he has not received the necessary illumination. And it is unfair to expect a fine expression of idealism from the recently emancipated. The expression of desire that is in them must be crude. In truth, the desire itself can only be half formulated.

The immigrant has no direction, he only knows he wants something he has not got. He takes his immediate ideal from his oppressors. They have something denied to him. It must be worth having, for it has been closely guarded. It is desirable—therefore, get it!

The laborer suffers keenly from the utterly impersonal relationship between employers and employed—especially where the employer is an absentee owner. So long as industry is viewed entirely from a dividend standpoint, we may expect strife of increasing dimensions and bitterness. The syndicalist spoils the product, absenteeism spoils the producer. Where is the fault?

Closely linked with this difficulty is the terrible importance of money. The laborer sees his children sickly and feels the pinch of want. Only money can buy health. He feels the right to more money, for money means health, and happiness, and life. He cannot get a hearing as an individual, but in collective bargaining he has a weapon ready to his hand. He welcomes it. He ought to welcome it.

The real victory of the strike lies in our understanding of the striker. Whereas before the strike, and during the period of its bitter warfare, one could hear foolish threats, and opinions "that the immigrants were little better than beasts," the feeling is now one of sympathy and appreciation. The town, in a year when the tax rate had risen \$7 per thousand, voted an appropriation for evening schools throughout the winter, and at the town-meeting in March of this year unanimously voted sufficient

funds to carry the school through another winter. The school sessions have an average attendance of almost 300 foreign people, eager to learn English.

The people are beginning to understand responsibility for the stranger. When the matter is carried to a fine point, there is no American after all. We are English, or German, members of one nation or another, prior merely in point of time as immigrants to a new country.

If it be desirable to escape such leaders as have offered themselves to the immigrant, and have shown themselves accepted leaders, the Americans of longer standing and perhaps higher education and idealism must buckle down to leadership themselves. Before we can expect the newcomers to respect American institutions we shall have to respect them ourselves.

The immigrant does not need sentimentalism. He does need education in the value of law and authority; not in their austerity,—in that he is well versed,—but in their protection. He needs to see that we are all fighting a world problem, and that his part of it is not separate from the whole.

This we need to understand and to make clear to the immigrant laborer. It is natural that he should be of the opinion that all will be solved when he has a little more money because the immediate need usually looms largest. He must be shown that there is a higher need than money, that there is a civic duty. In the heat of agitation it is easy for the striker to lose sight of the need of order. The time to kill a strike is before it commences.

The sound wisdom of this is being realized in Ipswich. Those who less than a year ago were wild strikers, with only one idea, are rapidly being molded into thoughtful and understanding citizens. This does not mean that all possibility of strike in the textile industry will be so eliminated. On the other hand, it may work in exactly the opposite direction. With civic education, an understanding of the law and fundamental human rights and an increasing realization of certain common forms of injustice prevalent in the social system, we cannot expect long periods of peace. At the present time the strike is the only weapon of the laborer. It may only be brandished, and lowered by reason of arbitration, or it may be used in compulsory betterment of conditions.

This is another gain: there is a more general understanding and appreciation of the strike, as well as of the strikers. The citizens realize that it is legitimate, and while they may deplore its existence, and do all they can to bring it to an end by fair means—it must be recognized.

Some day, perhaps, we may live in a world which is free from strikes and social injustice—they will disappear by mutual consent. Meanwhile, we have the aftermath of industrial war, and in the case of Ipswich at least, it means that the immigrant laborer is being treated as a human being.

CHURCH and COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

THE CHURCH AND PHILANTHROPIC ORGANIZATIONS—BY ALLAN CONANT FERRIN

A FEW WEEKS ago the writer of this paper, who is pastor of a church of about two hundred members in a city of one hundred thousand population, sent out to his parishioners the following letter of inquiry:

"Your pastor desires to take an inventory of stock. He wants to know what Church is doing for the Kingdom of God. Sometimes it is charged against the church that it is too much engrossed in its own individual life. Is this true? Is it true of our own church? This is what I desire to know, and to let the church know. So I am asking you to help me find out.

"Please indicate in the blank spaces on the next page what charitable and philanthropic organizations, aside from the church (such as the Y. M. C. A., boys' club, etc.) you are interested in as a worker—as officer, member of committee, director, occasional or regular helper.

"Will you also please indicate, as requested, to how many of such organizations you are a regular contributor, and, if you are willing, what is the total amount of your annual contributions? Your replies to these questions will, of course, be held in strict confidence."

The questions, as formulated, were these:

"1. What charitable and philanthropic organizations, aside from the church, are you interested in as a worker?

"2. To how many such organizations are you a regular contributor?

"3. What is the total amount of your annual contributions?"

One hundred and twenty-five letters were sent out, from which were received 82 individual replies, though not all answered all three of the questions. Some reported not being able to name the total amount contributed because of failure to keep a record, and others evidently were unwilling to disclose their gifts, several of whom the writer knows are generous givers. Still others seem to have thought their gifts too small to be reported, not appreciating that the end desired in the inquiry was the aggregate amount contributed by all donors. So, too, from those who did not reply at all the writer could, from his personal knowledge, have raised the total in the answers to all three questions by a considerable figure.

It should be remarked also that what is called "private charity" was not included in the inquiry, and a few instances in which this exclusion was disregarded in the replies received are eliminated from the summing up of the results. The missionary gifts through the channel of

the church are likewise excluded, as well as activity within the several departments of the church.

Of the 82 responding to the questions, 34 reported themselves as being regular or occasional workers, and in 24 different organizations. A goodly number of these reported as each being regular or occasional workers in several different organizations—from 2 to 6. As confirming the results of his inquiry on this point, the writer was interested, in looking over the list of names on teams organized to conduct a more recent cam-

THANKS BEFORE MEAT

AT GATHERINGS OF SOCIAL WORKERS

To A. K. A. by M. M. D.

THANK God for the hunger of our bodies that makes us all one in our human need. Thank God for the kindly service that meets our need today and for the dear companionship we enjoy. Thank God for the hunger of the soul that seeks its own through distances close and wide. Thank God for the revelation of the Great Companion and of the supreme companionship that comes through seeking and service for one's own.

paign to raise funds for a local charity, to note that 13 out of a total of 101 were of those to whom he had sent his inquiry, and also that almost without exception the members of the teams were well-known adherents of the Protestant churches of the city.

Fifty-eight of the 82 replying to the questions reported themselves to be regular contributors to charitable and philanthropic organizations, a trifle over 70 per cent. The total number of organizations contributed to was 34, a few of which are outside of the city. The number of persons contributing to more than one organization was 31; to more than 5 organizations, 10; to more than 10, 4.

The total amount of money contributed annually was reported at \$2,167, the larger part of which, of course, was

given by a comparatively few people. But there is no question whatever in the writer's mind that if a few known to him to be generous givers and many other small givers, who declined to report their gifts for one reason or another, had not done so, the total would have been materially increased, perhaps even doubled.

However, taking the returns as reported, without any suppositions, enough facts were gathered to indicate without question the relation of one church to the work of organized benevolence in the modern world. And what is true of this one church is, in all probability, in general true of the other congregations in the community and the church as a whole. This particular church is what is known as a family church, though located on the fringe of the down-town district, and without material equipment for so-called "institutional" work. It is not a wealthy church, although having a few families who, if the standard is not fixed high, would be rated as possessed of considerable wealth. On the other hand, it has but few poor, that is, dependents.

The annual budget of the church for current expenses is about \$5,000. The city in which it is located is a manufacturing city, with 75 per cent at least of the population foreign by birth and a large portion of this of the more recent immigrants. The Protestant population has been steadily decreasing for several years, and without any decrease in the number of Protestant churches. Within the past four years a new Young Men's Christian Association building has been erected at a cost of \$250,000 and a new home for the Boys' Club secured at the cost of \$20,000. Just now, too, a campaign is on to raise \$10,000 for the Young Women's Christian Association.

But even more significant as showing the dependence of philanthropic organizations upon the churches than the money contributions is the number of active workers furnished by the church in question—34 out of a total of 82 reporting, 70 per cent. The writer has every reason to believe that this percentage would hold good for the entire membership of the parish.

In order to visualize the relation between the church and organized charity work outside the church, two charts were presented showing at a glance the financial relation and the personal relation—its money gifts and its gifts of workers. At the hubs of the two wheels is the church, on the circumferences are the several organizations to which it contributes money and service, the spokes marking the connection, or lines of radiation from the church.

A study of these charts discloses very

quickly both how largely the church is finding expression for its faith and religious convictions in practical community betterment, aside from its value as an indirect inspirational force, and as an institution for maintaining the high ideals of the Christian religion. The value of these organizations to the church is immeasurable, as furnishing opportunity for the expression of its spiritual life in concrete practical form, for putting into practice and reaping its self-developing results, the fundamental pedagogical principle, "No impression without expression." Erase the spokes of the wheels, and one readily sees how at a loss the average church would be, with its utterly inadequate equipment for doing Christian service in the community as such service is now conceived, without these outside organizations.

It is sometimes contended that the churches have made a serious mistake in permitting all this work to slip out of their hands, that had they realized their indebtedness to the community and understood the Gospel there need never have been such a multiplication of outside institutions doing Christian service. Possibly it may have been a mistake, but the mistake has been made and cannot be recovered.

As a matter of fact, has the church after all let these opportunities to serve slip out of it hands? It is true that the individual church is submerged in the co-operative activities of the many churches in these institutions, but the question at once arises as to the greater efficiency of such co-operative service. Certainly the effect has been to lower denominational barriers and develop the fraternal spirit. And then it is very doubtful if the non-church elements in the community could be induced to assist to the extent they do, if the work was carried on in sections by individual churches, instead of through co-operation. No doubt, the churches have not received the credit they deserved, and sometimes there has been manifest in these outside organizations, like the Young Men's Christian Association and social settlements, a spirit of independence of the church, even of dictation to the church, which was not justified either by the facts or by a proper understanding of the problem of social uplift. But of late there is evident a change of sentiment on the part of social workers in the above-mentioned organizations and others, involving a more generous recognition of the necessity of the church.

As Robert A. Woods, of South End House in Boston, has been recently quoted as saying, "We have come to see the inadequacy of all other forces in the community apart from the added influence of the church. That the home alone cannot solve our many problems; that the schools alone cannot do it; and that those in the homes and in the schools are looking as never before for the co-operative service of the church. All the social workers are coming to see that this world is not saved by education. The tide of interest and desire is flowing back into the church."

Winston Churchill, in his novel, *The Inside of the Cup*, has emphasized the same thought in one of those dramatic

interviews between John Hodder and his wealthy parishioner, when the new settlement house was under discussion.

Now, on the other hand, suppose that the center of the circle, the hub of the wheel, should be erased, what would become of the many outside organizations? Where would they get their funds? Where would they get their workers, even ultimately their paid workers? The fountain of the many streams flowing into their treasuries and activities is dried up—not of all the streams, of course, but the great majority of them.

If the church is neglected, if it is given a secondary place in the interest of the people, if it is deprived of adequate funds and workers so as to weaken its efficiency, if the burden of its support and activities is thrown upon the shoulders of a few loyal ones till they get wearied of the overload, what is the result? The richest mine from which these other institutions draw their workers is taken away, or greatly exhausted. They are cut off from their surest base of financial supplies. They are deprived of the chief source of their inspiration.

WITH HALF A LUNG: THE STORY OF A COMMUNITY PREACHER—BY FRED EASTMAN

A LITTLE MORE than a year ago a Methodist preacher with only half a lung went from New York city to a small farming community near Suffern, N. Y. His name was John S. Burton. He was assigned to three tiny churches on a circuit. His salary was microscopic. It was not sufficient to support his wife and three children in even the simplest sort of Methodist minister style. It had to be helped out by gifts of potatoes and beans, turnips and corn and whatever else the neighbors saw fit to bring in.

He went into the community with the expectation of dying there, and that before long. But as he got acquainted with the place (or the places rather, for his churches were miles apart), he found work that needed to be done before he died. Here were farmers thirty miles from New York city each living to himself and each competing with his neighbor farmers in marketing his products. The young men were leaving the farms as fast as they could go. Life in the country seemed too slow, too dull and too unpromising. The only place to have any fun at all seemed to be the small city four miles away.

Now the little Methodist preacher thought that these things ought not be. Farmers had as good stuff in them as other people and life in the country he thought could be made just as attractive as life in the city, yes, even more so. The one problem was to get the farmers to work together. And that's about the hardest problem under the sun. Farmers don't want to work together. All their life in the open on their farms teaches them only how to work independently. The farmer's boast is his independence. He's proud of what he does by himself, not what

And, what is more fundamentally important, they will lose a certain quality of service, essential to all permanent social uplift, the need of which is now conceded—that which comes from a well developed religious nature and the passion for human souls.

We may not see or feel the effect of these losses in our day, but future generations—even the next generation—will feel them deeply, and charge them to the folly of the Christian people of our generation.

The writer's attention has been called to the fact that in recent years many of the humanitarian functions hitherto regarded as the prerogatives of the church and other voluntary agencies are being rapidly taken over by the state, the city and the county. The fact adds emphasis to the value and importance of this little survey. It is indeed one of the most significant facts in modern social development, and is at once a reply to those who are inclined to criticize the church as an ineffective agency and also a further appeal for an even more loyal support of the church.

he does together with his neighbors.

The little Methodist preacher set about to bring these farmers together—to make them learn to work and play together.

He needed a horse and buggy. He had only \$50 in cash and he knew he couldn't get much of a horse for \$50. But he announced that he wanted to buy a horse and was willing to pay \$50. Immediately all the horse traders of the country round began to come to him. They brought the lame, the halt and the blind, as miscellaneous a collection of horseflesh as ever passed under that name in that neighborhood.

Now the Methodist preacher knew nothing about horses and could not tell a good one from a bad one. So he resorted to prayer. Every time a horse was brought to him he would say, "Lord, is this the horse I want?" And the Lord replied (according to the preacher), "No, not this one." Sixteen or seventeen horses were brought to him and the Lord turned them all down.

Then one day the preacher called at a large farm to ask the owner to come to church. The owner was not a church-going man and he said afterward that he had a strong inclination to turn the hose upon the preacher. But he made a great show of being courteous.

"It's a hard job you have here," he said by way of starting conversation.

"Yes," said the preacher, "but it isn't a hopeless job. If I can get one or two young men turned around and started on a life of decency and good citizenship I'll call my work a success."

That appealed to the farmer. When the preacher left the house that afternoon the farmer called up a few of his neighbors and got them to subscribe

enough to buy a good horse and buggy for the parson.

And then the parson went to work in earnest. Last fall, just a year after he settled down in the community, a club flourished among the farmers. It had 300 members. In September they gave a country fair. There were exhibitions of farming and garden products; there was a plowing contest and a flower show; there were exhibitions of cooking and of industrial work, and there were athletic contests winding up with a ball game. The fair was held at one of the farms and the whole neighborhood was there. The stores in the small city of Suffern four miles away closed their doors on Saturday from 10 o'clock in the morning to 5 in the afternoon in order that their employes might go out into the country to attend the fair.

THE SOCIAL SERVICE CHURCH UNION: ITS OBJECTS —BY ANNIE T. MOCK

ONE OF THE principal objections to organized charity is that it is said to rob charity of its sympathetic and personal elements. The Indianapolis Charity Organization Society has been attempting since its beginning to combat these objections. In the recent organization of the Social Service Church Union, an important step has been taken in bringing the personal element more strongly into the work than ever before.

The Social Service Church Union has two important objects; to bring the churches into active co-operation with the charitable forces, and to extend the right influences into every section of the city. The work done in a few months gives hope that it will be successful.

The plan of organizing churches for social service work has been tried in many cities and in some has proven unsuccessful. An attempt has been made in Indianapolis to study the work in other cities to see wherein it has failed. In several places it has been found that no definite plan of work was laid out, and the organizations died from inaction.

In perfecting the organization here, all publicity was avoided, and the work was thoroughly outlined before any churches were approached. Then when ministers and laymen in the churches were asked to take part in the organization, a definite work was offered them.

The Social Service Church Union is not a distinctive organization, but is an organization to supplement and extend the work of the Charity Organization Society. When the latter finds a family in need, one of its trained investigators makes an investigation, and provides for immediate needs. Then the Social Service Church Union is called into action.

Under the plan of organization there is a strong executive committee composed of nine persons who direct the work. There are four departments each of which has a committee of five to outline its work. A committee of five is obtained from each church, three men and two women (the women for friendly visiting). A worker for each

After the fair one of the farmers in the community, a Roman Catholic, offered to give one of the houses on his farm rent-free as a club house for the community club.

The club has a dozen or more committees, an educational committee, a better farming committee, a lecture course committee, etc. Some of the neighborhood's business men who live in the city in the winter have become so interested in it that one night a week they came out from the city especially to attend the meeting of this club.

This little Methodist preacher is on no committee; he is not chairman or secretary or treasurer. He is just a sort of two-legged prayer meeting going about the community filling everybody full of the holy spirit.

church organized is placed in each department. The departments are for relief work, for the study of crime and its causes, for housing and sanitation investigation and for friendly visiting.

If the family needs continual relief because of ill health, a large number of children or from some other cause, the relief department is asked to take up the work. An effort is made to find the relatives or friends who will contribute to the family's relief, and the proper kind of relief is found and provided.

Often the bread-winner is a drunkard, or will not work, or spends his money for various purposes. The department on crime is immediately called and a thorough investigation is made. Perhaps the courts are appealed to, but more frequently the influence of upright men who show an interest in the man or woman, is sufficient to restore the man or woman to normal conditions.

The housing and sanitation department co-operates with the City Board of Health and the municipal building inspection department. When a family is found where unsanitary conditions make for sickness, workers in the housing and sanitation department investigate conditions thoroughly. The owners of the property first are appealed to to remedy conditions and if they fail, the city government is requested to act.

Not the least important is the friendly visiting department, composed entirely of women. Frequently workers of the Charity Organization Society find families living in bad conditions because of incompetent mothers. After the mother has been a working girl before her marriage and has had no opportunity to learn to cook, to keep house, and to care for her children.

A friendly visitor is assigned to this family. She approaches in a diplomatic way and soon wins her way into the home. There she instructs the mother in the duties of her household, and is indeed a friend. In this way the problems of a family are worked out along scientific lines.

Seventy-eight churches, including

Protestant, Catholic, Jewish and Unitarian have joined in the work, making a total of nearly 300 laymen engaged in social work in this one organization. Practically all of them are busy, and at stated intervals meetings are held at which the workers exchange experiences and views. It has been found that when laymen are once started in the work, it is easy to keep them engaged, as they find it very fascinating.

FIRESIDE TALKS AFTER EVENING SERVICE

Rev. Leslie E. Learned, rector of All Saints Episcopal Church of Pasadena, Cal., has found a new method of creating interest among thoughtful people in applied Christianity.

He recently announced a series of fireside talks at the Parish House after the Sunday evening service, with subjects suggested by some article in current literature among which was Consider the Other Fellow by Colonel Higginson in THE SURVEY of February 7. Other topics were immigration and the work done in assimilating our immigrants by the public schools. The attendance was usually large, other churches being well represented.

Sometimes a leader was appointed to open the discussion, sometimes not. There was full and free expression of opinion encouraged and guided by the genial rector who though plainly an idealist evidently desires ideals to be wrought into the fabric of our common life, and always he dismissed the gathering with an uplifting and hopeful sentiment.

WOMEN AND CHURCH FEDERATION

In the discussions of the Conference of New England Church Federations recently an entirely new feature was developed, woman's part in the movement. Mrs. George W. Coleman told how, since 1900, the women's missionary boards of the leading denominations, both home and foreign, have been federated for mission-study institutes and text-books.

Mrs. Georgia M. Root described what is probably the first attempt of church women to unite forces, something that club women have done for two decades. She told of the Providence Federation of Women's Church Societies, including forty-three churches of eight denominations. Started to give a reception to the pastors of the city, it soon found a field of its own in affording a clearing-house for experience in the best methods of women's church work, in united study and prayer for missions; and in bringing church women for the first time into alliance with social service workers.

A "forward movement" mass-meeting of a thousand women, after an inspirational address, listened to the definite suggestions of a dozen of these social experts. The opportunities of woman as secretary of a local federation were forcibly illustrated from her own experience by Harriet J. Stevenson of Portland, Me. Every pastor present felt, as one remarked, "That is just the help we all need in our own city!"

The Trend of Things

CLINIC NOTES is a new publication, modest in dimensions but wide in aim. Its four pages are issued by the New York Association of Tuberculosis Clinics "for the information of clinic physicians and nurses." The title suggests case records but the information offered has to do rather with doings and suggestions in the general field of tuberculosis work and study. Among the items in the May issue is a summary of the recent investigation made by the Free Synagogue and the United Hebrew Charities into the condition of patients discharged from sanatoria.

The American

RAY STANNARD BAKER in the *American*—A Thinker in the White House—gives the following principles that are being set up by President Wilson:

First.—Some of the power and some of the privilege of vast wealth are being curtailed. The tariff law, the currency law, and the trust laws have each tended in this direction.

Second.—The principle of government control of industry and commerce has been established as never before. Commissions provided for in the currency and the trust legislation have this end plainly in view.

Third.—A short step in the direction of actual government ownership of the instruments of commerce has been made in the provision for the governmental development of Alaska railroads, the control of radium lands, and the like.

Fourth.—And in some ways the most important of all, a new ideal, a new standard is being set up in our relations with our neighboring nations—as in the Mexican affair.

THE WORLD'S WORK

THE public defender has become an officer of the courts in Los Angeles county. The incumbent, Walton J. Wood, obtained the position by a civil service examination in which he stood highest among fifty candidates. During the first month (January) nearly a thousand applicants brought their cases to the new office. More than half of the applicants were found to be deserving but so poor that they were unable to hire an attorney. In most of the civil cases the public defender, with the prestige of his office, has been able to settle the cases out of court.

Says the *World's Work*

A poor man accused of a crime whose case reaches the Superior Court can call upon the lawyer who fills this recently invented office. Elsewhere in the United States the court appoints a lawyer to represent defendants who cannot hire their own counsel. In some cases able

counsel are appointed. In other cases they are not. In Los Angeles County the poor defendants have a county officer to defend them just as they have a county officer to prosecute them. . . .

Besides the criminal cases of poor in the Superior Court, the public defender takes civil cases in which the defendants seem unduly harassed by creditors. He is also empowered to institute civil suits to collect debts of less than \$100 for the indigent. This enables him to collect workmen's wages for them, which they are more or less powerless to collect for themselves because of the cost of litigation.

ATLANTIC MONTHLY

THERE is a new stressing of values in Prof. George C. Whipple's article in the May *Atlantic*, on the Science of Public Health. Long-cherished bugaboos, like sewer-gas and the passage of disease germs through the air, are disposed of, and new theories of air and water and the things in them both, are offered for consideration and attainment.

"Broadly defined," says Professor Whipple, "sanitation covers all the arts which make for clean environment, and sanitary engineers concern themselves not alone with drains and sewers and sewage-treatment works, but with all of the many activities required to provide communities with pure water, fresh air, clean food, and, in general, clean surroundings."

In pursuit of clean air we find that ventilation now depends no longer on carbonic acid alone, but on humidity and air movement. Proof of this is found in experiments made in close chambers known as calorimeters. Persons remaining in this calorimeter until concentrations of carbonic acid far exceeded those in crowded rooms, experienced no discomfort. When temperature and humidity increased and the air was kept motionless, they began to suffer. Air-washing has been successfully attempted at Springfield, Mass., in the gymnasium of the College of the Young Men's Christian Association. The air is driven through chambers where water is falling in drops or as a spray, and the result is as "freshening as a summer shower."

"The air in the exhaust-duct always had a noticeable odor when the men were exercising on the floor, but after being washed the air was returned with no offensive smell. Examination of the water used for washing the air showed that the odoriferous substances had gone into the water, together with dust particles, bacteria, and even epithelial scales from the skin. If the washer was shut down and the air recirculated the men complained of foul air. Starting the washer restored comfort."

A saving of heat is, obviously though with limitations, possible by this method of ventilation.

In the matter of water, filtration, by passing the water through layers of sand, is still the chief process of purification employed, but the use of chemicals Professor Whipple believes to be rapidly increasing. Some recent studies have emphasized the practical importance of temperature, (e. g., the typhoid bacillus lives in cold water, dies in warm), and of microscopic algae floating in the waters of lakes. An interesting effort on the part of nature to assist in solving problems of sewage disposal is told in the following paragraph:

"The cycle of changes in the microscopic life in polluted water is curious and interesting. Studies of the Genesee River, between the mouth of the Rochester sewers and Lake Ontario, made last year, showed that just below the point where the sewage was discharged the water contained large numbers of bacteria; a few miles downstream these decreased and the protozoa increased; next the protozoa decreased and the crustacea increased. The crustacea serve as food for fish, and fishermen were actually seen at the river mouth catching fish to be taken back to Rochester and used for food. Hence the cycle was complete. This is an excellent illustration of what is ever recurring in nature."

Perhaps even more significant than Professor Whipple's narration of these special discoveries, is his generalization as to the interrelation of the problems outlined:

"The street-cleaning problem, the garbage and refuse problem, the housing problem, the factory problem, are in the same class with the ventilation problem and the sewage-disposal problem; and the list might be extended further." "A study of sanitation leads to a study of sociology."

The solution, he believes, of these inter-related problems demands the application of "vital bookkeeping"—the term he applies to demography or vital and social statistics. He calls for co-operation at every point with the efforts of the Census Bureau and the Children's Bureau to secure adequate registration laws the country over and the efforts of certain life insurance companies to make statistics more than a house of cards, and to render them accessible to students of modern life-saving the country over.

The conclusion of the whole matter is that this broadening science of sanitation calls for broader men, men of sound fundamental education, men of imagination, men of force. The new career of the new type of health officer is appealing to strong and thoughtful recruits at such training places as the School for Health Officers in Boston. "The need of reliable men is not confined to the leaders of thought," says Dr. Whipple. "The shame of American sanitation today is neglect of duty, non-enforcement of laws. Legislators do not legislate with wisdom, inspectors do not inspect, attendants do not attend, and laborers do not labor as they should."



Editorials

EDWARD T. DEVINE
JANE ADDAMS
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Editor

THE Fish Committee was a committee of stockholders of high standing of the United States Steel Corporation, with the former president of the Illinois Central Railway as chairman. It was appointed to inquire into labor conditions under a resolution adopted at the annual meeting of the corporation in 1911 and it reported in 1912.

The Finance Committee is the highest legislative-administrative board in the make-up of the United States Steel Corporation.

The United States Steel Corporation is the largest employer of labor in the United States.

The annual meeting of the United States Steel Corporation for 1914 (held in April) was significant because of the apparent disposition to consider all obligations met by a record of 33 1-3 per cent performance of the recommendations made by the Fish Committee.

IT will be remembered that three important recommendations were made by the Fish Committee:

- That seven-day labor be eliminated;
- That steps be taken immediately looking to a solution of the twelve-hour-day problem;
- That reports on labor conditions in the corporation's mills be made "at stated periods" to the stockholders.

The first recommendation was immediately put into effect by the officials of the corporation.

The other two recommendations have not fared so well. The Finance Committee reported at this year's meeting that the distribution to stockholders of quarterly bulletins containing information regarding labor conditions would cost \$40,000 and be unjustifiable. Of course, there is no reason why such bulletins should be published quarterly. Everything of essential importance could be bound in with the financial statements in the annual report now sent to all stockholders. This could be done at a trifling increase in expense, and the significance of keeping the great body of stockholders acquainted with the work-conditions in the properties they own, is not to be over-rated.

More important, however, is the relegation to the scrapheap of the proposal to cut down the twelve-hour day in the continuous processes (where the twenty-four hours must be split into three parts or two).

The Finance Committee's report pointed out that when the corporation stopped the practice of requiring seven-day labor and consequently cut

off one day's pay a week from the men who had been working seven days, they lost some 4,000 men who went to other companies where seven day work continued.

The report expressed the belief that, if the reduction from twelve hours to eight were made without increasing the hourly rate of pay, dissatisfaction would be much greater than that which developed in connection with the seven-day week. But if, on the other hand, the corporation should so increase wages as to enable the men in the continuous processes to earn as much as formerly,—in other words, increase the hourly rate 50 per cent.,—it would then be handicapped very seriously in its attempt to compete with other concerns both at home and abroad where the twelve-hour day is the rule.

The statement is made that the question has been investigated and that the difficulties involved in changing from twelve hours to eight in the continuous processes are altogether too great. And there apparently the matter is to be left.

That the difficulties are grave no one who is willing to give the matter a moment's serious consideration will deny. Whether or not difficulties are to be faced, however, always depends in large degree upon either the advantages to be gained or the evils to be avoided by surmounting them. Back of the difficulties in this case is a regime of labor of which the Fish Committee said:

"We are of the opinion that a twelve-hour day of labor, followed continuously by any group of men for any considerable number of years means a decreasing of the efficiency and lessening of the vigor and virility of such men. The question should be considered from a social as well as a physical point of view.

"When it is remembered that twelve hours a day to the man in the mills means approximately thirteen hours away from his home and family—not for one day, but for all working days—it leaves but scant time for self-improvement, for companionship with his family, for recreation and leisure. . . .

"That steps should be taken now that shall have for their purpose and end a reasonable and just arrangement to all concerned of the problems involved in this question—that of reducing the long hours of labor—we would respectfully recommend to the intelligent and thoughtful consideration of the proper officers of the corporation."

The civilized world has practically come into agreement that a twelve-hour working day is too long. There is scarcely a steel man of standing in America who will not agree that the twelve-hour day is bad. There ought not to be any hesitancy over eliminating an evil about which there is such unanimity of opinion unless in fact such action is impossible instead of only difficult.

These difficulties are very real. In addition to those mentioned in the Finance Committee report, there is one that has been mentioned on innumerable occasions in the past, the difficulty of finding enough men when the change, requiring a 50 per cent increase in the labor force, is made. The seriousness of this difficulty is not to be questioned, for the men in the continuous processes are men of skill. However glutted the common labor market might be, men could not easily be found to do the skilled work of operating the furnaces and adjusting the rolls.

BUT no reasonable person has ever proposed making the change from twelve hours to eight over night. Throughout the steel industry of South Wales the eight-hour day has come into universal operation in the open-hearth furnaces, and, by the voluntary restraint of the union which secured the agreement with the Manufacturers' Association, five years were consumed in effecting the change. In 1907 the eight-hour shift went into effect in the first mill. Then as designated by the secretary of the union the other mills followed suit, and it was not until 1912 that the last mill of the association abandoned the twelve-hour day.

The effect of the change in Wales and the north of England is shown in the article by John Hodge, secretary of the British Steel Smelters' Union, on page 216 of this issue of *THE SURVEY*. The industry did not suffer shipwreck in South Wales. Instead the movement is gathering headway and making progress over all England.

Mr. Hodge shows how, in England, the men continued working at the old twelve-hour wage scale. Perhaps the American steel workers would not take kindly to that proposition. Perhaps it is not necessary that they should. In the absence of experiment how can we know that an increase in wages when accompanied by a reduction in hours will seriously affect costs? Labor cost at best is only one item in cost of production.

No answer has yet been made to the careful deductions of the United States Bureau of Labor Statistics on this question. In its report on the iron and steel industry it reached the conclusion that if a change were made to an eight-hour day and hourly rates were increased 50 per cent, the cost of producing a ton of pig iron would be increased only 2.6 per cent, and the cost of producing the principal products of steel works and rolling mills would be increased only 6 per cent. This estimate assumes that there would be no increase in efficiency if hours of labor were reduced. And yet all experience tends to the reasonable expectation that more and better work would be done. The Commonwealth Steel Company of Granite City, Ill., adopted an eight-hour day in

its open-hearth furnaces over two years ago, and although wages were increased the company was fully recouped by increased output.

The merits of the argument, whether based on experience, humane impulse or pure theory, seem to be in favor of the shorter work day. It is not always safe to follow impulse, but to a theory based on experience, respectful consideration cannot be denied. It is true, however, that experience as yet is limited.

In a matter of so great moment why should not the greatest employing corporation in the world, the United States Steel Corporation, carry the experiment further?

Every day in its laboratories tests are made of ductility or tensile strength of steel, of the heat units in a given amount of fuel. Sometimes a larger laboratory is needed and a new furnace is set up, or a new method of handling materials installed. Thus the department or even the plant becomes the field for experiment. Such experiments have in the past resulted in the scrapping of "anything from a steam hammer to a steel works" whenever anything better was to be found.

Thousands of dollars have been freely spent to lessen dependence on human labor. Why should the spirit of investigation stop with inanimate things? By the same methods it would be possible to determine beyond all cavil whether or not the eight-hour day is efficient or economical. A plant or a department would be needed for the test, but the game would be worth the candle. Like any other laboratory experiment it should not be terminated before it has exhausted all possibilities, nor should it be abandoned for trivial reasons. If thus entered upon in good faith a flood of light would be thrown upon this whole problem.

IT should be clear that we are not discussing the United States Steel Corporation because it has lagged behind other large steel companies in its concern for the welfare of its workmen. On the contrary, the Steel Corporation is far in advance of its contemporaries.

The outsider naturally takes with a pinch of salt the genial and in one case prayerful testimony of stock-owning employees who turned up at this annual meeting as character witnesses of the management. But the standing of the corporation rests on more substantial foundations. It pays higher wages than the other steel companies, has stood almost alone among them in the rigidity with which it has set its face against seven-day labor and is the leader of all industries in safety work.

It is exactly because of the position of the corporation as leader of a basic American industry that we believe it has no right to shift responsibilities that the logic of events have placed upon its shoulders—which in fact, by vote of the stockholders in 1912 it voluntarily assumed. The problem must be worked out. The twelve-hour day is an anachronism in the twentieth century, and in one way or another it will be abolished. It will be well if it can be done through voluntary action of the steel companies themselves. If they fail, the government will undoubtedly be forced to act, in behalf of the welfare of its citizens.

Personals

TWO remarkable things have taken place in New Rochelle, N. Y. The first was the action of the Board of Health in asking Lt.-Col. Charles E. Woodruff, M.D., who last year made New Rochelle his home, to become temporarily the city's chief health officer. The second was that Colonel Woodruff, associate editor of *American Medicine* and a sanitarian of national reputation, should have been willing to serve in this capacity.

It is seldom that a community of 30,000 is wise enough to select for public office a man who is not a native. It is still more unusual to find a man of Colonel Woodruff's ability who is ready to give his time to what would ordinarily be an unattractive position.

Colonel Woodruff enlisted in the navy as surgeon in 1886. In 1887 he entered the army and served until 1913 when he was retired as the result of illness contracted in the Philippines, where he went with the first expedition to the islands as a member of General Merritt's staff. In 1907 he served as chief sanitary health officer of the Jamestown Exposition and last year made for the United States government an investigation of sanitary work as conducted on the continent. He is the author of *Effect of Tropical Light on White Men* and of *The Expansion of the Races*.

The Health Department in New Rochelle has been under criticism for more than a year. Colonel Woodruff's predecessor was suspended pending the bringing of formal charges of neglect of duty. Shortly thereafter the New York Bureau of Municipal Research which, at the invitation of the civic sec-

tion of the Woman's Club, had conducted a survey of the city departments, made a most condemnatory report upon the work of the health bureau. New Rochellians now hope that the position of health officer will be declared vacant and that Colonel Woodruff can be induced to take the civil service examination and serve permanently in his present capacity.

KARL DE SCHWEINITZ.

IN making Bailey B. Burritt general director of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, the directors of that organization have filled the vacancy created when John A. Kingsbury became the city's commissioner of public charities. Mr. Burritt has been acting general director since the beginning of the year.

Dr. Donald B. Armstrong, heretofore superintendent of the association's Bureau of Public Health and Hygiene, succeeds Mr. Burritt as director of the Department of Social Welfare.

Philip S. Platt, a graduate of Yale, with a special training in public health work at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology becomes superintendent of the Bureau of Public Health and Hygiene.

Mr. Burritt has been in social work since 1906, when he was appointed director of social work of the Speyer School Settlement of Columbia University. In 1908 he became assistant secretary of the State Charities Aid Association and in 1910 executive secretary of the Committee on Criminal Courts of the New York Charity Organization Society. In the summer of 1913 he was engaged by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor as director of its Department of Social Welfare.

ON May 1 the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania gained a new secretary and social work enlisted a new recruit in the person of Robert Dunning Dripps. Mr. Dripps is one of the best known of the younger progressive Philadelphians who has lately come to the front in civic movements.

The son of a Scotch-Irish Presbyterian minister, he naturally attended Lawrenceville and later Princeton, where he was graduated in 1898 after service on debating teams, and college publications that showed early the bent of his mind. He entered City Councils from the Germantown district when the Blankenburg administration began and has been floor leader of the reform forces in Common Councils from the first. He is on the Board of Directors of the City Club of Philadelphia and is chairman of its Executive Committee.

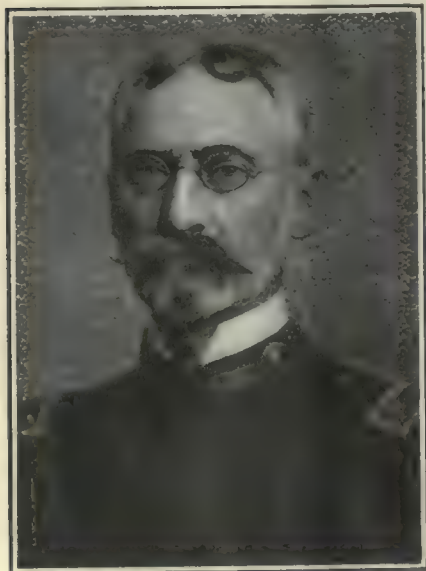
A lawyer by profession, and by disposition a willing horse, he has more and more been hitched up to social movements in his native city and state so that there is little change in his relation to the community now that he is harnessed to a definite piece of social work.

In 1912, when the Progressives captured the Republican state convention, Mr. Dripps served on the executive and legislative committee, a continuing body which held public hearings over the state and did notable work in drafting legislation on child labor, hours of labor for women, minimum wage for women, regulation of public utilities, workmen's compensation and regulation of public charities. The hearings given on public charities offered a most effective means for bringing into the light of publicity the deplorable muddle of Pennsylvania's system of indiscriminate subsidy to private charities at the expense of the state's wards.

The Public Charities Association, organized about that time, was also active in furthering legislation affecting its field of work but was only partially successful in its first foray on Harrisburg. With his training and experience in legislative work, Mr. Dripps, should be an effective leader in the movement that has now gained very considerable headway. A new Legislature meets in 1915 and an awakened public opinion will demand that the insane be taken from twenty county almshouses to proper state institutions, that the feeble-minded be given adequate institutional care before the usual millions are appropriated in planless fashion to private charities with no state supervision, and that other modernizing changes be made in the state's care of its dependent, defective and delinquent charges.

ALEXANDER M. WILSON.

IN recognition of his twenty-one years service as head of the Child Welfare Department of the Province of Ontario, J. J. Kelso has been granted



LT. COL. CHARLES E. WOODRUFF

An army sanitarian who has been made health officer of New Rochelle.



ROBERT D. DRIPPS

New Secretary of the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania.



J. J. KELSO

For twenty-one years head of Child Welfare Department, Province of Ontario.

a six months leave of absence in which to study social conditions in Great Britain. He left May 19 with his family.

Mr. Kelso has been continuously in philanthropic work ever since, as a Toronto newspaper man, at the age of twenty-two, he began to write the story of the street waif and the humane treatment of animals. While still in journalism he organized the Toronto Humane Society and later in the same city the Children's Fresh Air Fund, the Children's Aid Society and the Playgrounds Association. He has helped to organize work for children in many cities and provinces of Canada.

The Toronto Star recently said that Mr. Kelso had performed a more valuable service in preventing crime than half the police force of Ontario. He has become well known in this country through his attendance at the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

DR. C.-E. A. Winslow of the College of the City of New York, curator of the American Museum of History, has been appointed consulting expert in education of the New York State Board of Health. Dr. Winslow plans the early issuance of a number of leaflets dealing with the prevention of infant mortality.

WILLIAM O. THOMPSON, counsel for the federal Industrial Relations Commission, came conspicuously before the public not long ago when he prevented the termination of the protocol of peace between the manufacturers and the unions in the great New York city cloak trade. By his handling of a situation which even the most optimistic believed would end in a general strike, Mr. Thompson proved his ability to analyze and adjust intricate problems of industrial relations.

For the last three years he has been union representative on the Board of Arbitration for the Hart, Schaffner & Marx clothing factories in Chicago. In 1891, after he was admitted to the bar

from Northwestern University law school, he became law partner of John P. Altgeld, former governor of Illinois, and Clarence S. Darrow. Later he was counsel for the National Biscuit Company and other large corporations, so that his experience embraces unusual understanding of the point of view of both employers and workers.

Mr. Thompson was born in England in 1870.

IN appointing Dr. Richard H. Harte to succeed Dr. Joseph S. Neff as director of the Department of Public Health and Charities in Philadelphia Mayor Blankenburg has the general endorsement of the medical profession in Philadelphia. He has also followed the tradition which demands that a physician head the department.

Dr. Harte is independently wealthy. Upon becoming director he gave up his medical practice and his extensive hospital connections. During the remaining year and seven months of the Blankenburg administration he will devote himself exclusively to work for the city.

Dr. Harte was born Oct. 23, 1855. He is a graduate of the medical school of the University of Pennsylvania and for some time was a member of its teaching staff. As a surgeon his standing is high. He has also had much experience in hospital management, having been for many years closely associated with the



RICHARD H. HARTE

Director Philadelphia Department of Public Health and Charities.

Pennsylvania and Episcopal Hospitals in addition to having connections with a number of other institutions. In politics he is an independent. He served for three years as a member of Select Councils, having been elected on the ticket of the Keystone party, one of the many organizations which from time to time have sprung up in Philadelphia in an effort to overcome boss rule.



THE PRICE OF A PENCIL

C. M. Goethe

COULD a reporter's pencil write a story of its own? It has one that ought to be told.

Running through the southern states is a belt of cedar. From these trees were split rails which have lasted nearly a century. The rail fences are as characteristic of the South as are the log cabins, the beautiful colonial homes of the young days of the republic, the famous singing of the plantation Negroes and their banjo music. But the rail fence is passing. It is being made into high-grade lead pencils. This conversion from fences to lead pencils unfortunately includes a story of exploited people—recreation hungry and easily imposed upon.

There are perhaps a dozen pencil mills in the South. The owners buy the fences, paying part cash and part in a wire fence. The product is shipped abroad to Austria, Germany, Belgium, where the graphite is pressed into the cedar strips and the finished pencils are made. Recently Japan has become a

competitor of Europe and a customer of the southern mills.

Upon an upper floor of a pencil mill the jigsaw men work. The air is as ruddy as if rusty snow were falling. "A generation ago we never had a death from consumption in our county. Recently we have recorded sixty odd deaths. We do not know the cause," said a betterment worker in one of the pencil mill sections.

The men are employed under the piece work system. They have no labor unions. They work much longer than the eight hour day some of us believe is none too short. But they also work under conditions which seem dangerous. The cedar rails are reduced to pencil lengths. Then the jig-sawyers cut them into slabs the width of a lead pencil. With unprotected circular saws, this means holding fingers uncomfortably close. In answer to the question, how many men were cut, came: "About one every other day."

The strips drop from the circular saws to a lower floor. Here girls sort and classify them. Some of these girls wear dresses only to their knees. They

look as if they ought to be at school or romping on a playground. The atmosphere is little, if any, less dusty than on the jigsaw floor. The workers are red with the fine sawdust. A newcomer can hardly breathe in the room. The hands are "speeded up" so that one is forcibly reminded of Jurgis in *The Jungle*. One sees them in all stages—from the plump, rosy-cheeked beginner just in from the farm to the gaunt, stoop-shouldered, hollow-chested woman, a pale-faced nervous wreck.

Going into the mill, one stumbles over cases of bottles of a certain "soft drink" stimulant, manufactured in the South. Evidently much is consumed. It is carried up and down the rows of workers. A short conversation with a young fellow of the type known as "the cadet" waiting at the mill door near the closing hour brought out this bit of philosophy: "Everybody's got their own peculiar graft in this yere world, stranger. I've got mine and I reckon you've got your'n. The foreman here's got the ——— graft," naming the above "soft drink." "His nephew totes the stuff to the girls and the men. They sign cards just like at your swell city clubs. He never loses a picayune—he takes it outer their pay. He says it's healthy, and it makes them work better, but I reckon all he worries about is the health of his bank account."

One of the floor bosses, when asked about labor unions, said: "You bet we ain't got any here. We've got labor

we can handle. We won't hire anybody raised in a town. We get 'em from the farms—back in the mountains—the kind wot's hungry for a good time. That kind will stand for pretty near anything." It was the old story of recreation hunger.

But the saddest of all was to come. Jane Addams once advised going to where the day's work was ending if one wanted to understand where the real trial came to the underpaid and overworked woman worker.

The week's work was almost over at the pencil mill. At the time-clock shed door stood several young fellows of the parasitical type. As the girls streamed out one of these vultures stepped up and took the arm of a pretty brown-eyed, rosy-cheeked girl. They were starting off together when another mill girl said to the fellow: "Bill, you ain't got no right to go off this way with Belle. You've got a wife and a baby."

"Oh, hell," was Bill's answer, "I don't care if you do tell her. Belle here looks pretty good to me."

Another chap stepped up to a wan-looking, coughing girl, who exclaimed with a startled look: "What, you here again! Ain't I got enough to rack me with the work in that mill all week without you coming to hound me when I'm all tired out? Please go away and leave me alone." There was low conversation for a moment. They went off together.

And this, because of our way of doing things, is the price of a lead pencil!

views were out of date, along with his reference to the Committee of Fifty. Perhaps if he would get the later views of Charles W. Eliot he would not find them as useful for his purpose, and it is probable that some of the other members of that committee have also advanced in learning since that time.

I do not understand Dr. Williams to allege that it is on account of this universal teaching of the ill effects of alcohol and tobacco that the consumption has so largely increased. It is certainly fair to ask how much larger the increase would have been if the instruction had not been given.

Perhaps, as Dr. Williams has written so much, he might be induced to write again to explain why he wrote at all, unless indeed he had in view the repeal of the scientific temperance instruction laws in the various states, in which effort I have no doubt he would have the enthusiastic assistance of the liquor interests of the country.

I understand that Dr. Williams has not confined his efforts to the above mentioned article but that the *Medical Record* of New York has been publishing a series of articles by him, which, I judge from a review I see of them, are as unworthy of publication as the article which I am now criticizing.

CHARLES E. MANIERRE.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR: Since one of your correspondents has suggested that I state my attitude in regard to teaching children the dangers of alcohol and narcotics, I will do so briefly.

I believe that every child should be taught the plain truth that such substances as alcohol and tobacco are peculiarly harmful to children. But the method of attempting to impress upon the child the dangers of narcotics by reiterating untruths is not in accord with the modern conception of what constitutes proper mental training.

EDWARD H. WILLIAMS.

Montclair, N. J.

TO THE EDITOR: As a sometime reader of *THE SURVEY* I cannot refrain from telling you how much the public is indebted to your periodical for publishing Teaching Temperance in Public Schools by Dr. Edward H. Williams. The only criticism I can offer is that the publication of this very valuable essay is about twenty-five years too late. It has been established from time immemorial that the exaggeration of evil simply aggravates evil. While I do not wish to have it considered that I would hide evil under a bushel, yet to flaunt it before minds unprepared through lack of social experiences arouses desires in the individual and tempts him even so little to taste of the thing forbidden. Such is the power of temptation.

J. A. RONEY.

Newark, N. J.

TO THE EDITOR: I am glad that one paper has had the courage to publish the truth about that miserable humbuggery, temperance instruction in our public schools. When will good peo-

Communications

TEACHING TEMPERANCE

TO THE EDITOR: I regret that you should have admitted to your columns the communication by Edward H. Williams, M.D., respecting Temperance Instruction in Public Schools. Giving it a prominent caption under the heading of Education in the issue for April 18, makes it seem to go out with your endorsement.

As to most of the persons who write for your paper it is abundantly apparent that they have strong convictions and are endeavoring to contribute to the advancement of the human race. The reader usually gets that impression whether he agrees with the views expressed or not. Perhaps I do Dr. Williams an injustice, but his article does not produce that impression in my mind. I do not find in it any abhorrence of the alleged large increase in the per capita consumption of alcoholic drinks, nor any helpful proposed changes in the method of instruction, but merely a slur at the conscientious, long continued, unremunerated and patriotic ef-

forts of people like Mary H. Hunt.

I have read Dr. Williams' article through, although I do not consider that it was worthy of that attention. His deadly parallel is to my mind contemptible. Many words have more than one meaning, as for example the word "church" which may be used in half a dozen senses. To say of alcohol that it was in a technical sense a food, when writing for medical students, because it showed certain food qualities in spite of its poisonous character, does not in any way contradict the statement in a child's book that alcohol should not be deemed a food. A child's idea of food, in common with that of most non-professional individuals, is something that is suitable to eat or drink for nourishment.

Dr. Williams holds to the ancient idea that alcohol is a proper dose in typhoid and pneumonia. He ought to know that there is plenty of authority for the contrary view. In fact, from my limited knowledge as a layman, I should have said that Dr. Williams's

ple learn that they cannot advance a worthy cause by lying? The church has had plenty of experience of the futility of pious frauds, and the oppressive portions of it have learned the lesson. But whole multitudes of well-meaning people still go on in the same old dreary path of misrepresentation.

Everybody with an inkling of sense knows that the temperance instruction in these public school text-books is not scientific, is not true, is not effective. The teachers know it, and many of them slur it. The very writers of these chapters know that they are employed to make out a case. And the parents that so often are insulted by these lurid denunciations tell their children, as I have told mine, to pay no attention to these "yellow" misrepresentations. And, after all these years of frenzied temperance instruction, the American people are drinking more per capita than ever before.

Temperance, anyhow, is partly a moral and partly a prudential thing. The place for moral instruction is principally the home and the church. The place for prudential instruction is mainly the home and the world. The school can do a little for temperance, but not much; and nothing at all by lurid lies.

E. A. WASSON.

[St. Stephen's P. E. Church.]

Newark, N. J.

TO THE EDITOR: Your new Arkansas subscriber is not sure that she will appreciate your magazine inasmuch as you have attacked scientific temperance instruction in the public schools. The article cites men who try to prove its teachings spurious. I can give an array of splendid M.D.'s who have really contributed something to the betterment of the morals and habits of the world who uphold the splendid work in that line. My! My! If alcohol is not a poison, then I say let us nurse rattlesnakes.

JANE CARR PITTMAN.

Prescott, Ariz.

TO THE EDITOR: As an early victim of "scientific temperance" text books, I am moved by Dr. Williams' article to give expression to some recollections.

These "scientific temperance" text-books following a rumor of innovations and forced subjects of study were met first with antagonism and then wonder by some district school children. To the children the previous requirement that they buy all their own school books meant some independence in the choice of books studied; hence their antagonism toward enforced study of the subject. It was a compensating feeling to the heads of large families that at last there were some books they need not buy.

The books were found upon arrival to decrease in enthusiasm for "narcotics" (geometric progression, multiplier about one-half) as they increased in size (geometric progression, multiplier two). Consequently the nineteen chapters on "narcotics" in the beginning book were represented by five in the larger book. But if the impression of a child may be trusted, this was somewhat

offset by paragraphs and questions on the effect of narcotics appended to each chapter.

These books were, we understood, provided by the state and we were to be obliged to peruse them a certain number of days each week. At first this was conscientiously enforced by the ever-changing army of district school teachers. When the books were no longer a novelty and many could recite paragraphs with fluency if not understanding, the teachers' elastic consciences trained by the tiresome routine lessened the requirement to a matter of using brief "scientific temperance" text-books as readers a few times a week.

It must have been about 1888 that the books were initiated in those district schools; and the writer, though a young child, was considered too advanced for the primary book which, as Dr. Williams remarks, had a treatise on stills. She was somewhat chagrined that after hearing frequent recitations on that alcoholic book and the still, real understanding of its mechanism and the making of brandy were not the property of her feminine mind. Often during later years in college and business laboratories it was not the essential principles of those books—long lost in oblivion—that came to her, but as she adjusted stills whose mechanism was as familiar to her as the egg-beater and the mixing-bowl; but an inner smile came at the evasion of the principles of that mechanism which in her plastic, childish mind left among the grooves worn by "scientific temperance" books, the deepest furrows.

LOUISE W. WORTHEN.

Hanover, N. H.

SIDNEY WEBB'S "EXTENSION LADDER"

TO THE EDITOR: Mr. Webb's fine analysis [See THE SURVEY of March 7] of the relations of public and private charity deserves the grateful recognition of American social workers. His presentation of the advantages and the defects of both methods is not altogether new to us, but compels readjustments of thought.

Some of us remember that in the gush of springtime we of the C.O.S. had visions of the total and early abolition of outdoor public relief. We ignored the history of relief in England in the century previous to the enactment of the Poor Law in 1601; we were not then so familiar with the Elberfield system and the possibility of organizing friendly visitors under municipal administration; we did not have so keen a hope as now of reforming the Civil Service; we did not foresee the action of France in 1905 which brought over the first Latin nation to the public outdoor relief policy; and we did not understand how deeply rooted in custom, law and democratic sentiment this mode of relief actually has become since Colonial days in our country.

The C.O.S. at first was reactionary, individualistic, *laissez faire*, and is still more aristocratic than the German public system. Mr. Webb hints at this, and

some day we are sure to have a rude awakening to the fact. Ask the first trade union man what he thinks of us and all our tribe!

Yet private charity has a lasting function as it has an honorable history, for it made universal public charity possible; it furnished the leaven, even if its supply of flour was inadequate. It made all modern peoples believe that the weakest citizen is an object of universal interest, that the state has a duty to the indigent; it made the Poor Law inevitable.

The central contention of Mr. Webb is sound: private charity must not divide cases but offer its peculiar and indispensable service to supplement public relief when this is weak. So long as we try to divide the field we shall be in antagonism to the state, and the struggle must issue in defeat. Sympathetic, persistent co-operation alone will give us a right to partnership. We must not build our organization on despair of the republic and on contempt for officials; we shall have democracy on our heads, and rightly. We can try experiments, give special help, apply spiritual influences when they are appreciated, and transfigure the machinery of law by the radiance of voluntary devotion.

We should take to heart the rebuke of our use of the category "unhelpable," and send that monstrous and detestable word of doom the way we dismissed the other cruel and blind epithet "the unworthy." Private charity has no exclusive classes; it will find its way even into state institutions and illumine the gloomiest recesses with its cheerful hope and tender service.

On one point Mr. Webb rather overstates his case: "All the voluntary charities for children, however good their effect may be on the child, are necessarily unconnected with any enforcement of parental responsibility." Any one who watches the daily appeal of organized charity to the juvenile courts or courts of domestic relations will know that private charity is not so helpless. Indeed the enforcement of parental, filial, and all domestic responsibility by appeal to law is a marked feature of the work of our societies.

CHARLES RICHMOND HENDERSON.

[The University of Chicago.]

Chicago.

TO THE EDITOR: Sidney Webb, in his article in THE SURVEY of March 7, maintains that whereas voluntary agencies in charity have the duty of performing the "service of invention and initiative and perpetual experimenting in the unknown, . . . the public authority alone can perform any task completely and continuously." The contention unquestionably fits, in the main, the facts of today. Private charity has within a limited field "tried out" new ideas which the public has later applied over a wide area. Should we accept this as the permanent division of function between public and private charity?

Mr. Webb discards what he calls the "parallel bar" conception of their relationship; namely, that of a mere division of cases between them by which the help-

able are allotted to private charity, the unhelpable to public. With this position I am heartily in accord. Any public body which is properly equipped to tend "unhelpable" cases can certainly cope with any hopeful case that does not call for an unusual expenditure of money. The easy-going notion that because a needy family is deemed hopeless it may be dropped into a social dump,—the almshouse, for instance—and there left in passive stagnation to be merely fed and clothed, must give way before the resourcefulness that is beginning to enter into the public care of dependents. As one who has given several years to social service in an almshouse hospital, I venture the suggestion that the term "unhelpable" is out of date.

The plan which Mr. Webb advocates is for a division of function by what he calls an "extension ladder" relation between them. Private societies are to be "constantly raising the standard of civilized conduct and physical health above the comparatively low minimum which alone can be enforced by the public authority."

A public worker may be allowed to demur at this inert and humdrum part which Mr. Webb assigns him. The impression that initiative can have but slight play in public charity holds back many able workers from enrolling themselves in the public service. It is true that new ideas receive readier acceptance in private work. It is not therefore true that initiative has not ample scope in public charity. Take, for instance, the work of inspecting private agencies on the part of the Massachusetts State Board of Charity. In the course of that work we frequently find beneficent patrons spending capital on institutions perhaps for classes of persons "statistically of no great importance to the community," while an experiment looking to a large social policy awaits the necessary funds. Such donors suffer for lack of the constructive guidance which could emanate from a public board with a survey of the whole field.

What holds regarding the wide outlook of a board which inspects private agencies, holds also for a board which administers public relief. The large number of cases they handle gives a chance for insight into underlying conditions. They are therefore in a peculiarly advantageous position to indicate new needs, new fields for investigation. They may not think best to make a given experiment themselves, but they must have initiative in order to point out the openings to others.

May public charity ever venture into experiment? Certainly not in the sense of attempting mere novelties in social effort. Conservative experiments, however, such as consist in a fresh applying or combining of already tested methods, would enlist the confidence of the public. For example, the placing out and after care of mothers from the Massachusetts State Almshouse Hospital was an experiment in the sense that no one knew the types of cases for whom the arrangements were to be made, and that very little work had as yet been done in setting standards in the unmarried mother problem. But since hospital social serv-

ice had proved successful, and mothers with infants had been placed out with good results, the combination in an almshouse hospital carried enough assurance of success to justify introducing it at public expense.

The experimenting open to public charity may bear not only upon developing methods with its beneficiaries, but also upon ascertaining removable causes of their dependency. Its advantage over private charity in that it has some authority over recipients, that its contacts are with cases more humanly varied and socially representative empowers public charity to maintain a sustained and thorough observation of the ramifying effects of any given procedure.

ADA E. SHEFFIELD.

[Massachusetts State Board of Charity.]
Cambridge.

TO THE EDITOR: Mr. Webb's "extension ladder" article in your issue of March 7 is one of the finest explanations I have read of the complex, elusive relationships between public and private philanthropy. Private effort has certain great advantages and offsetting drawbacks, three in each instance, according to the author. Public and private works should not be, and are not, prosecuted in parallel and mutually exclusive fields. Rather are private undertakings the "fingers by which the stiffly moving machinery of collective action can be brought most effectively to bear upon particular cases." The exposition has all the advantages of simplicity and of physical figure.

There may be some difference of opinion on this very ground of simplicity. The presentation of advantages and drawbacks of private philanthropy, which are at the same time a comment on the scope of public effort, can be only an average or summarizing statement. Contrary examples and reasoning are possible under each heading.

True, for purposes of practical administration there must always be a division of labor. But let this occur according to circumstances, and not through the adoption of a principle, such as, that private agencies shall be the fingers, or antennae, by which adjustment and direction are given the sluggish public machinery. Then we should have to discard the research bureaus and advanced experiments now being conducted under governmental auspices.

In fact, in this age of striving for social justice governments are functioning in many ways bearing on human distress which can be called neither slow in respect to adoption of new ideas nor in the older and more restricted sense charitable. Consider, for example, recent extensions of the police power.

The scientific study of relief methods is young, and the possibilities of public and private co-operation are unrealized. Naturally, we have first studied public and private agencies separately, as it were, in a vacuum. With the increase in numbers of those in distress who have no first-hand call on the sympathies of their fellows individually, we are better enabled to study the process of relief and remedy as a whole.

This growing objectivity of the study

is resulting in a demand for comprehensive action on the part of both public and private agencies. For instance, we are setting out to reduce feeble-mindedness by the use of all means, whether public or private. It would be hard to determine which class of agencies is functioning in the more progressive fashion.

Social groups function in the field of philanthropy according to the differing bases of their organization, the state being only a special kind of group. The charitable activities of private, non-official groups are made to seem more erratic because of the wide range given personal initiative, many private charities being dominated by individuals. But there is a constantly increasing standardization and broadening of vision among private charities, and recently an extension over them in some places of comprehensive public supervision. Conversely, public charities are adopting more of the particular excellencies formerly ascribed only to private agencies.

The two forces are approaching. But they will never coincide, because of the difference in nature and functional possibilities of government, on the one hand, and voluntary groups and individuals, on the other. That difference varies with particular social problems and periods in the development of social feeling. It may not be possible to agree upon a satisfactory expression of the relations of public and private philanthropic endeavors of all types for all time.

WILLIAM T. CROSS.

[Gen. Sec'y, National Conference
of Charities and Correction.]
Chicago.

SAID OF THE SURVEY

TO THE EDITOR: I read every copy of THE SURVEY with great profit and inspiration. It is the most Christian paper in America. Every clergyman in America should take it.

GEORGE H. GUTTERSON.

[American Missionary Association.]
Boston.

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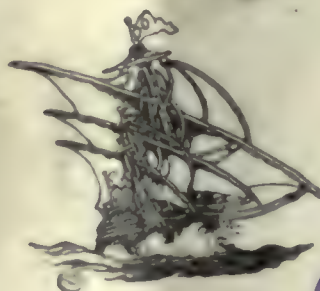
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The MEETINGS *at* MEMPHIS

Annual Conferences of Nine National
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105 East 22d Street
New York

INCORPORATED

Robert W. deForest, President
Arthur P. Kellogg, Secretary Frank Tucker, Treasurer

WESTERN OFFICE

116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 9

Contents

May 30, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

NEW PENNSYLVANIA HOUSING ASSOCIATION	229
TEN YEARS OF CAMPAIGNING AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS	229
MEETING MUNICIPAL NEEDS IN NEW YORK	230
EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES, SOCIALISM AND UNIONISM ON THE STAND, John A. Fitch	230

THE MEETINGS AT MEMPHIS

CHILDREN	232
FAMILIES	235
NEIGHBORHOODS	236
CORRECTIONS	236
DEFECTIVES	237
LIVING AND LABOR	238
PUBLIC CHARITIES	238
SOCIAL HYGIENE	239
HEALTH	239

THE COUNTY, PRESIDENT'S ADDRESS	Graham Taylor	240
---------------------------------	---------------	-----

OTHER CONFERENCES

SOUTHERN SOCIOLOGICAL CONGRESS	C. A. Waterfield	244
NATIONAL JEWISH CHARITIES	Mrs. Oscar Leonard	245
THE RED CROSS		245
THE CHILDREN'S CONFERENCE	Paula Laddey	245
NATIONAL PROBATION ASSOCIATION		246
CHARITY OFFICIALS		246
SETTLEMENTS		246
CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETIES		247

SOME STATE MEETINGS

ALABAMA SOCIOLOGICAL CONGRESS	247
ARKANSAS STATE CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS	247
DELAWARE SOCIAL WELFARE CONFERENCE	247

Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents.

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The GIST of IT—

LABOR men had their innings before the Industrial Relations Commission last week. Page 230.

FOR the forty-first time, the National Conference of Charities and Correction has been in session to canvas the full range of social subjects through an entire week. Two threads ran clearly through it all; the crying need for better public service, since that service continues to take over social work; and the needs of the countryside, social and economic. The form of organization, the race question, and the morals of Memphis, the meeting place, were prominent subjects of discussion. Page 232.

THE whole range of child-saving was covered by the committee on children. Page 235.

THE fundamental importance of the family in all social problems was the chief note before the committee on family and community. Page 236.

RECREATION as a prime factor in the movement toward democracy and in building character was brought out strongly by the committee on neighborhood development. Page 236.

THE committee on corrections centered its program on the short-term prisoner. Road-building for convicts was opposed. Page 236.

SEGREGATION, as against sterilization, was advocated by the committee on defectives. Page 237.

FATHER O'HARA'S report of the successful working out of the Oregon minimum wage law was the new and striking feature of the program of the committee on standards of living and labor. Page 238.

THE committee on public charities came out strongly against haphazard legislation, and in favor of uniform grounds for commitment to state institutions. Page 238.

BETTER laws and better law-enforcement, and the growing public opinion against permitting segregated vice districts were two of the strong points made by the committee on social hygiene. The Memphis red light district furnished a timely example. Page 239.

RURAL health and hygiene and the organization of work to prevent cancer led in the discussions of the health committee. Page 239.

GRAHAM TAYLOR'S presidential address on the county. His plea was for better organization and better public service. Page 240.

EIGHT other social bodies, sectional, racial or specialized in scope, met jointly with the national conference at Memphis. Page 244.

A week earlier the National Tuberculosis Congress laid stress on considering the family rather than the individual in the prevention and the treatment of tuberculosis. Page 229.

BOYCOTTS AND THE LABOR STRUGGLE

By HARRY W. LAIDLER, Ph. D., LL. D.

With an Introduction by Henry R. Seager, Ph. D., Prof. of Political Economy, Columbia University

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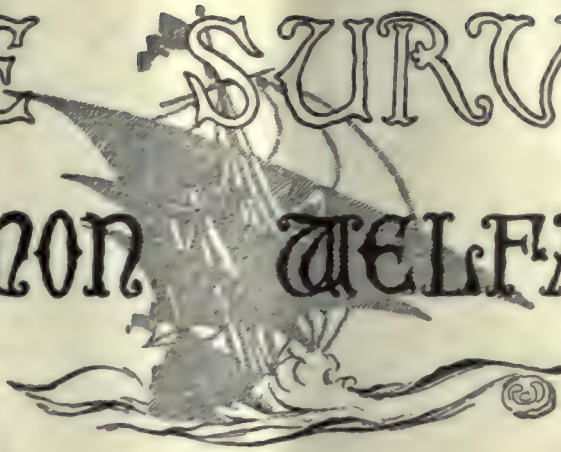
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JOHN LANE COMPANY - Publishers - NEW YORK

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



NEW PENNSYLVANIA HOUSING ASSOCIATION

PENNSYLVANIA has gone on record for state-wide housing reform. In a conference held at Harrisburg delegates from nineteen cities organized an association definitely committed to a program to secure housing legislation for rural communities as well as large cities and community planning for all, irrespective of size.

Need for concerted action was felt because of recent legislation empowering the cities of the state to organize town planning commissions, and especially on account of the prospective report of the State Building Codes Commission which for three years has been drafting a comprehensive code for the entire state.

This codes commission has taken advantage of the phraseology of the resolution creating their office to enlarge upon the usual building code so as to include housing provisions and to extend state supervision under both sets of regulations to cities as well as to rural areas.

While there was general acknowledgment at the conference of the necessity for laws regulating dwellings there was also a strong demand for other methods of attacking the housing problem. Several speakers dwelt upon the prime importance of enforcing such laws as we now have. "The person who laid most stress upon this was Mrs. Franklin P. Lams of Pittsburgh.

Assistant director Wilson of the Philadelphia Department of Public Health and Charities showed clearly the difficulties of those who would enforce legislation. He exposed the methods of the gang politicians in Philadelphia, in thwarting the enforcement of health regulations and in turning the Bureau of Health under the former administration into the most gang-ridden branch of the city government. Not until the man who had the responsibility of enforcing existing legislation was freed from the blight of politics would any law be of much avail to any community, he said.

A paper that appealed particularly to representatives from commercial bodies was given by Carol Aronovici of the Philadelphia Suburban Planning Association. He warned the small cities that their program of community boosting would react decidedly unless community planning went ahead of it.

Gifford Pinchot and Congressman Bailey both emphasized the importance of a proper system of taxation in any program for community betterment. There was a tendency to trace back the cost of housing to economic conditions that affected building material and price of labor, while the lack of community foresight which permitted local improvements to be inaugurated without respect to their ultimate effect upon the critical consideration.

homes of the people also came in for The following were elected officers of the newly created Pennsylvania State Housing Association: president, Samuel S. Fels, Philadelphia; vice presidents, C. P. Hill, Pittsburgh, D. W. Harper, Erie; secretary, Sherrard Ewing, Reading; and treasurer, William Jennings, Harrisburg.

Thirty men and women were elected to membership on the board of directors from widely scattered cities and boroughs throughout the state.

TEN YEARS OF CAMPAIGNING AGAINST TUBERCULOSIS

THAT THE anti-tuberculosis campaign is being furthered throughout the United States along lines of more intensive as well as more co-ordinate endeavor was evident at the tenth annual meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, held in Washington, D. C., May 7-8.

Problems of particular interest relating to family care as opposed to individual care, what to do with the discharged consumptive, the relation of childhood to tuberculosis, and the relation of tuberculosis to the public health campaign with the possible expansion of work, were discussed.

Dr. John H. Lowman of Cleveland, president of the association, sounded the keynote of the conference, pointing

out that the time has come in the anti-tuberculosis movement to transfer interest in the individual alone to interest in the family as a unit of approach.

"Too great individualism, too much concentration on the patient," said he, "insulates too sharply the man in trouble as well as the social agent who strives to help him and isolates the society in which both are so intimately concerned. The tuberculosis question cannot be treated from the individual case."

Perhaps the most interesting discussion of the entire conference centered about the session devoted to Medical Examination of Employees. Dr. Theodore B. Sachs, president of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, presided. Chicago's experiment in this interesting work was told by Dr. Sachs, Dr. Harry E. Mock, and Dr. James A. Britton of Chicago. The plan is to examine each applicant as he enters employment and to repeat the examinations thereafter every six months. In Chicago the workers are followed up in their homes by visiting nurses, who seek to protect the health of other members of the family. To this point Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, who discussed the subject, took vigorous exception. He favored the plan of medical examination but thought the follow-up work in the home by the employer might usurp the freedom of the home.

The first section of the sociological section presented papers of unusual importance by Dr. William Charles White of Pittsburgh and Dr. James Alexander Miller of New York and Dr. John B. Hawes of Boston on problems related to the family and tuberculosis. Dr. White claimed that "all lines of tuberculosis activity lead more or less directly back to the great truth that most of the implantations of this disease occur in childhood." Dr. Miller thought that the time had come to discriminate with various cases dealt with, concentrating work in places where the danger is greatest and most acute. Dr. Hawes held that the direct infection of children by their parents or other members of the family who have tuberculo-

sis is very largely responsible for the spread of the disease.

Dr. Charles F. Bolduan of New York, speaking on the Subsequent History of Cases Discharged from Tuberculosis Sanatoria, asked if the time had not come to stop advising consumptives as to the importance of fresh air in the home—in short, to stop telling them to do the impossible, unless we take energetic steps to place all needed things within their reach. It was easily seen that this matter of dealing justly with the discharged consumptive is one of the most acute problems of the anti-tuberculosis crusade.

One of the most interesting discussions of the sociological section was that led by Frank H. Mann of New York on the question of open-air schools. From experiments in New York Mr. Mann is satisfied that extra feeding may be eliminated and that the provision for rest is not essential. All schools can now be open-air schools by simply opening the windows, allowing the children to wear their outdoor wraps and if desired asking them to bring a lunch from home. This discussion was supported by Lawrence Veiller, who said: "Pry open the windows in all class rooms in all school houses in the United States."

Dr. Livingston Farrand, former executive secretary of the association, who attended the conference as a delegate from Colorado, thought the success of an organization might be measured in a degree by the municipal co-operation it was able to secure.

Dr. E. F. McCampbell's paper on the State Health Department and the Tuberculosis Problem held that tuberculosis work in states such as Ohio could be carried on more effectively if it were co-ordinated under one state body, like the State Board of Health. He outlined the work which is being carried on under the recently organized division of tuberculosis in his state, and spoke of the satisfactory progress which the anti-tuberculosis campaign is making.

At the business session a resolution of appreciation was voted Dr. Farrand for the splendid work he accomplished with the national association in his ten years of service as executive secretary. Officers were elected as follows: president, Dr. George M. Kober, Washington; vice-presidents, Lee K. Frankel, Ph.D., and Dr. W. Jarvis Barlow, Los Angeles; secretary, Dr. Henry Barton Jacobs, Baltimore; treasurer, William H. Baldwin, Washington.

At sessions of the National Conference of tuberculosis secretaries, held in connection with the conference, papers were read by Seymour H. Stone of Boston, Ernest D. Easton of Newark, and Miss F. Elizabeth Crowell of New York. The following officers were elected: President, George J. Nelbach, New York, and secretary-treasurer, Seymour H. Stone, Boston.

MEETING MUNICIPAL NEEDS IN NEW YORK

MUNICIPAL needs filled an important part in the program of the New York City Conference of Charities and Corrections held May 19-21. The practical value of considering such a subject was demonstrated when the various committees appointed at last year's conference to consider the question of municipal needs rendered accounts of their work.

The city budget conference committee reported success in advising the Board of Estimate regarding its apportionments to civic and charitable enterprises; the family desertion committee reported an appropriation of \$4,300 by the Board of Estimate for investigators in the desertion bureau of the Department of Public Charities; the committee on adequate appropriation for child-car-

ing institutions reported an advance in rates paid for the care of dependent and delinquent children and the introduction of a standard system of book-keeping in child-caring institutions.

In discussing future municipal needs Leo Arnstein, assistant to the president of the Board of Aldermen, called attention to the new committee on social welfare which the present administration had created to offer suggestions and formulate policies as health, charities and corrections.

Other sessions considered Families, Children, Delinquency, Public Health and Settlements and Recreation.

The officers elected for the next City Conference are President, Thomas W. Hynes; 1st Vice-President, V. Everet Macy; Treasurer, Edmund J. Butler; Secretary, John B. Prest.

EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES, SOCIALISM AND UNIONISM ON THE STAND—BY JOHN A. FITCH

Probing the Causes of Unrest

III

The third of a series of interpretations of the hearing before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission by a staff representative of The Survey.



With Samuel Gompers, president of the American Federation of Labor, heckling and challenging Morris Hillquit, member of the executive committee of the Socialist Party, and with Mr. Hillquit baiting and worrying Mr. Gompers, the scene before the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations in New York city last week was intensely interesting, if not overwhelmingly edifying.

The first half of the week was devoted to a consideration of the problem of finding employment; the latter half gave opportunity to representatives of the American Federation of Labor, the Socialist Party and the Industrial Workers of the World to explain their purposes and methods.

William Leiserson, superintendent of state employment offices in Wisconsin, had charge of the hearings on employment. Witnesses, representing civic and philanthropic societies and public and private employment bureaus, were asked to give their views on the adequacy of existing agencies for distributing labor and for disseminating information re-

garding opportunities for employment.

The private employment agents themselves gave convincing evidence of their shortcomings. Total lack of co-operation, inability or unwillingness on the part of the average agent to investigate fully a call for labor, and a deeper concern for profits than for meeting the problem of unemployment, were some of the fundamental defects which the testimony disclosed.

Mrs. S. J. Atwood, who has conducted an employment agency in New York for more than twenty years, and whose standards were commended by many disinterested witnesses, told of a call last winter from near Albany for twenty-five men. Accidentally she discovered that five other agencies had received an identical order from the same firm. She got the company on the long distance telephone and inquired whether they needed 25 men or 150. They replied that twenty-five were wanted. Accordingly, she made no attempt to fill the order.

The other five agencies made no inquiry, but sent men. 125 men therefore reported for work, and the first twenty-five got the jobs. There was no other work in the vicinity, and the others had no alternative but to beat their way back to New York.

James E. March, who for twenty-eight years held an exclusive contract for furnishing track laborers to the eastern divisions of the Erie Railroad, described his method of dealing with this labor. He charges the laborers a fee of 10 per cent of the first month's wages (the railroad pays them \$1.25 a day). He houses them in box cars with wooden bunks built in, and charges each man a dollar for a mattress and a dollar and seventy-five cents for a blanket. In each camp he maintains a store or commissary, and sells provisions to the

men, which they cook themselves. The amount the men have left at the end of a month, on a wage of \$1.25 a day, may be imagined. March admitted that 25 to 30 per cent of his men leave after every pay day. That enables him to send more men and get more fees.

It is by such methods, students of the subject told the commission, that unemployed men tend to become unemployable. Mrs. Atwood declared that if there were 200,000 unemployed men in New York last winter, 100,000 of them were unemployable.

The commission has a tentative plan, the essentials of which were favored by most of the witnesses, which is designed to remedy most of the obvious defects inherent in the present unregulated system of private agencies. By establishing a network of governmental labor exchanges all over the country, and by strictly supervising the private agencies and requiring them to make regular reports to the government, it would be possible to furnish reliable information to workers looking for jobs, and to employers looking for help. With adequate inspection powers, which the plan also includes, the exploiting of men in labor camps could be greatly checked.

VINCENT ST. JOHN, secretary, and Joseph Ettor, general organizer, explained the policies and aims of the I. W. W. St. John declared that any methods in industrial difficulties that seemed to be effective would be favored by his organization. It would not stop at injury, either to property or persons. "Why should we hesitate about destroying property?" he asked. "It isn't ours. Instead, the employer uses it to our disadvantage whenever he can. Furthermore, he isn't careful about our property, our physical and mental power, the only property we have. He sends us into the mines as children, without a semblance of an education, speeds us up, underpays us, wears out our bodies, and then, without a thought for our well-being, throws us on the scrap heap or abandons us to the poor house when we are no longer useful."

Violence, he told the commission, is not the choice of the working people. It is forced upon them, and it is not to be expected that their ends can be accomplished through its employment. Success depends on one thing only, an organization effective enough to secure control. Violence will then disappear.

St. John and Ettor both declared that time contracts will not be made by the I. W. W. With a time contract an employer has a period secure from demands on the part of labor in which he can make preparation for the conflict that may come. The workers, on the other hand, have given up their right to press any advantage that might arise during the term of the contract. The only I. W. W. contract that can

be made with an employer is an agreement to go back to work when the employer is ready to establish the conditions that may have been demanded.

In answer to a question as to whether the I. W. W. favors arbitration, Ettor replied that the policy of having questions threshed out by committees of employers and workmen is favored. He said the organization would be opposed to bringing in an outsider because the third man in an industrial dispute is usually an employer "who has so organized his own business as to have time to engage in a social sport known as 'civic duty.'"

The present paid-up membership of the I. W. W., according to St. John, is just over 14,000.

MORRIS HILLQUIT was delegated by the Socialist Party to explain that movement to the commission. He declared that the growth of the factory system had so changed conditions that it had led to the separation of society into two distinct classes, the capitalist, or employing class, and the workers.

When Mr. Hillquit left the stand, Chairman Walsh announced that Samuel Gompers would cross-examine Mr. Hillquit, after which the tables would be turned and Mr. Hillquit would cross-examine Mr. Gompers. For the better part of two days, then, from Thursday noon to Saturday noon, there was a battle of wits between these two men.

It was not a debate. Each directed his best energies to putting the other "in a hole." Gompers' attitude was one of scorn for the "dreamers" of the Socialist Party. Hillquit considered the present leaders of the American Federation of Labor "somewhat archaic, somewhat antiquated, and not progressive enough" to meet the economic problems arising today.

Mr. Gompers read into the record extracts from articles and speeches by Eugene V. Debs. He developed the fact that Debs was one of the original members of the I. W. W. and asked whether the attitude of the man who has been three times the candidate of the Socialist Party for president did not indicate that Socialists are opposed to the trade union movement.

Mr. Hillquit admitted that Debs, though he has left the I. W. W., is of the opinion that the American Federation of Labor is not well adapted to promoting the interests of wage-earners. But Mr. Hillquit denied that this in any way committed the Socialist Party to that idea. Personally, while not agreeing with the present leaders, he thought the federation is going forward and is serving the working people. He said he was opposed to the I. W. W., but he thought its existence has a significance that leaders of the older organization have failed to recognize. He charged the federation with

having been slow to look out for the interests of the unskilled laborers.

To this Mr. Gompers replied that the federation is spending more time and money on organizing the unskilled than on any other one object. They have organized in a single year, he declared, more unskilled workers than the entire membership of the I. W. W.

With Mr. Gompers on the stand, Mr. Hillquit endeavored to show that the A. F. of L. is in favor of the Socialist platform. He secured from the witness the admission that every plank in the legislative program is favored by the A. F. of L. except the minimum wage and legislative regulation of hours of labor for men.

"Then you agree with the Socialists?" suggested Hillquit.

"Before the Socialists had thought of those things the trade union men were working for them," replied Gompers. "You have purloined your planks from the labor movement."

Mr. Hillquit tried to get from the witness a statement of how far the trade unions are likely to go in their demands. "Will there ever come a time when the workers will be satisfied?"

"Not if I know human nature," replied Mr. Gompers. He would not say, however, that the workers will continue until they secure the "full product of their toil."

"The intelligent workmen," said Mr. Gompers, "prefer to deal with today's problems, in order to make tomorrow better than today, rather than to concern themselves with a picture and a dream."

"Has the American Federation of Labor a philosophy and a purpose, or is it only working blindly from day to day?" asked Mr. Hillquit.

Mr. Gompers refused to answer this question, declaring it insulting.

Mr. Hillquit drew from the witness the statement that the interests of employers and their workmen are not harmonious and cannot be made so. He then criticised Mr. Gompers for his affiliation with the National Civic Federation. To this Mr. Gompers replied that he would accept the aid of anyone in furthering the interests of labor.

ON Saturday morning Max Hayes, an organizer of the Typographical Union, explained his position as a Socialist and a member of the American Federation of Labor. The aims of the two organizations were in his opinion, quite consistent. He pointed out that the Federation has never taken official action with respect to the minimum wage. The Ohio Federation of Labor and many other labor bodies are on record as favoring such legislation. He also insisted that the federation is taking an interest in the unskilled, and is moving, though not as fast as he would desire, toward the industrial form of organization.

The Meetings at Memphis

Forty-first National Conference of Charities and Correction

May 6-15

Southern Sociological
Congress

National Conference of Jew-
ish Charities

National Probation Associa-
tion

American Association of
Officials of Charity and
Correction

National Conference on the
Education of Backward,
Truant, Delinquent and
Dependent Children

National Federation of Settle-
ments

American Association of
Societies for Organiz-
ing Charities

American National Red
Cross

THE group of national social organizations which center their annual meetings around those of the parent body, the National Conference of Charities and Correction, have always proved a quickening force in the conference city. This was peculiarly the case in Memphis.

It seemed quite in keeping that a conference at which the keynote of the presidential address was efficient public service in the county should be held in a community which has achieved commission government for the city of Memphis and in part for Shelby county.

Memphis is interesting and good to look upon. Here is a city which is ringed round with a green boulevard and has preserved in broad acres of parkland the trees and flowers just as they grew when Chief Chisca led the Chickasaws west from the seaboard to the Mississippi; a city which, without a break from Mark Twain's river days, has rendered notable medical service to its residents and to the strangers within its water gates; a city whose Juvenile Court not only deals with delinquents but supervises the newsboys, rewarding those who toe its mark with the most profitable corners, and licenses the caddies on the public golf links; a city, half black, that has found an efficient working basis for its white and colored charities; a community which has taught Negro gangs on the cotton presses to work with something like the speed and precision of New England factory hands while, a block distant, the typical darky drives a meandering mule to a creaking two-wheeled cart, singing the while in pure content at the sun which warms his back.

Memphis has historical background for its organized health work and its organized charities in the latest and worst of its yellow fever epidemics, that of 1878. The plague which reduced the population, by death and removal, from 100,000 to 10,000, led to the installing of one of the first city sewer systems in the country, by Colonel Waring, then a young engineer in New England who was yet to make his mark as the man who wiped New York clean. And it led, through the pressing need of the stricken families, to a visit by General Roelif Brinckerhoff who helped the women's clubs organize their charities to displace police doles.

One of the impressive factors in the social welfare of Memphis is the Associated Charities under the picturesque leadership of James P. Kranz, its general secretary. There was much talk of the socialized police of Memphis. There are one hundred patrolmen, every one of whom is familiar with the work of

the Associated Charities, and will refer any street applicant to its office.

Recently an emergency call came to the Associated Charities just as Kranz was leaving to keep an important appointment. After writing out a grocery order he asked the police captain to request the patrolman on the beat from which the application came, to call at the house and leave the order if he found conditions bad, summoning an ambulance if he found sickness. At eight o'clock that night Kranz received a telephone message from the captain saying that there was no acute illness, but that there did seem to be a lack of food and the patrolman had left the grocery order.

This forty-first National Conference of Charities and Correction had thus an interesting setting and it developed unusual features. It was the first to be attended by a delegation from the trades and labor council, marshalled in by President Graham Taylor himself, and by a squad of policemen who heard the discussions before the corrections committee. And it took a friendly but strong hand in various local problems.

The local matter that may very likely stick longest in the memories of the delegates and the crops of the Mem-

phians was the red light district. At the first meeting of the social hygiene section, Rabbi Emanuel Sternheim of Greenville, Miss., rose in the discussion to brand the Memphis district as the worst he had ever seen. He told of leading a party of conference members through its streets the night before—Sunday night—and called upon the conference to put their shoulders to the wheel of reform. Nightly thereafter, conference members, men and women, in twos and threes and larger parties, followed in his steps.

They saw much to condemn: a tolerated district a stone's throw from Main street; open advertisement in the names on the doors and the bright lights in the halls; women soliciting from the steps and on the sidewalks and, in at least one case, a young girl acting as lure; pianos playing, automobiles waiting, young fellows going "down the line" from house to house.

Those of the conference who went into the houses included Maude E. Miner of Waverley House, New York, Martha P. Falconer of Sleighton Farm, near Philadelphia, and others who have broad experience with delinquent girls and in controlling vice. They saw more. The girls are younger than in many cities—Miss Miner found at least two of 18 years—and all are American born of American stock, the daughters of Tennessee and Alabama, Arkansas and Oklahoma and Mississippi.

The district does not segregate vice here more than elsewhere. Memphis has scattered parlor houses, lodging houses, flats in business blocks, hotels which admit unlawful trade, street walking, and at least one amusement park dance hall in which supervision, if there be any, fails to purge its floor of the freest mingling of girls from shops and girls from Gayoso street.

Many of the people of Memphis resented all this as prying. They felt that their guests were exceeding the privileges of hospitality in thus overhauling the social plumbing and peeping behind discreetly closed doors to see if the servants had swept the corners clean. But others were willing to listen.

Miss Miner, Mrs. Falconer, James B. Reynolds and Dr. William F. Snow of the American Social Hygiene Association, Frederick H. Whitin of the Committee of Fourteen in New York, conferred with the mayor, the chief of police, the chief probation officer of the Juvenile Court and made some progress.

They found city officials pretty firm in the belief that conditions are not bad and that the 21-year age of consent was a real protection. But the latter comfortable assurance fell before Miss

Miner who showed that the law is a dead letter because of a qualification. The age fixed is 21, unless a girl has previously led an immoral life, when it is 12. Thus a girl of 16—or of 13—found in a disorderly house is not protected because she is quite obviously leading an immoral life. The statute fixes 21, the fact 12, which is perhaps as exact a reversal of a law's plain intent as could anywhere be found. Furthermore, the police pass on the age of girls arriving in town and their whole procedure has been to ask the girl her age and solemnly set it down.

The suggestion left with the city officials was, for local reasons, not to follow the recent example of some other southern cities in trying to make a clean sweep of the district—not to snuff the red lights in one big snuff, for fear they might gain strength of the city's indifference to burn the brighter. But gradually, house by house, to close up the district, as Pittsburgh did. To see to it that when an establishment failed or was closed, no other opened there or elsewhere to take its place, so that there would be a permanent net gain of one.

The time for such action seemed ripe. It was the unanimous testimony of the madams that their business has been hard hit by the state prohibition law. Two houses have closed in the best-paying block. None of the others dares sell liquor except the very light "Brewette," malted with such an infinitesimal amount of alcohol that it ducks under the law. The city has a reputation among traveling men and other transients of being "closed." If music were prohibited now so that boys would not go there to dance—if prostitution were reduced to a sheer case of prostitution without the spangles of amusement—a forward step would be taken.

The real case against a segregated district was brought home by Mr. Reynolds at an evening meeting in the Orpheum theater. More than one thousand people were present, half of them Memphians.

"I visited last night the segregated district of Memphis, located in the populous quarter of the city," he said. "I saw not only lewd men and women openly bartering, but in their midst groups of children, boys and girls, in plain sight and hearing of the noisy solicitation from the windows, obscene talk and gestures on the sidewalk—a day and night school of poisonous precept and example. Fifteen or twenty years hence, some of these children will come before the bar of justice for crimes of passion or lawlessness. But one who should be indicted as an accessory before the fact of their crimes will not stand with them before the bar of justice. That one is the city of Memphis, responsible for creating and continuing their compulsory training in debauchery."

There is a spirit of indifference to prostitution in the town that was hard for some visitors to understand. It has roots, perhaps, in the preoccupation of a people sorely tried, harassed by war and smitten by plague, only recently coming to its own as a community; perhaps in an unconscious recognition of the hu-

man quality of the prostitute which is enduringly expressed in that most curious monument in its cemetery—a monument to a prostitute erected by subscription. During the decimating yellow

fever epidemic of the 70's, the keeper of the largest brothel in town turned her house into a hospital, her girls into nurses and spent her capital for the sick. When she died, some of her fellow townsmen marked her grave with a monument.

But at least one woman in Memphis has seen the handwriting on the wall. She is the keeper of a brothel, a recent arrival who was driven out of a similar occupation in Washington when Congress passed the Kenyon bill. She went to the big evening meeting of the social hygiene section with a delegate from Washington, heard the speakers from out of town and looked at the faces of the audience from in town. As they went out she said, "Well, I see I've got to move again."

The "new democracy" appeared at Memphis, not as a program topic for discussion but as an issue live enough to concern very pointedly the conference organization itself. For the committee on nominations submitted a recommendation for a radical change in the method of electing the president and the conference voted to have a special committee consider and report next year on ways in which the rank and file of the membership may express more directly and definitely its preference for president. And in the sessions of the National Federation of Settlements a vigorous discussion arose over the relations of trustees to residents in the control of settlement policies and activities.

Dissatisfaction with the present method of choosing the conference president was apparent in a twofold way. Some of the public charity officials complained that the conference had come under the domination of a "charity trust" with an "interlocking directorate" of leaders in the field of voluntary effort. They contended that the public officials were not getting a square deal, that in ten years only one president had been chosen from the group.

This complaint was very effectively answered by the fact that of this year's nominating committee all but two were public charity officials, and by the applause which greeted the reading of the names of the presidents of the last decade representing North and South, Catholic, Protestant and Jew, public and volunteer workers.

Entirely distinct from this complaint was the dissatisfaction of the nominating committee with the present method as seeming to give ground for such a complaint to arise. It saw that the present method, under which the conference votes on the adoption of the report of the nominating committee immediately after the report is rendered, gives no time for members to consider the report or whether they may desire to make nominations from the floor. Throughout the membership there was almost unanimous feeling that twenty-four hours should elapse between the report and the action of the conference upon it.

Recognizing that "a sentiment exists that not sufficient opportunity is afforded for individual choice in the selection of officers," the committee recommended

THE BALTIMORE CONFERENCE of 1915

Officers

President.
Mary Willcox Glenn, New York.
Vice presidents.
Rev. John A. Ryan, Minnesota.
F. J. Sessions, Iowa.
F. J. Mastin, Virginia.
Members of Executive Committee.
Harvey H. Baker, Massachusetts.
Edwin D. Salenbarger, Pennsylvania.
Louis Bernatrin, Missouri.
Frances Ingram, Kentucky.

Committees

CHILDREN—Chairman, C. C. Caustens,
Massachusetts; **vice chairman, Henry W. Thurston,** New York.

Subjects—Program for child care,
state, county, city.
Relations of public and
private agencies.
Social and health responsi-
bilities of the school.

COLLECTIONS—Chairman, J. T. Ginder,
Pennsylvania; **vice chairman, Frank L.**
Randall, Massachusetts.

Subjects—Employment of prisoners.
Compensation of prison-
ers and their families.
Indeterminate sentence
and parole.
Penal farms; vagrancy.

PUBLIC AND PRIVATE CHARITIES—
Chairman, George S. Wilson, District
of Columbia; **vice chairman, Charles**
R. Henderson, Illinois.

Subjects—Chartering and super-
vision.
State subsidies.
Outdoor relief.
Relationship of public and
private charities.

FAMILY AND COMMUNITY—Chairman, R.
M. Little, Pennsylvania; **vice chair-**
man, Ancha Seiss, Illinois.

Subjects—Interrelations of case
workers in family treat-
ment.
Unemployment
inbreeds.

STATE CARE OF INFANTS—Chairman, Dr.
Walter E. Fernald, Massachusetts; **vice**
chairman, Dr. Owen Copp, Penn-

sylvania.
Subjects—Defective delinquent.
Institutional care and
treatment.

EDUCATION FOR SOCIAL WORK—Chair-
man, Porter R. Lee, New York; **vice**
chairman, Edith Abbott, Illinois.

Subjects—Training the professional,
volunteer, the commu-
nity.
Social research and survey.

HEALTH—Chairman, Dr. Richard C.
Cahot, Massachusetts; **vice chairman,**
Dr. Charles P. Emerson.

Subjects—Medical and social rela-
tions.
Social responsibility of the
hospital.

SOCIAL LEGISLATION—Chairman, Henry
R. Senger, New York; **vice chairman,**
John R. Commons, Wisconsin.

Subjects—Taxation reform as it re-
lates to congestion and
poverty.
Social insurance.

SOCIAL HYGIENE—Chairman, Martha P.
Fulmer, Pennsylvania; **vice chair-**
man, Dr. William T. Snow, New York.

Subjects—Luck of honest officials.
Political influence
Difficultly in getting evi-
dence required by the
courts.
Unsatisfactory disposition
in court cases.
Failure of public support
of law enforcement.

the following plan: committee on nominations to be appointed by the president as at present; three nominees for president to be reported by it not later than three days before the close of the conference; members of the conference to vote by ballot on these nominees on a day designated by the nominating committee; the balance of the ticket to be submitted by the committee as at present, after the result of the election of the president is declared.

This plan was vigorously criticized on two grounds—that it was not democratic enough in that only members present at the conference would have opportunity to vote, and that it would inject into the conference electioneering, which everyone felt would be unfortunate. A further point against it was that each year there would be present a large proportion of new members from the conference city, unacquainted with the traditions and methods of the organization.

Some of the members felt that these objections would be overcome and a better method provided if there were held each year a few weeks before the conference a preferential vote, members being asked to fill in a ballot giving the nominating committee their first, second and third choices for president, this vote, however, not to be binding on the committee.

These members also felt that an underlying cause for dissatisfaction exists in the present provision whereby all ex-presidents of the conference are members of the executive committee.

Without considering any of these suggestions, the recommendation of the nominating committee being the only one actually before the conference, it was voted that the president appoint a committee to report next year on various plans for giving the members of the conference larger participation in the choice of officers. Members were urged to submit their views and suggestions to this committee. A resolution was also passed requesting the president to appoint in the near future the nominating and organization committees for next year and to urge the nominating committee to utilize such means as it sees fit to take the entire membership into its councils.

Some sentiment arose favoring a change of name, and a resolution was introduced that the body be called the National Conference of Social Betterment Agencies. This resolution was also referred to a committee to report next year.

The race question was among those present, though it bore no credentials as a delegate. A Negro woman from Illinois was refused registration in the National Conference of Charities and Correction by a clerk employed by the local committee, until Graham Taylor peremptorily ordered that her name be entered. The sessions of the Southern Sociological Conference were adjourned from the Orpheum theater to a white church in order that the Negro members

might sit on the main floor with their fellow members.

And a front attack was made on both the national and the southern bodies by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. W. E. Burghardt DuBois, Ibel E. Spingarn of New York and Prof. William Pickens of Talladega College spoke at a meeting advertised in the papers for "all persons who love the truth and dare to hear it."

Dr. Spingarn, who was formerly a member of the faculty of Columbia University, declared that the movement for the protection of the black man from exploitation could expect no assistance whatever from the "social uplift" forces which were assembled in Memphis.

"The social workers of today," he declared, "occupy the same obstructive position on this problem that the church

the situation of the Negro farmer is not essentially different from that of the white; that comfortable houses, rich fertilizer, intelligent farming, proper tools, a little ready cash and good schools have precisely the same effect on both races. He carried conviction, too, in his emphatic statement that, for the rural Negro, the recent prohibition laws have been exceeded in importance only by the emancipation proclamation.

And white men, from North and South, joined heartily in the rolling waves of applause—and of southern song—which greeted him from the colored members and audience of the Southern Sociological Conference. Like a prophet, not of his people but of the South, Dr. Washington outlined the future of the Negro race. He disposed of the old objection that "niggers can't take care of themselves" by asking the audience how often they had seen a black hand extended on the street for charity. He demanded justice for the Negro, because not only the progress of the black man is stifled by ignorance and vice, but the progress of white folk, too, since science has proved how environment stamps the character of the individual.

Two other Negro speakers brought by the Southern Sociological Conference left lasting impressions.

One was Major R. R. Moton, the commandant of cadets at Hampton, who was described by a southerner present as one of the biggest and blackest and best of Negroes. Giving all due credit to the white race for what it has accomplished, he would rather be a Negro today than a white man, he said, for the backward condition of his race gives the Negro leader opportunities for service that no white man is offered by the white race. The backwardness of the Negro is the exact measure of the Negro leader's opportunity. Booker Washington, he said, had a greater opportunity than Woodrow Wilson. The other was Dr. C. V. Roman, a witty colored physician of Nashville. He contended that real religion is a tremendous force for health and hygiene, and called on the record of venereal disease to prove it. He gave his audience a sentence that was repeated over and over again during the conference: "Renounce the impossible and co-operate with the inevitable." A southern white woman, a social worker, confessed that never before that evening had she heard a Negro speak in public, nor heard of Dr. Roman, though she, too, came from Nashville.

If the conference as a whole, or in any large part, thought of race problems it did not give evidence of it. The conference was there to discuss social problems, and the Negro, halving the population, was a big factor in them.

And the things the conference actually saw and heard were interesting. There was the Southern Congress with its black members and speakers; the Memphis Associated Charities with its Negro committee an inviolate part of the organized charity that serves the whole community, but raising part of its own funds and proceeding by action of its own committee.



REV. JOHN A. RYAN
Of St. Paul Seminary, first vice-president of the conference

workers occupied during the days of Garrison and Phillips. They are opposed to any discussion of the fundamentals of the race question because they are afraid that it will offend the South, and check their own timid propaganda.

"If you go to a social worker who is interested in stopping child labor and you suggest to him that the labor of Negro children in the fields ought to be stopped, he says, 'hush, hush!' and in visible alarm shuts carefully his office door."

Many of the "social uplifters" heard the speech, though this meeting was entirely apart from their big group of conferences. But they heard, too, other speeches by and about Negroes that stuck in their minds as some of the big outstanding features of a solid week of good speaking.

Booker T. Washington, before the National Conference of Charities, carried strong conviction of his point that

Children

The committee on children catered to a variety of interests in its program, from infant and child hygiene to the outlining of a comprehensive plan of state legislation affecting children. One session was given up to protective societies, and another to the organizations that care for dependent children, while the general session dealt with the promotion of child hygiene, the prevention of child labor, and the improvement of elementary education in their relation to the conservation of the child.

In her *Suggestions for Teaching the Hygiene of Childhood*, Dr. Frances Sage Bradley of Atlanta recommended the holding of children's health conferences in connection with schools, churches and other organizations, to meet the needs of the great mass of ordinary children who stand between the delicate babies benefited by the baby clinic and the exceptional children of the prize baby contest.

The special need of the rural child was considered from another point of view by C. C. Carstens of Boston in a section meeting given up to the consideration of the newer methods of children's protective work. The moral conditions in the small towns and villages and in the country are frequently deplorable, and any social agency entering the rural field must be prepared to carry on all the varieties of work divided in the cities among many.

Roy Smith Wallace of Philadelphia took up the new spirit of the work of protective societies in cities and emphasized the fact that the progressive societies of this class no longer regarded their chief task as the rescue of the child from intolerable home conditions, but rather the treatment of the family as a whole, and the rehabilitation of the home, if possible.

Standards of Efficiency in Child Care was the topic considered from the points of view of care in institutions, by Charles H. Johnson; in boarding homes, by Edwin D. Solenberg; and in free family homes by Wilfred S. Reynolds. Mr. Johnson urged every institution to ask itself the searching questions, What does this particular institution stand for?—What is its educational, social, moral and economic value to the community?

Mr. Solenberg considered that boarding children in family homes combines many of the advantages of both institutions and of placing in free homes, giving the child the advantage of home care under the supervision and control of the agency responsible for the child.

Mr. Reynolds described the natural reaction that had occurred in recent years against the placing-out of all sorts and conditions of children in free homes.

The discussion brought out a strong feeling of opposition on the part of many delegates to the placing of children in states at a distance from the placing organization's central office without much more careful arrangements for responsible supervision than have ordinarily been in vogue.



MARY WILLCOX GLENN

President of the 1915 National Conference of Charities and Correction.

Roger N. Baldwin of St. Louis, in answering the question, *How Shall We Frame a Consistent Public Policy for Children?* pointed to the chaos now existing in the various states in the standards for the education and protection of normal and abnormal children, and advocated the preparation of a model state children's code.

Such a code should include the protection of the birth of children by eugenic regulations, legislation regarding employment of mothers before and after confinement, the reporting of births, and the regulation of midwifery, relief to poor mothers, support from fathers for illegitimate children, compulsory education laws, state wide educational system, provision for comprehensive juvenile court system, provision for the relief of destitute children, and state supervision of child-caring agencies.

At the general session of the children's committee the topic of the Conservation of the Child was treated under the three heads of the promotion of child hygiene, the prevention of child labor, and the function of the school.

Sherman C. Kingsley of Chicago pointed out that the causes of death and disease in later life were being increasingly traced back to the neglect of child hygiene, that the mortality in the

first year of life was so great as to rank infancy with the extra-hazardous occupations, and that only by putting into practice our present knowledge of child hygiene can we lay firm foundations for the health of the race.

Professor W. K. Tate of the George Peabody College for Teachers wanted rural social centers in the South consisting of groups of workers, including the teacher, the minister and the visiting nurse centering about the school house, with a practice farm in connection.

A. J. McKelway reviewed the achievements of ten years of child labor reform, calling attention to the fact that it was the Atlanta conference of 1903 that marked the beginning of the new era for social reform in the southern states, and that at this conference the late Edgar Gardner Murphy, of Alabama, made his eloquent appeal for the treatment of the abuse of child labor on broad national lines. In 1904 the National Child Labor Committee was organized, and now every state in the Union has some legislation protecting its working children. But in only a few states is there adequate provision made for the employment of sufficient inspectors to enforce the laws. The federal bill now pending in Congress is looked to as the means of effecting a great and permanent reform of these conditions.

Families

The committee on the family and the community was charged with the duty of considering several interests in its program—those of charity organization work, rural improvement, and the relation of business to philanthropy.

All of these were presented at the Sunday evening general session. The report of the committee on Charity Organization Ideals presented by the chairman, Eugene T. Lies, general superintendent of the United Charities of Chicago, was a defense against the critics of organized charity and a vigorous portrayal of the development of this field. It was shown that in this day of many social movements the hard won experience as to method and goals of the charity organizations offered guiding lines for all.

Edward T. Devine's paper on Philanthropy and Business traced the evolution of the idea of human welfare within the commercial and industrial field. It will be published in full in a later issue of THE SURVEY.

Sophonisba P. Breckinridge of Chicago gave an illuminating picture of a family set down in one of our large cities, borne down upon by scores of influences, handicapped by racial and national reservations of all sorts. An incisive yet broad sympathy was shown to be necessary if the real state of the family group was to be understood and bettered.

Clarence Poe, editor of the *Progressive Farmer*, captivated the audience with his plea for a discriminating understanding of the problems of rural life. He pictured the serious lacks of ordinary social opportunities in many country districts both North and South.

The Culture of Family Life was treated from the religious, the recreational, the correctional, the settlement worker's and the charity worker's standpoints. These discussions and indeed all the papers presented at the different meetings of this section emphasized the fundamental importance of the family group as the center of our social life. This group needs intensive study from all sides by social workers. Being pulled upon from the exterior as never before, its relationships to every phase of environment require keen diagnosis if rehabilitation plans are to be of any value.

Prof. John L. Coulter pointed out that the roving farmer was one of the great hindrances to community betterment and to personal and family betterment. Ever on the move, he cares nothing for the development of health facilities, co-operative marketing and the like. He does not improve his skill for he has only small interest in results. His children, shifting from school to school, are at a great disadvantage. Not only farm ownership but long tenantry would be a solution.

Booker T. Washington, in a strong address on the Rural Negro in the South, prescribed better housing, regularity of pay to employes, better schools, better police protection, measures for increasing efficiency, and abstinence from liquors as six of the most important helps for the farm Negro's welfare. Seven million out of nine million Ne-

groes in the South are on farms. Without them, southern farming could not be carried on. Ownership of farms by Negroes has increased between 1900 and 1910 from \$177,000,000 worth of property to \$492,000,000 worth, representing twenty millions of acres of land. Dr. Washington believed simple rural life rather than complicated city life, and remaining in the South, are the best things for the Negro.

A thorough discussion of family rehabilitation work was had at the final session of this committee. The subject was treated from the mental and the moral side; from the standpoint of southern conditions, with reference to racial and national characteristics and efficiency of charity workers. "Know your family, detach it from the large groups, see it on all sides as a composite," was the counsel that predominated in each speech.

Neighborhoods

The large place of recreation in the movement toward democracy was the main emphasis of the committee on neighborhood development. Right to leisure and use of leisure were considered in their bearing not merely on each individual's "pursuit of happiness," but on the development of citizens' and neighbors' faculties for knowing, trusting and working with each other—so essential in progress toward real democracy.

In the absence of Mary E. McDowell, Harriet Vittum, of Northwestern University Settlement, Chicago, served as chairman of the committee. The section meetings were devoted to very concrete and practical descriptions of how neighborhood development through recreation is actually going on in many communities, and the general session conducted by the committee was a notable discussion of "recreation and social progress" from the standpoint of the community, the settlement, the church and the school. Miss Vittum brought out impressively the overwhelming extent to which the community rather than the individual determines the social opportunities of everyone. She made her point vivid by telling the story of four young murderers who had grown up in the largest Polish colony of Chicago. "They did not choose the saloon for their social center," she declared, "the city chose it for them, by not providing something better."

A new point of view was taken by Clarence A. Perry in his discussion of social center work in the schools. He urged that while the schools are not serving the recreation movement by utilizing their plants as social centers, such activities are on their part rendering valuable aid to the primary purpose of schools—through humanizing and vitalizing school work.

The bad influence of the cheap candy store was convincingly described by George A. Bellamy of Hiram House, Cleveland. It is the poor child's club, he said, in the same way that "the saloon is the poor man's club." It keeps open late, encourages loafing, allows both sexes to congregate in demoralizing fa-

miliarity, and stimulates gambling through its "grab bags" with chances for prizes. It graduates its frequenters into pool rooms, which in turn pass the youth on to the saloon and vicious resort.

From providing such recreation as it can in its own plant, the church, said the Rev. Harry F. Ward, of the Methodist Federation for Social Service, must go on to the larger effort for giving recreative opportunities to all young people, through community facilities. It was pathetic, he said, to see rabbis defending gunmen when religion had failed to defend its own youth in the presence of the breakdown of community life. Recreation no more than education should be under church control; the state should provide it in the interests of better citizenship, and the element of private profit should be no more a factor than it is in education. The two great sins against children, Mr. Ward declared to be child labor and commercialized play.

The character-building value of recreation was emphasized and Mr. Ward sentimentiously remarked that if you want to know how religious a man is watch him, not listening to a sermon but playing a game of golf or going camping.

The church's contribution to the recreation movement is to make clear its religious values and necessity. The soul and spirit of a people are shown in two forms of association—worship and play. If we can learn as a people to play we shall be creating new forces of life for the people.

Corrections

One of the greatest of American problems, that of the misdemeanant or short-term prisoner, the one who receives a jail or workhouse sentence, was discussed by the committee on corrections. The report of the committee by Amos W. Butler, of Indiana, the chairman, dealt with the treatment of the misdemeanant covering the ground from his arrest to his release from imprisonment. The report quoted statistics from a special bulletin of the Census Bureau to the effect that nearly a half million persons are committed to county and municipal prisons in the course of a year, under sentence or for non-payment of fine. The jails where they are confined have been termed training schools in crime; the fee system leads to great abuses; the idleness in local institutions is demoralizing and degenerating; the police are dominated by politics. While prison reforms are coming with surprising rapidity, they have been confined largely to the felon. The misdemeanant has been neglected.

The program of the committee was designed to bring out the newer thought which has led to humanizing the courts, to giving the prisoner an opportunity to earn the money to pay his fine and costs and make restitution for his wrongdoing; to release on probation; to the colony or farm system of outdoor employment; to the indeterminate sentence and conditional release on parole under proper supervision.

It was brought out that most of the

reforms advocated by the committee are in actual operation somewhere. It but remains for the states to seek them out and profit by the experience gained.

Judge James A. Collins told how, as police judge of Indianapolis, he carried out his aim of administering justice tempered with humanity. Of 7,500 misdemeanants in whose case he suspended judgment, less than three per cent were returned for a subsequent offense. In four years he succeeded in reducing jail and workhouse commitments fifty per cent.

Splendid success under the probation system in Massachusetts was reported by Edwin Mulready. Judge Bacon of Memphis endorsed the newer methods. Dr. W. H. Oates described a remarkable transformation in jail conditions in Alabama as a result of state inspection and a certain degree of state control.

But of all the reforms in the treatment of the misdemeanant that which attracted most attention was the state farm, as described by W. H. Whitaker, superintendent of the District of Columbia farm at Occoquan, and by Dr. J. T. Gilmore who has charge of the farm at Guelph, Ontario. At Occoquan there are 1,150 acres of land and varied industries are operated by the prisoners. The average sentence is 35 days. The farm at Guelph is smaller, but is operated along similar lines. At neither place are locks and bars and weapons found necessary. The whole treatment is a complete departure from old-time methods, and its results are infinitely more effective and humane.

That outdoor employment is possible for women as well as men was brought out by other speakers. Dr. Edith Spaulding of Massachusetts, and Martha P. Falconer, of Pennsylvania, told of advance steps in eastern states in the treatment of women misdemeanants. Mrs. Falconer emphasized the advantages to be gained by having women officers over women offenders and by maintaining them absolutely apart from delinquent girls.

One of the meetings of the committee was given over to a consideration of outdoor labor for state convicts. Virginia's experience in employing prisoners on public roads was described by Major J. B. Woods, superintendent of the Virginia Penitentiary. Whatever may be said of its success from a business viewpoint, Major Wood impressed upon his hearers that road work does nothing to reform a prisoner; that it is unfair to subject him to the temptation of killing the guard when the only thing between him and freedom is the guard's suit of citizen's clothes; that not all prisoners are suitable for road work; that the death rate is higher in the camps than in the prison; that above all the state cannot afford to return a prisoner to his community, at the end of his sentence, with nothing but a suit of clothes and transportation home.

Similar views as to road work were expressed by Prof. C. S. Potts, of the University of Texas who deplored the lack of a reformatory of the Elmira type in Texas, though the state has a series of penal farms.

Defectives

At the general session of the committee on defectives the committee report was chiefly concerned with a few of the more recent developments in the field of mental hygiene. These included the advance of scientific methods of testing mental defects—in the public schools, where it has helped to bring about the special classes for backward and defective children; in the reformatories and prisons, where it has made evident that an important minority (and in some cases an actual majority) of delinquents, especially the juveniles, are really so defective as to be irresponsible,

THE GOAL OF PRISON REFORM

Set by the section on corrections

A system of police, recognising character, merit and efficiency in the personnel and a proper social view for its operations.

A prompt hearing for every person arrested.

The establishment of juvenile courts for all children's cases.

Provision for the care and detention of delinquent children outside the jail.

A probation system for adults similar to that of juvenile courts.

Separate trials for women offenders.

A modification of the present system of fines in order not to discriminate against the poor.

Classification of prisoners, confinement of individuals apart from each other and absolute sex separation in county jails.

The prohibition of the use of the jail for any other purpose than that of temporary detention.

The abolition of the fee system.

State control of all minor prisons.

The establishment of industrial farms for convicted misdemeanants.

A form of indeterminate sentence for misdemeanants.

Their release on parole under supervision.

The abolition of contract labor.

incapable of reformation, unfit subjects for punishment and therefore unfit persons to be turned loose on the community; and in the courts, where it has given the judges a basis of knowledge of the culprits before them which has hitherto been lacking.

The work of the National Committee on Mental Hygiene has aroused attention to the fact that epilepsy, insanity and feeble-mindedness are really three closely connected factors of one great problem. This has been emphasized by the reports of several recent state commissions on provision for the mentally defective.

The colony plan, first presented to the conference at Indianapolis in 1891,

which is the practical method of segregated care for the feeble-minded and epileptic, is being generally accepted, not only for them but for many other classes. Several present experiments with economical industrial communities of the kind were briefly mentioned.

Sterilization, which has been made legal in thirteen states, declared unconstitutional in one, and found in accord with the constitution in another, but which so far has been little used, whether wise or not, was held to be too far ahead of public opinion to be largely practicable at present.

Segregation, on the other hand, is rapidly gaining public approval. It needs only to be understood to be accepted everywhere. That a colony, as the permanent home of the trained imbecile and moron, is not life imprisonment but on the contrary gives them the happiest and freest life that is available for them, needs to be popularized everywhere, as being best for the defectives and immensely the best for the community.

A valuable paper on the Psychical Study of Juvenile Delinquents, which deals also with some of the adults, was presented by Dr. Healy, whose long experience with the psychopathical institute attached to the Juvenile Court of Chicago, makes his word on such a topic almost the final one.

Then the chairman of the committee, Alexander Johnson, illustrated the training and subsequent care of the feeble-minded by a series of stereoscopic pictures. He showed specimens of the three main types—idiots, imbeciles, morons; also some of the less frequent, such as cretins, mongols and moral imbeciles.

There were two section meetings, the first given to the causes of insanity. Dr. Fox of the Mississippi State Hospital showed the dire consequences of syphilis as it attacks the brain. He claimed that over the door of every resort of vice might be inscribed: "Incurable insanity may be acquired within."

Alcohol as a cause of insanity was treated by Everett S. Elwood of New York. That it is the chief cause in a large proportion of cases and a contributory cause in a much larger number was asserted.

The second section meeting continued the topic of Defectives in the Juvenile Court from the viewpoint of the bench. Judge Addams of Cleveland told of the help the courts are receiving from the psychologists who are now among their most efficient aids. He praised the Binet scale as a useful measuring device, discussed the value of the probation officer with the border line cases, whose proper disposition is often doubtful and throws back upon the judges the duty of serious inquiry as to the mental status of accused persons, especially juveniles. Judge Addams said that while in large cities it is usually easy for the judges to secure the expert assistance of a trained psychologist, this is not true in the smaller communities.

A new plan adopted in Ohio obviates this difficulty. By this plan all children

who must be taken in charge by the state, instead of being sent by the court to a particular institution are committed to the care of the State Board of Administration. Then they are examined and studied and thereafter dealt with as their condition requires, whether that means placing in an institution or otherwise. The control of the board follows them so that if a mistake is made it may be corrected easily.

Judge Addams favored supplementing the Ohio plan, so far as the defectives go, by the New Jersey plan of special classes for defectives in the public schools, with assistance from the state in defraying the increased expense to the school system. This plan, he said, not only insures the proper teaching but makes it to the advantage of the local authorities to find the children who need it.

Outside the meetings of the committee on defectives references to feeble-mindedness were numerous at the conferences. In the reports from states it was the exception when the reporter did not voice the urgent need of more and better care for this class. The conclusion was irresistible that the present is the psychological moment for a nation-wide campaign on behalf of the mentally defective and on behalf of the community, by means of caring properly for them.

Living and Labor

Fresh evidence of the life and energy of the section on standards of living and labor manifested itself at its evening session when Jean Gordon and Dr. McKelway dealt with protective standards for women and children, the Rev. E. V. O'Hara reported the unique and creative work of the Oregon Industrial Commission, and Lewis W. Hine closed with his pathetic pageant of laboring children, North and South. It was an informing and inspiring series of appeals for a national standard of justice in industry. It was cheering because of the year's achievement. It was an impressive evening despite the absence of the chairman, Charles P. Neill, called to West Virginia by the mine disaster at Eccles, and of Jane Addams who was to have been the last speaker.

Of national importance are Father O'Hara's tidings of a second favorable decision sustaining the rulings of the Oregon Industrial Commission establishing minimum wage rates for women in manufacture and retail trade. In this the chief justice of the Supreme Court reviewed the whole subject and the court unanimously adopted his view. Upon this doubly solid foundation the Oregon law rests in the test case now pending before the Supreme Court of the United States. For the year 1914 the minimum wage for an adult clerk in a department store in Portland is \$9.25 a week; in a factory any adult woman must be paid not less than \$8.64 a week (16 cents an hour, with a working week limited to 50 hours). Outside of Portland, where the cost of living is lower than in the rest of the state, the minimum rate is \$8.25 a week.

The striking feature of the Oregon

law, wherein it differs from all previous legislation in all parts of the world, is the declaration that it is not for the welfare of the state that women and minors should be employed excessive hours, or paid a wage that cannot maintain them in health and decent comfort. From this declaration in the statute the Industrial Welfare Commission and the courts have logically deduced every step that they have taken.

Of national importance, too, were Mr. Hine's pictures of New Orleans mill children and messenger boys. For what Jean Gordon has accomplished in that southernmost city of the Mississippi valley can never be convincingly shown to be impossible elsewhere. Standards of age and size are set, once for all, in those photographs from which there is henceforth no appeal. In this one respect the pathetic pageant of child laborers becomes a substantive, scientific contribution to the standardizing of working children throughout the South. What has been done can be done, is the new slogan for every state which is not yet enforcing up to the hilt a bona fide fourteen-years age limit. And where, except in Orleans Parish is such a limit so enforced?

The section meetings were devoted, one to social insurance and the other to agencies for establishing and maintaining standards of living and labor. In the latter Prof. Charles R. Henderson of the University of Chicago discussed the Right of the Worker to Social Protection, and Frederick Hoffman, statistician of the Prudential Insurance Company speaking of American Problems in Social Insurance defined his position as a hostile critic of mothers' pensions.

In this section, too, John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation, reviewed the three methods generally employed for obtaining better standards of living and labor. The first, guerilla warfare as practiced by the syndicalists, Dr. Andrews described as "able to give dramatic expression to the cry of the oppressed masses, but unable or unwilling to maintain standards." Collective bargaining, the second method, while protecting the gains made by trade unionists, ordinarily gives no assurance that the interests of the general public have been taken into account. The legislative method, Dr. Andrews maintained, combines from the general public welfare point of view most of the desirable features of an agency for establishing and maintaining just standards of living and labor.

In considering voluntary agencies, Mrs. Florence Kelley's thesis was the need of establishing, in all possible places throughout the nation, local branches of those agencies which are represented in the conference. While churches and women's clubs can reasonably be called upon for co-operation in the general work of education, the actual performance of continuing difficult tasks of philanthropic work cannot be left to them without ensuing failure. There is need of an organized group, even though small, in steady communication with the national office of its own

particular agency, helped by the national organizers, instructed up-to-date as to the changing phases of pending federal legislation, and the progress of kindred work in other states. As reverberators of slogans the clubs are invaluable. But what continuity could be hoped for from that Mississippi Valley State Federation of Women's Clubs which once voted that, for the next five years, it would not consider the same subject or invite the same speaker twice?

No livelier discussion occurred in any section meeting, than at this one, a striking contribution being Father O'Hara's two minutes statement that, in order to go forward securely in the path of progress, it is necessary to have the initiative, the referendum, the direct primary, the recall and woman suffrage—"which constitute the Oregon system."

Public Charities

David F. Tilley, member of the Massachusetts State Board of Charity, presented as chairman the report of the committee on public charities. He dealt in a general way with the functions of state boards of charities, the need of co-operation between state boards and the other agencies and an informal report upon the present needs of various states as indicated in reports made during the past year to the committee.

The most pressing needs were shown to be for better provision in the care of juvenile delinquents, with special provision for the feeble-minded; more uniform laws for the care of delinquent and dependent children, for the treatment of vagrants and for some better provision for dealing with the feeble-minded of both sexes.

Haphazard methods of legislation were condemned and the speaker said that the workers in the various states had much need of protection from legislative action, which is subject to deserved criticism because laws are enacted without proper investigation or without understanding of the real social needs of the various states or communities based upon accurate, painstaking and thoughtful investigation.

The state board of charities should be depended upon for such information, he said, but they cannot furnish it if they are without authority to make the needed investigations, both in their own states and to acquire information as to existing conditions in other states.

Among the recommendations made by Mr. Tilley for the committee on charities, were that grounds for commitment to state institutions be made uniform so far as possible in the various counties of each state. He suggested that courts and lawyers, especially magistrates and justices, be kept informed by state boards.

Robert W. Heberd, secretary of the State Board of Charities, of the state of New York, read a paper on Uniform Settlement Laws which will be printed in full in the proceedings of the conference and will serve as a handbook on this subject.

John H. DeWitt of Nashville discussed the Present Charitable Needs of the South. He prefaced his remarks

with an explanation for the benefit of visitors, of the double burden which rests upon charitable workers in this section because of the large Negro population.

He presented three important subjects which need remedying: the almost universally bad condition of jails and almshouses, the treatment of delinquent boys and girls and the need of better organization of state boards of charities in almost every southern state. He spoke of beneficial changes in jail methods recently made in Virginia and other states, like Mississippi, where the convicts are worked upon farms. He called attention to the boys' training schools established in Tennessee and might have mentioned the fact that Shelby county, in which the conference met, has begun many reforms in its county poorhouse and workhouse farms.

He recommended that departments of state charities, laid out upon a broad, comprehensive system be established in every southern state.

A joint session of the committees on public charities, children and the family and the community was devoted to Adequate Relief to Needy Mothers. Throughout the conference there had been divergence of opinion in regard to widows' pensions. This session differed from similar ones at earlier conferences in the number of states reporting pension laws in operation—Massachusetts and Pennsylvania in the East, and whole groups in the West. Mr. Hebbard announced that the New York State Commission will introduce a pension bill again at the next session of the Legislature.

Social Hygiene

The program of the social hygiene section was devoted largely to the problem of prostitution, and included the following major divisions: mental and physical factors and social causes of prostitution; factors in prevention of prostitution, awakening of a new public conscience and development of educational methods; the treatment of the problem, including the special treatment of women offenders; and reports upon administrative methods now being tried and results thus far achieved.

The dominant note of the meetings may be summed up in steady repression of prostitution through every available means and condemnation of the policy of segregation, education of the adult public, particularly of parents and teachers, protection and when necessary segregation of the feeble-minded, medical diagnosis and hospital care for venereal diseases, and study and control of environmental factors.

Concerning the latter, Mrs. John M. Glenn, president-elect of the 1915 conference, said: "The inability of the family to protect its adventurous members, the readiness with which standards of conduct fall under the impress of impersonal contacts, the losing struggle of the home to safeguard its young in competition with the paltry offerings of the street, the meagerness of the education for home-making, the difficulties of adjusting people of markedly different

racial habits, the loss of traditional sanctions, ignorance of the laws of sex, faithlessness to marriage vows, demoralizing work conditions, poor pay, the home that is a sham, the home that is broken, the inability of the feeble-minded to protect themselves, the readiness with which in both city and open country stagnant centers of pauperism and crime are allowed to breed their kind—each of these can be seen to have its part."

All of the papers were illustrated with statistical data showing the importance of each of the factors discussed and the proceedings of the conference will be valuable for reference material on the subject. There was a disposition, however,

THE FUNCTION OF MORBIDITY STATISTICS

From a paper before the Health Section
by Dr. John W. Trask, U. S.
Public Health Service

The reporting of communicable diseases that the people may be protected from typhoid fever, tuberculosis, diphtheria, et cetera.

That the sick may get proper treatment, such as anti-toxin for diphtheria, and attention in tuberculosis.

That non-communicable diseases of occupational and local origin may receive attention as to cause.

That the geographic distribution and other features of diseases of unknown origin may be studied, as in pellagra, cancer, et cetera.

That the need of certain sanitary local measures may be demonstrated, such as draining for malaria, better housing for tuberculosis, improved sewage disposal and pure water supply for the control of typhoid fever, hookworm, et cetera.

on the part of the delegates to concede the importance of all these factors and to get down to the practical discussion of a constructive campaign of reduction and gradual eradication of prostitution. Interest especially centered in ways and means of eliminating segregated districts and tolerated centers of vice in cities. The report of the committee on social hygiene presented by the chairman, Maude E. Miner of New York, emphasized the fact that fourteen vice reports thus far published unanimously declared against segregation and for the practicability of active repression. The report endorsed this position and outlined the practical steps in promoting its adoption and in developing agencies for minimizing the supply of and demand for prostitutes.

President Graham Taylor made a strong plea at the general meeting for the policies advocated in the report, basing his argument on his experience and knowledge of the vice investigations and work of the Chicago Vice Commission.

James Bronson Reynolds, counsel of the American Social Hygiene Association, presented a convincing argument of the same tenor. Rabbi Berkowitz presented the educational need for sane sex education, at the same time emphasizing the importance of applying the policy of "repression" to the many unwise and harmful methods of teaching and exploiting sex information which are being tolerated at the present time.

Martha P. Falconer's discussion of corrective institutions attracted one of the largest audiences of the conference, and gave many present an entirely new conception of the importance and possibilities of real correction work, both for the welfare of the individuals and of society. The reports of Frederick H. Whitin on the work of the Committee of Fourteen, New York, in enforcing laws against disorderly hotels, and of Zenas Potter on treatment of offenders before trial, created much interest.

The continuation of the section under the chairmanship of Mrs. Falconer, of Sleighton Farm, Darlington, Pa., is fortunate. The serious study of the complex problems of the social hygiene movement by such national bodies as the National Conference of Charities and Correction promises to rescue a most important field of social welfare from impractical theorists, medical charlatans, and others who have already done much damage through their efforts.

In addition to the regular program, the committee presented an interesting exhibit in connection with the paper on social hygiene exhibits by Dr. William F. Snow, general secretary of the American Social Hygiene Association.

Health

Dr. Ennion G. Williams of Richmond, Commissioner of the Virginia State Board of Health, opened the health section, of which he was chairman, with the statement that the highly organized cities are meeting their health needs in large measure; but the rural sections lag far behind. The country districts are not organized for health and their death rates remain stationary or increase while death rates in the cities are steadily going down. The machinery of the state boards of health is inadequate to meet rural needs, he said.

One of the most hopeful movements looking toward meeting the rural problem is the recently organized Red Cross Town and Country Nursing Service, described by Fanny F. Clement.

Miss Clement told of how the nurse tacked up netting in the windows against flies and mosquitoes; how she stimulated the people of the community to cheer the "shut-ins" with flowers and birds and magazines; to fix up springs and wells and privies; and how she became the ministering spirit of the country-side—the social servant, unofficial health officer, preventer and arbiter of trouble of every kind.

In the discussion following Miss Clement's paper, instances were cited as to the ease with which a number of communities in Virginia were organized and raised money enough within a few

(continued on page 248.)

THE COUNTY

A Challenge to Humanized Politics and Volunteer Co-operation

President's Address, National Conference of Charities and Correction

NO greater transition in the tendencies of the times has faced the National Conference of Charities and Correction in the forty years of its experience than that which confronts us who have entered upon the fifth decade of its survey and service. It is the tendency to entrust to public administration and support humanitarian functions which for most of the centuries were recognized as the exclusive prerogative of religion and are still for the most part fulfilled by volunteer agencies in and outside of the churches. Any present transitional tendency is more quickly and better understood when it has some counterpart in the past which affords at least background to furnish perspective and sense of proportion. Arnold Toynbee's advice to read history with present problems in mind is as effectual when reversed and we try to read the present with history in mind.

The Chartist movement in England seventy-seven years ago furnishes a prophetic situation predictive at least of some phases of present tendencies involving humanitarian needs and resources. Then as now the rising cost of living was rapidly reducing the standard of living. Then as now unemployment and dependency were resented as an injury to which charity added insult. Then as now the recognition of the right to live was taken to involve the concession of the right to work for a living. Then as now the righting of social wrongs was claimed to be the primary function of politics. Therefore the "people's charter" was demanded from Parliament then, just as the referendum and initiative and the recall are demanded of our legislatures now. Then the extension of the franchise to disfranchised men was demanded, as it now is to disfranchised women, in response to and in fulfillment of a new incursion of race consciousness. Then as now religion was stoutly held to be accountable both for this divine discontent and for its human satisfaction. Then began in Britain the modern Christian social movement, which now finds religious expression in every language and gathers force in many forms of faith.

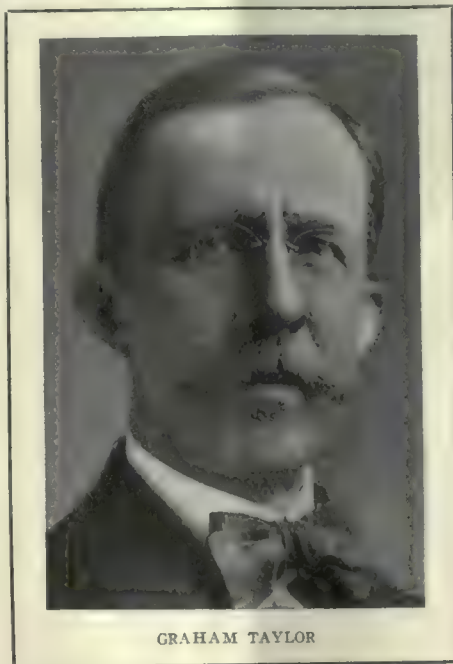
Then it was that Frederick Denison Maurice gathered together the broken promises and the shattered hopes of his own troublous times in a prophecy of the humanizing of religion and of the religionizing of politics, which cannot be denied to be the most significant tendency of our times.

This is his prediction of the rise of politics for the people out of the denatured partisanship which has dehumanized government:

"Politics have been separated from

Graham Taylor

PRESIDENT, CHICAGO SCHOOL OF CIVICS
AND PHILANTHROPY



household ties and affection, from art and science and literature. While they belong to parties, they have no connection with what is human and universal; when they become politics for the people, they are found to take in a very large field: whatever concerns man as a social being must be included in them.

"Politics have been separated from Christianity; religious men have supposed that their only business was with the world to come; political men have declared that the present world is governed on entirely different principles than that. But politics for the people cannot be separated from religion. The world is governed by God; this is the rich man's warning; this is the poor man's comfort, this is the real hope in the consideration of all questions, let them be as hard of solution as they may; this is the pledge that Liberty, Fraternity, Unity, under some conditions or other, are intended for every people under heaven."

To whatever personal or political motives we may attribute the taking over of humanitarian functions by town and county, by city and state, we can scarcely fail to account for the country-wide, well nigh world-wide, movement to do so as an overflow of religion into politics, or at least as the state's assumption of the social results of the church's initiative. Certainly nothing could so impressively attest the fact that religion has builded better than it knew as to

find the state becoming more of a schoolmaster than the church, to find the county taking care of more sick and aged, widows and children, than the churches can care for; to find the city sheltering more homeless strangers than were ever found within the gates of the Christian hospice, protecting children exposed to their own or others' waywardness, doing justice and loving mercy, if not walking humbly before God.

But these very facts face both politics and religion with a serious challenge. Can politics become religious enough to fulfil these sacred humanitarian functions in the spirit and with the purpose of religion? Can religion imbue the people with an ideal and spirit of statesmanship that will be adequate to evolve the charity of today into the justice of tomorrow? If so, politics and religion must accept and meet this challenge at the one point where local government is loading up most heavily with human functions and yet is the most neglected of all our political units—the county.

In direct descent from the "shire," which is the earliest form of popular government, the county is our oldest political unit. As such, the primary and most essential functions of government naturally gravitate to it, except in New England and some sections of the South where the town and district precede and supersede the county. It is the most pervasive of all American local governments, covering the country in every state as the very warp and woof of the national fabric.

There were 2,952 counties in the United States reported by the census of 1910, five-sixths of them are rural, ten per cent of them having no incorporated municipalities. The 115 semi-urban counties, having an urban population of from 50,000 to 500,000, includes 13,000,000 inhabitants. There are eight great city counties having populations of 500,000 and over. The county is also the most prevalent political unit, not only permeating our whole legislative, judicial and administrative system, but being the mold in which our party organization is cast. Our machinery for nominating and electing officials is centered in the county, and the "county central committee" is almost everywhere the most active and potent of our party organizations.

In addition to these undergirding responsibilities, the county is invested with these specific executive functions which are quite as essential to all government: levying and collection of taxes, making and keeping open the ways of communication by constructing and maintaining roads and bridges, preserving order and administering justice through the sheriff's office, the courts,

justices and constables, and even by the militia in earlier times, protecting life through the coroner's office, managing and supporting schools, registering and recording deeds, wills and vital statistics, licensing certain sales, as of liquor, and legislating by the referendum for the restriction or prohibition of such sale.

To these governmental functions of the county there have been added, and with rapidly increasing volume of late, the relief of the poor, at the almshouse and at home through the county agent, by the funds to parents or widows' pensions; the care and cure of the sick in general hospitals and in sanitariums for tuberculosis patients; the custody of the feeble-minded, insane, and epileptic; the arrest, conviction and punishment of misdemeanants and criminals, and the custody and probationary care of juvenile delinquents.

The extensive and intensive work of the county, which, with varying form and degree, but of the same kind, is the prerogative of every county, cannot be better illustrated perhaps than by massing the overwhelming volume of Cook county's service to the people of Chicago and surrounding towns.

County Service

As required by law, it held last year national, state, county and municipal elections and primaries. It maintained the county building, ten stories high, occupying half a block, containing offices and the courts, and a criminal court building and jail occupying another half block; it constructed and maintained roads and bridges over an area of 993 square miles, excepting the 191 square miles within the city limits of Chicago.

It provided 1,400 teachers for 40,000 pupils in schools of the outlying towns.

It recorded all deeds determining the title of real estate and documents affecting the title to personal property for a population of 2,546,000 people.

It issued and recorded marriage licenses for 36,000 couples, and granted saloon licenses outside the city.

It levied, assessed, collected and allotted to the state, county and municipal governments an annual revenue of about \$47,000,000.

It served legal process and enforced court orders upon 191,469 persons.

It maintained the circuit court with 10,898 suits and 25,000 litigants, the superior court with 5,770 cases and 12,000 litigants, the probate court with 4,412 cases, the county court with 5,925 cases, the criminal court with 3,500 prosecutions.

It housed, fed and cared for about 11,000 prisoners in the county jail, nearly 10,000 of whom required medical treatment for infectious diseases.

It maintained public order in case of riots.

It gathered in, temporarily cared for and committed to state asylums or discharged 2,334 insane patients.

It assumed and maintained care for 10,597 delinquent and dependent children.

It isolated and stamped out contagion. It housed, fed and furnished medical

and surgical treatment for 34,000 sick people, 1,000 tuberculosis patients, and 3,000 aged, infirm, or irresponsible people.

It supplied food, clothing and fuel to about 200,000 persons; buried 978 pauper and friendless dead, and granted \$165,000 to 350 indigent mothers for the support of 1,126 children. To perform this service it required the full time of 3,000 employes and part-time of about 10,000 others. The appropriations of Cook county for 1913 total \$7,072,486.96.

The cost of county government and service is reported by the United States census to be in New England at the rate of \$.92 per capita, in the southern states \$1.20, in the central states \$2.30, in the western states \$6.25 and aggregating the total expenditure in all the 2,952 counties of the enormous sum of \$300,000,000 a year—nearly half as much as the national government costs.

The county seat is therefore the center of more governmental activities and human service than that of any other seat of government. It is the rural capital of a great majority of the American people, and is the executive office of many of the most important of the great cities' functions.

Coincident with the growth of its functions in diversity, human importance, administrative exactions and political power, the county has suffered from its own citizens' neglect, the consequent inefficiency of its officials and the partisan perversion of its prerogatives and powers.

This is everywhere evident in the carelessness, inaccuracy and illegality with which public records and accounts of the counties are kept; in the confusion, lack of co-ordination of its laws and methods of procedure in its relation to the city and the state; in the evil conditions prevailing in county jails, almshouses, provisions for dependent and neglected children and public health, which this National Conference has ever exposed and always sought to improve. The neglect of the county by voters, taxpayers and people is still more glaring than the inefficiency and corruption of its administration which is due thereto.

Sore Spots

This ignorance and indifference justify one of our foremost investigators of county affairs in declaring that "we are still, as a people, profoundly ignorant of the particular functions which the county fulfils in our national economy and, except in specific instances of graft, exposé, taxpayers' suits, and sporadic achievements in the line of research and reform, we are still at a loss to put our fingers upon the county's sore spots."

Nevertheless the spots are so sore that the secretary of the National Federation of Retail Merchants recently reported to the President of the United States that while the population of the whole country was increasing twenty-one per cent, no less than 217 of the 777 county seats in nine states, including New York and Pennsylvania on the

east, Missouri, Iowa and Wisconsin on the west, lost population, as have 6,956 of their towns.

Although this loss is attributed to the competitions with the great centers which cause the elimination of the small retail merchants, yet it is noted as surprising that it has taken place at county seats, which are "in many ways the center of most of the activities of the county unit along the line of politics, courts, collection of taxes, and in other directions. And strange to say, this tendency of the decline of the towns is greatest in the richest and most thickly settled parts of the states."

May it not be due in part to the citizens' neglect to promote their own interests by the development of the public resources and agencies of their rural counties? Still greater and more disastrous is the neglect of county government by the citizens of great cities just in proportion as its exactions, expenditures and human responsibilities increase to the maximum. Just there, where the most money, public welfare and personal suffering are at stake, good citizenship is weakest and partisan exploitation worst.

Causes of Inefficiency

There are in the county system itself very obvious causes for inefficiency in administration aside from the sheer neglect of the voters. Counties differ so greatly in their area—from 25 square miles to 20,490 square miles; in their population—from 5,000 to 2,500,000; in social and industrial conditions—from a scattered, native, farming community to the largest and most cosmopolitan manufacturing and commercial centers. Counties differ widely also in their very types of organization derived from their origin and in their very diverse inherited methods of administration. Therefore it has been impossible to standardize their form and management.

Legislation has either ignored the county and left its primitive forms and methods to be outgrown and restrictive of growth, or it has still further embarrassed county administration by a patch-work of confused and often conflicting laws, which have made good government impossible and left officials uncertain of their obligations and without supervision. Local governments of the town, municipality and the county have thus been left, each to go its own way, without correlation or co-operation either with each other or with the state.

The resulting confusion and conflict, duplication and waste widely prevalent have never been more effectively exposed than by the Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency in its report on the nineteen local governments in Chicago. There are actually twenty-six within the territory in which citizens of Chicago live, and within the county of Cook there are no less than 300 taxing bodies, the county clerk spreading 366 separate taxes.

Every elector of the county living in Chicago is expected to vote for 69 county officials, of whom the report declares "each one is practically independent of

all the others and is responsible for his conduct in office only to himself and to the people who elect him. There is nowhere in the county government any central, co-ordinating official or body." During a period of nine years this same elector is summoned by national, state and local elections to choose officials for 144 different elective positions. On the combined national, state, county and judicial ballot voted at Chicago at the November election in 1912, there were 440 names of candidates.

Politics

The advantage in this situation given to and taken by partisan politics rounds fully out the overwhelming odds against intelligent and patriotic voting.

As we have seen, the county is the most permanent and effective seat of partisan politics in America. The county seat is actually the seat of the county central committee. It, or the county boss, actually selects the county commissioners and other officials whom the bewildered voters are supposed freely to elect. When their selection is made formal at the polls, it has been truly said that "the only man competent to issue orders to county officers that they shall do thus and so, or, failing to obey, shall be disciplined; the only man competent to enforce those orders is that unofficial but most powerful being, the county boss." The contracts let by county officials and far more the fees and salaries of some of them, which in some city counties far exceed the salary of the President of the United States, are tributary to the treasury of the dominant party's county organization.

Thus the vicious circle goes on its endless round. Thus despite, and even because of, the increasing expenditure and human importance of county administration, inefficiency and neglect have increasingly characterized and scandalized it the country over, with comparatively few conspicuous exceptions.

At last this gauntlet, which has so long been flung at the feet of local patriotism and which has been left to lie there so shamelessly long, is being picked up here and there by those who can no longer tolerate politics which have no connection with what is human, or religion which is separated from such human interests as are at stake in local politics. Household ties and affection are beginning to intertwine themselves in the affairs of households of civic as well as of religious fellowship. The people's politics is asserting itself in determined efforts to understand, simplify, unify and humanize local governments.

This movement has at present two tendencies in dealing with the difficulties of county administration. One is virtually to abolish the county by transferring its functions to the state.

This suggestion comes chiefly from city dwellers who are so overwhelmed by the complexity of their multiple local governments, and the inefficiency and corruption involved thereby, as to despair of any simplification or solution of their problem, except by the elimination of this one of its main factors. They argue, and with much force, that the

state whose legislature makes the laws should control the states attorney who can either execute or nullify them, as his county constituents may direct. They plead that the coroner's office can be effectively filled only by the appointment of an official who can meet both the medical and judicial exactions of a function that belongs to the state and not to the county, where "great power and great obscurity" are entrusted almost inevitably to "a person of no special ability or character." They cite the necessity and advantage which have led to the transference of the care of the insane, the epileptic, the feeble-minded, the delinquent, from the county to the state. Thus, one after another, they propose to eliminate the functions of the county by merging them either with those of the state or the municipality.

The other tendency in dealing with the difficulties of county organization is toward reconstituting county governments by home-rule charters. Recognizing on the one hand that the county is too deeply rooted in the ground plan of our entire system of government, of the judiciary and of party organization, to be eliminated; and on the other hand, that the county is the principal, if not the only, governmental agency through which our rural people, who constitute 42 per cent of our entire population, do the things that each man, woman and child of them must have done, these promoters of the county as a democratic unit propose to adapt it to each of three differing conditions.

Counties including agricultural areas and rural towns may be adapted to the commission form of government with a county manager. The bill providing for this change which is urged by the New York Short Ballot Association, has in part at least been anticipated in Shelby County, Tennessee, of which Memphis is the county seat. The act, as affirmed by the chancery court, while leaving the justices of the peace their constitutional prerogative of constituting the legal county government, transferred the actual management of the county affairs to three commissioners by authorizing them to conduct the department of workhouse and turnpike roads, the department of county health, and the department of purchasing and finance. The bill proposed for New York state provides for three county supervisors at large, one to be elected each year, who shall appoint a county manager to be their executive officer, purchasing agent and general overseer of all county work and institutions, with power to appoint their superintendents, together with the county treasurer and attorney.

County Federation

For the second class of counties, which include both rural and city communities, a federation is proposed which, while leaving each local community intact and free to develop its own interests, invests the delegated county board with the powers of a central governing body over the police, the civil service and the election of superior judges, the appointment of the sheriff, the court clerks and public administrator being left with these

judges. This plan, which also provides for the short ballot and the county manager, was elicited by Alameda county, Cal., in its quest for a better adjustment of taxes for its city and country communities. Much is hoped from the fellowship of such a county federation in promoting a community of interests between the city and country people, and in interesting private citizens in their public county affairs. In counties including cities of the first class, it is proposed to make their areas practically co-terminous, so that the functions of both may be combined, as they are in New York, San Francisco, St. Louis, and will be in every great city.

It has been well said that in spite of the county's "monotonous tone, its semi-legal atmosphere, its lack of popular appeal to the imagination, our national reconstructive genius has at last fastened upon the county as a fallow field for its operations." It is evidenced by the rise of such investigating bodies as the Westchester County Research Bureau, such propagandism as that of the New York Short Ballot Association, such expert agencies as the Bureau of Municipal Research in New York city and the Bureau of Public Efficiency in Chicago, and such groups as are undertaking local surveys of rural and municipal communities.

Rural Voters

In one such rural township of Minnesota the investigators were met with such expressions of indifference to citizenship and contempt for politics as these: "The more Americanized we are getting to be, the poorer citizens we become," "a farmer of today won't even read or talk about politics, to say nothing of going to political meetings," "what's the use of farmers taking off time for politics when the whole thing is run by political bosses anyway."

But the more public-spirited farmers of this community thought that "schools run by the government certainly should do more to acquaint the growing generation with practical knowledge about government." "We need young men," they said, "who will understand the organization of society in government, and who clearly see the relation between the local township and the county organization, and the connections between the county, state and federal governments. Then farmers will get to see how vitally their own welfare connects up with governmental activities."

Thus not any too soon, but all too late, politics is being disconnected from mere partisanship and identified with what is human and universal, with what concerns man as an individual and as a social being. In so doing, the county may well be made the local base for democratic participation in government. Its care for roads and water, for health and sanitation, for the poor and the afflicted, for the courts and their administration of justice, certainly makes its service very human and of interest to every individual. The county lies all around and very close to every home and neighborhood, every one's home town and city, and therefore ought to

be, and can become, the framework for the fellowships formed about those most primitive and personal possessions.

All this humanizing of politics and extension of local and state governments seem to be superseding those very voluntary agencies which have given birth to the humanitarian spirit and have borne the burden and the brunt of giving to it all its varied and costly expression. But never will history let us forget that from the beginning until now it has been the function of these volunteer agencies to initiate, to experiment, to demonstrate. They still will be called upon to exercise these functions before any branch of government will feel authorized to take over and carry on what is thus attested.

Co-operation

Never in all the history of their long relationship to public agencies have the volunteer agencies, including the churches, been more absolutely indispensable than now. For, with the progress of the democratic state, with the extension of the franchise to women and the foreign-born on the largest scale ever attempted, with the placing of more and more responsibility upon the individual citizen, with the ever increasing exactions upon officials, the public agencies were never more dependent upon the active, intelligent, constant co-operation of volunteer agencies and private citizens than now.

We who constitute the membership and administrative forces of these private agencies should look upon their overflow into public policy and administration with gratitude untouched by jealousy. No greater attestation could be given our motives and our methods than to have them built into the ideals and structure and standards of the community. Nothing could have been better for the progress of legislation and official administration than to have had these new responsibilities and functions entrusted to the public agencies and built into the very framework of the state. Thus we have been humanizing government. We have been idealizing politics. We have been more or less fraternizing the business of public affairs. We have added professional status to competent public officials by sharing with them these great humanitarian functions now belonging to the town, the county, the municipality and the state.

Instances multiply which demonstrate not only the practicability and efficiency of co-operation, but also clearly show that so great has become the interdependence of the public and volunteer agencies, officials and private citizens, that one cannot succeed if the other fails. These instances are conspicuous in the four fields of administration, legislation, civic training and the social application of religion.

First and most fundamental in the field of administration is the co-operation between such volunteer, expert agencies as the New York Bureau of Municipal Research and the Chicago Bureau of Public Efficiency with the official agencies charged with making and standardizing budgets and public accounts. Resentful suspicions and self-

defensive antagonisms are at this crucial point giving way to sympathetic and constructive co-operation, greatly to the public welfare. City clubs, both of men and of women, are setting the type and the method of intelligent participation in public affairs which can be carried on and out into the administration of town and village, county and state.

Publicity is not only thus best given to the conduct of public affairs, but public opinion thus brings to bear its promptings and deterrents upon such critical issues as the granting of public utility franchises and the issuance of bonds.

The coroner of Cook county, startled by the increasing inquests involving preventable deaths—nearly 5,000 a year in Cook county, and 123,000 last year in all counties, while in four years of the Civil War not more than 90,000 on both sides were killed in battle—appealed for a commission of public safety to help prevent the needless slaughter. In response the great railways, trolley lines, transfer companies, automobile manufacturers, machine shop managers and trade unionists lined up with public officials of the health, police and other departments to examine the causes, and united to prevent, so-called accidental deaths.

The effectiveness of such co-operation strikingly appears in the humanizing of the administration of justice. Juvenile court committees and the Juvenile Protective Association support and aid judges and probation officers in their difficult and delicate task of supplementing family discipline. At Chicago the County Court is assisted by four social investigators to report antecedents and surroundings in cases of insanity. The Juvenile Court has thus secured a woman assistant to the judge who hears the cases of delinquent girls in the privacy of the court chambers. The Court of Domestic Relations has a trained social worker to advise the distraught women. Both courts have a rest room for the women and a nursery for the children. The Boys' Court, for those over the juvenile court age, has trained investigators and advisers at work with the judge. The Morals Court, dealing with victimized girls and wayward women, has also women assistants who work in co-operation with women police officers.

Constructive Work

In preventive and constructive effort commercial bodies and women's clubs are working with school boards and park commissions to develop the neighborhood use of school buildings and the establishment of playgrounds and recreation centers.

Out of such co-operation such social work has been added to municipal and county service as that so successfully administered by the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare and that which has recently been undertaken jointly by city and county at St. Joseph, Missouri, under the Board of Public Welfare, and at Chicago by the county Bureau of Public Welfare, which assumes investigation and after-care of the families of inmates in the county infirmary for the

poor, the tuberculosis hospital, the county jail, and other public institutions.

In the field of national, state and local legislation, volunteer and expert organizations are more and more effectively supplanting the secret lobby of special interests. Such co-operative bodies are recognized by our legislatures and courts as valuably co-operating in the delicate and difficult adjustment of law to the needs of life, of judicial justice to the ever advancing demands of social justice.

To awaken and guide this new interest in public affairs among both private citizens and public officials, far more efficient training for volunteer and official service must be more widely furnished by public and professional schools, and by such a specialized journal as *THE SURVEY*.

It may be said that the most hopeful sign of the times is that so many of the regular occupations in life are felt to have a social bearing upon community welfare. In rural communities, bankers, lumber dealers and other tradesmen are being urged at their conventions and by their trades' journals to become "community builders" in their small towns and agricultural counties and are taking a new interest in village improvement, town planning and county administration.

Public Loyalty

To bear home to the hearts and consciences of those in training for all occupations, this loyalty to public welfare in their private pursuits is the highest service which teachers and trainers can render the commonwealth. Manufacturing and commercial men need to be taught and inspired to regard the safety and welfare of the human elements of their plants as not only promotive of business efficiency, but as their responsibility in promoting public welfare. Doctors need to be imbued with the prior claim upon them to co-operate with health departments and commissions in assuring public health by the improvement of sanitary and hygienic conditions, at whatever cost to their curative work and its rewards. Lawyers' patriotic, expert service is desperately needed in the framing of laws and ordinances, for the prevention of unnecessary and wasteful litigation, for the simplification of legal procedure, as well as in the manifold administration of law.

A new professional ethic must be taught in medical and law schools if the claims of humanity and the state are to be considered paramount to the opportunities for personal gain at public expense. So, too, teachers and ministers have not all yet heard the divine and human call to build the community up out of their schools and churches, and not church and school out of the community, nor have they learned how to do it.

To train the leaders of this volunteer rank and file in all the occupations of life, technical schools for civic and social training have arisen to meet the demand, either independently or in affiliation with university graduate

schools. They have amply demonstrated the need for this new specialized education, in that their offer to furnish trained workers has created a demand for them so great that the supply has never yet been sufficient to fill the old and new positions requiring special training. But these very leaders must depend for their rank and file, not only upon the academic discipline given the fewer in the higher educational institutions and the practical work for rural citizenship by agricultural colleges, but also upon the incentive to good citizenship prompted in the youth of the high schools, and in the boys and girls in all stages of progress in the grade schools.

Humanized politics and volunteer co-operation put up to the churches the most imperative claim for the greatest service which their respective communities and their common country have ever demanded of them. Never were their religious ideals of life, individual and collective, more essential; never was their inspiration to seek and realize these ideals more needed; never was the power for service which religion begets in the self-emptying, God-possessed personality, more absolutely essential than now not only to the progress but to the very self-preservation of the state. Slowly but surely the literature and life, the declarations of industrial and social principles, community surveys and activities, the Y. M. C. A. county work, and above all, the organized and federated co-operation of the churches, are pledging their obedience to this imperative mandate of God and man.

There is at last a growing conviction that even the church cannot succeed if the community fails, and that the community cannot succeed if the church fails. The citizen is feeling his need of religion in "facing all that is disagreeable and problematic in democracy, concealing nothing, blinking nothing away, and at the same time, keeping his will strong and temperate, so that its edge will never turn." For the citizen "to meet all his social obligations properly, to pay all his political debts joyously, never to throw a glance over his shoulder to the monastery—this is a mighty day's work."

One of the keenest satires on the failure and futility of much church work to meet the demands of the times, ends with this frankest confession of the need of it in a democracy, and this noble insistence upon the dependence of social justice upon religion:

"Nothing but a church will do. All the other schemes of democracy come to naught for want of that. The lecture platform is no substitute for Sinai. Democracy is a religion or nothing, with its doctrine, its forms, its ritual, its ceremonies, its government as a church—above all, its organized sacrifice of the altar, the sacrifice of self. Democracy must get rid of the natural man, of each for himself, and have a new birth into the spiritual man, the ideal self of each for all. Without religion, how is man, the essentially religious animal, to face the most tremendous of all problems—social justice?"

Other Conferences

Southern Sociological Congress

C. A. WATERFIELD

Paris, Tenn.

Organized three years ago, having the cordial endorsement of every southern governor save one, swinging in its annual orbit from Nashville around by Atlanta back to Memphis, and dated for Houston in the Far West next year, the rise of the Southern Sociological Congress augurs well for the whole country no less than for the South.

The Solid South for a Better Nation, that was the constructive statesmen-like pennant at full length across the big theatre platform. Not the old political solid South; but a new economic, industrial and social South, with its own life and problems.

A significant fact was the executive headship of J. E. McCulloch, a young man less than forty, who conceived and has practically conducted the congress through its first years; together with the active presidency of Gov. William H. Mann, now re-elected for a second term, little less than seventy, a ruddy, ripe altruist from the Old Dominion, who has served as legislator, prosecuting attorney, governor and Sunday school teacher there for a half century.

The congress contemplates ordinarily, a survey, discussion and report in the following departments: conservation and national efficiency, public health, courts and prisons, child welfare, organized charities, people in transit, race relations, the church and social service.

For the year and program just passed, however, an arrangement was made between this body and the National Conference of Charities and Correction for a division of subjects, in view of the fact that the national conference was meeting in the South and at Memphis. This in itself was a fine instance of co-operation and social mindedness, and under it the southern congress confined itself to two departments, race relations and church and social service.

It is easy to see how, to a few of those not informed on this mutual working agreement, this led to a feeling that the congress was, as the Athenians of old, in all things too religious; or, as one more modern opposer put it, too "damn pious"; whilst some others, from the same failure to take their bearings, held that the whole affair tended to run into a sort of Negro "big meeting."

All this, with other very natural causes, led to a spirited, though entirely unofficial and amicable discussion, concerning the coalescing of the southern congress with the national conference.

In theory there is an inevitable logic in behalf of such a blend. When the

question is considered with the practical problem of reaching the people and covering the field in mind, however, a gun-proof (God save the word!) reasoning appeared in favor of the southern brethren going on with their splendid work, in the face of the vast area and diversity of the service required.

The motive for the separate service, it was urged, was by no means a sectional one, but a purely physical one; the problem was a matter of dimensions and of accessibility.

Governor Mann, the president, in his message, adopted the inductive method of using as a basis his last message to the General Assembly of Virginia.

Bishop Theodore Bratton of Mississippi and Booker T. Washington opened the work for the department on race relations, the former in an address which, for nobility and elevation, for broad sympathy and sane caution against haste, was worthy of the profound and touching theme, and which swayed the deepest chords of human feeling in the great audience. Dr. Washington made one of those woods-shelling pleas of his for justice and good sense which blow like a fresh gale through head and heart of black and white.

Others who brought really notable papers under this department were Prof. A. M. Trawick and W. D. Weatherford of the International Committee of the Y. M. C. A.; Mrs. Florence Kelley of New York; Major R. R. Moton of Hampton Institute, and Dr. C. V. Roman of Nashville, Tenn., the last two being Negroes.

But the chief emphasis and the largest service of the congress was in the department of the church and social service. As in the other department the leaders in the South have and know that they have at once a unique opportunity and a big responsibility. If the race relations in the South are rarely comprehended by outsiders, hardly less so are the relations between the church and the outside social order. In the South the local church is yet the strongest educational agency and the most powerful factor in public life. If for no other reason than the first-hand and scientific treatment of these two questions, the southern Congress may be for a long time needed. The Rev. C. S. Gardner of the Louisville Baptist Theological Seminary declared to the writer privately that he regarded the religious crisis in the South as the greatest in the whole history of the church.

A score of speakers assembled an amount of information and registered a challenge which command confidence that the living church will awake and prove equal to the needs of the new age and that the social forces sweeping around us shall have shot through them the gulf stream of the ancient gospel.

National Jewish Charities

MRS. OSCAR LEONARD

The eighth biennial session of the National Conference of Jewish Charities, held in Memphis, May 6 to 8, with a good attendance, discussed chiefly the problems consequent upon recent Jewish immigration. As Cyrus L. Sulzberger of New York stated in his presidential address, the Jewish immigrant has not been understood, and many mistakes have been made in handling him. "We should adopt a fraternal instead of a paternal attitude toward our brethren" was one of his salient remarks.

The Industrial Removal Office in New York, of which David M. Bressler is chief, and the Galveston Bureau in charge of Maurice Epstein, are doing excellent work in distributing immigrants among communities affording a maximum of opportunity for self-development. But new problems are constantly arising in connection with Jewish immigration. The influx within the past few years of thousands of Jews from southeastern Europe has created an entirely new situation. A timely discussion of this problem was presented by David DeSola Pool of New York on Oriental Immigration, or, as he prefers to call it, Levantine immigration. The Levantine population, with language and customs distinctly foreign to those of the people from Russia, Roumania, Galicia, and Germany, presents a problem which has only recently begun to concern the conference. A survey of the oriental Jewish communities in this country was recommended by the committee on resolutions.

The possible effect on immigration of the opening of the Panama Canal was discussed by Lucius L. Solomons of San Francisco. He looks for a marked increase in immigration in consequence of the opening of the canal, but does not expect the extraordinary numbers predicted by some observers. Mr. Sulzberger and Mr. Epstein did not think that immigration to the Pacific Coast would be appreciably increased.

The report of the standing committee on Palestinian charities was read by Judge Julian W. Mack. The committee has made some progress in organizing the collection of funds for Palestine and it was authorized to continue its labors, as well as to attempt to secure the co-operation of the federated charities in the communities.

Another distinctly Jewish phase of philanthropic work was brought out by J. J. Dukas of New York. In accordance with ancient Jewish law, no man is permitted to charge interest to a member of his own race. The Free Loan Association makes loans without any charge for interest. Oscar Leonard of St. Louis contended that such free loans fail to inculcate a feeling of self-respect and independence on the part of the borrower.

Another solution was suggested in a paper on Self-Respect Funds by Lee K. Frankel of New York. He reported in detail on the use of such funds by the United Hebrew Charities of New York, which are thereby enabled to re-establish

on a basis of complete self-support certain of their more hopeful applicants.

The transportation rules adopted by the conference fourteen years ago have succeeded to a marked degree in breaking up the unfortunate practice of furnishing railroad and steamship tickets to dependent individuals and families without a knowledge that their condition will be improved thereby.

Boris D. Bogen of Cincinnati, speaking on Standards of Relief, demonstrated that the individual per capita cost of supporting a family decreases as the size of the family increases, and reaches its minimum when the family consists of parents and five children. A larger number of children does not affect the per capita cost.

A short space was given to the discussion of Advance in Settlement Work by Jacob Billikopf of Kansas City. The establishment of a modern Hebrew school, conducted according to the Benderly system, has proved to be an effective instrument in "Judaizing" the settlement. Although the Hebrew school, however modern, cannot take the place of the settlement, a combination of the two would seem to meet with approval. Charles S. Bernheimer of Brooklyn and Emanuel Sternheim of Greenville, Miss., led the discussion on this paper.

A paper on the After Care of Orphans by Alice L. Seligsberg of New York told of the splendid influence of Fellowship House, which keeps in personal touch with graduates of orphan homes. S. Wolfenstein, for many years the head of the Jewish Orphan Asylum of Cleveland, was in the audience, and was called upon to speak. Dr. Wolfenstein told of the methods used by his organization, which keeps in touch with every child who leaves the institution. An ovation was tendered this beloved veteran in humanitarian service.

The new officers are as follows: President, Minnie F. Low, Chicago; vice-presidents, Aaron Cohen, Pittsburgh; Fred N. Butzel, Detroit; David M. Bressler, New York; treasurer, Bernard Greensfelder, St. Louis; secretary, Louis H. Levin, Baltimore.

The Red Cross

Because of the great interest which flood prevention has for the people of the Mississippi Valley, chief emphasis in the Red Cross meeting held in Memphis on May 14, was laid upon a discussion of the project for the prevention of floods in China in the valley of the Hwai River. The history of 2,500 years of floods in that valley was briefly told in THE SURVEY for May 2. Its analogy to the scattered efforts at river protection along the lower Mississippi was pointed out.

That fevers and other diseases directly following overflows have a tendency to weaken the population at the very moment in which its greatest energies are necessary for prompt recovery from flood effects, and form a serious feature of such disasters, was indicated in an address by W. M. McGrath of Birmingham.

Eugene T. Lies of Chicago briefly de-

scribed the effects of the tornado which occurred in Omaha on April 23, 1913. Conditions following the floods of 1913 in the Ohio Valley were described by Sherman C. Kingsley of Chicago. The nursing service of the American Red Cross was described by Fannie F. Clement and a brief statement was also given of the preparation which the Red Cross has made for meeting any conditions which may arise out of the Mexican situation.

The Children's Conference

PAULA LADDEY

The eleventh Conference on the Education of Backward, Truant, Delinquent and Dependent Children held at Memphis May 6-8 might justly add to its already lengthy title, Defective, for there were few speakers who did not in one way or another touch upon the overwhelming problem of the defective child. It seems to have been the consensus of opinion that the defectives must be separated from the delinquents and dependents and be given permanent custodial care. The mentally normal dependent and delinquent child, however, should be placed out in private families as quickly as possible. Although it was brought to the conference's attention that children frequently receive better physical care in an institution, it did not change the general opinion in favor of placing them out. It only accentuated the idea of putting forth the very best effort in carefully selecting homes.

The joint session with the National Probation Association was most interesting. Case study of the child before the court and the method of dealing with him on probation was admirably discussed by Edwin Mulready of Boston who pointed out the great value of personal work with the individual. A sharp line was drawn by E. E. Gardner, Howard, R. I., between the normal and defective child when he discussed case study in the institution. The probation officer cannot cope with the defective child nor can the institution which is not especially equipped therefor.

Judge George S. Addams of the Cleveland Juvenile Court gave a lucid explanation of the Ohio children's code, drawn to meet any situation that may arise in the case of children. The code has helped Judge Addams considerably in his court and he advocated similar codes for other states.

Calvin Derrich, superintendent Preston State School of Industry, California, divided the boys for which society has to care into five groups. The first two were the mentally and morally incompetent; third, physically diseased; fourth and fifth, incorrigible and backward.

The first three classes he refused to discuss, as they should never be put in the same institution with the fourth and fifth class.

For every well regulated school he advocates three principles—absolute discipline, absolute freedom and vocational training. The first two might seem paradoxical, but they were far from it.

Absolute discipline is necessary in order to teach self-control and absolute freedom in order to give expression to the acquired self-control. In relation to vocational training, Mr. Derrick urges that the children be taught something which they can do well and by which they can earn a living no matter how menial.

Charles H. Johnson, superintendent Leake and Watts Orphan House, Yonkers, N. Y., showed that many so-called dependent children are needlessly placed in institutions. He urged that thorough investigations be made before shutting children in institutions. His experience has revealed great carelessness in dealing with dependent children. He spoke of an orphan asylum where the number of inmates was reduced from 400 to 100 children after careful investigation.

National Probation Association

The spirit of co-operation controlling the sixth annual Conference of the National Probation Association, held in Memphis, found a free rein in the interchange of ideas at the round table discussions by the eighty-one delegates present.

The meeting on the defective delinquent was conducted by Alexander Johnson of Vineland, N. J. It was evident from the discussion that the mental status of both juvenile and adult offenders is becoming more and more a problem for courts to consider.

L. A. Halbert, general superintendent of the Board of Public Welfare, Kansas City, conducted the discussion on the Probation Treatment of Adult Offenders. Emphasis was placed on firmness of discipline and reality of punishment and on methods of checking up the conduct of probationers.

Bernard Flexner of Louisville declared that although juvenile court laws are state-wide in their application there is great inequality in their actual operation; that, whereas, we had specific instances of the successful operation of courts in large cities, practically nothing had been done to develop the court in rural communities; and that in any appraisal which we made of the work of the court we certainly would have to consider this part of it as on the debit side; that it was up to the judges, as well as the lay workers, to attack this question seriously.

Judge Baker of Boston spoke on the separation between the social and judicial functions of the court. Summing up, he said that the tendency today was to divorce the control of probation officers in their case supervision from the court, leaving the judges to pass solely on jurisdiction facts. The discussion brought to light two methods of solving the problem of the rural community: first, the county system, in which the judges appoint probation officers in their districts, and second the State Board of Control, which appoints all rural probation officers and supervises their work.

The consideration of Social Legislation as Suggested by Probation Work led by Mr. Fullerton of St. Louis, brought out the fact that the courts are

really only makeshifts and the result of a bad social system; that we ought to look forward to a decreasing amount of delinquency as the result of better economic, recreational and institutional facilities. One method of securing this utopia will be through social legislation along these lines.

At the luncheon for women probation officers Mrs. Falconer presided. Maude E. Miner of New York and Julia C. Lathrop of Washington both sounded a new note in criminal procedure—that today we are not leaving our criminal courts entirely in the hands of police and prosecuting officials but are beginning to study the social surroundings of all offenders, and that for women offenders women officials are needed.

Hastings H. Hart made so interesting a usually dry subject, the Record and Report Standard, that more attended this meeting than any meeting of the conference.

The conference appointed a special committee to study the condition of the rural community and to report at the next meeting on the advisability of paying a field man who could intelligently direct the work of both research and education on the need of the courts for such communities.

Charity Officials

The American Association of Officials of Charity and Correction held a two days session in Memphis, preceding the National Conference of Charities and Correction.

This association appeals to members and officers of state boards of control, state boards of charity and superintendents of institutions under their administration and supervision; also to the officers, superintendents and boards of all private institutions which receive public aid or are under the supervision of state authority. Its policy of confining itself to practical, everyday problems of administration and supervision, is proving popular, and for next year it has been decided to amplify this policy, so that all formality of program will be dispensed with and the sessions left entirely in the hands of the members present.

Accordingly, for each session, there will be submitted one question with informal introduction by two leaders, after which all the time will be devoted to interchange of ideas. The subjects, it has been stipulated, must strictly concern administration and supervision.

The next meeting will be held in Baltimore, Md., on the two days preceding the opening of the National Conference.

Joseph P. Byers of New Jersey and Robert W. Kelso of Massachusetts are the new president and secretary.

The meeting in Memphis was characterized by several subjects which in late years have been little considered in national gatherings. One was Kitchen Organization and Economy, by Charles S. Pitcher, steward of the Kings Park, N. Y., State Hospital, whose paper is of such practical importance and value that it is already in general demand throughout the United States. Helen Sinclair contributed a distinctive paper

in her discussion of the organization of a nursing service in a state hospital. An afternoon spent on poor relief and its allied phases, under the leadership of Amos W. Butler, was remarkably out of the beaten path. A standard system of accounting and a support or pay-patient department in state institutions, the first by Richard W. Wallace of New York, and the second by H. H. Shirer of Ohio, attracted attention because they are live subjects in every state organization.

Under correction, a State Penal System and a Wage System for Prisoners, particularly the technique of administration and supervision, afforded new opportunities for those present to learn and exchange ideas.

The president's annual address, by A. L. Bowen of Illinois, was a plea for the professionalization of the administration and supervision of state and private charities, and a continuity in service of members of boards and superintendents of institutions. He presented figures, showing that the national charitable, correctional and penal service has property worth a billion and a half dollars, expends at least \$300,000,000 a year and is caring for nearly half a million inmates, while the appropriations of taxpayers' money for strictly state charitable and correctional purposes amount to \$100,000,000 annually.

Settlements

To provide a common ground on which different classes in the community may look at things from each other's points of view—such has been from the beginning a fundamental aim of the social settlement. At the Memphis meeting of the National Federation of Settlements this spirit was applied to elements within the settlements' own circle. For the gathering drew together, in frank and fair discussion, settlement residents and members of settlement boards of trustees to consider their relations to each other.

Although the discussion was occasioned by an acute situation in the University Settlement in New York—in which the body of residents, going over the head resident, contended that they should have representation on the council, joined the association, elected one of their number to the council, were then told that they were "insubordinate," and went on what amounts to a strike—there was no display of bitterness or intolerance on the part of the member of the council and the resident who were present from this settlement. The generous effort to find the right basis of relationship and the good fellowship which prevailed showed finely the real settlement spirit.

It was clear that in such settlements as have grown up around a big personality looked up to by both board and residential group, the problem of control and administration is simple, while difficulties tend to arise when such a personality is not a factor. All agreed that when "absentee trustees" undertake too detailed control of the activities of the settlement and its residents the result is most unfortunate.

The danger of making a settlement too institutional, stifling individual initiative and the spirit of personal relationship with the neighborhood, was squarely faced. The growth of a "plant" and the consequent "property care" by trustees to see that the plant is used as the donors wish, was frankly regarded as often inimical to the development of the settlement ideal. "A settlement can be organized to death," said one head resident.

The feeling was expressed by an unexpectedly large proportion of those who took part in the conference that the settlement of the near future would have no plant at all but would consist of a group of people living in a home-like way near some school social center or similar public institution, devoting themselves to neighborhood leadership and helping to put the social facilities of the community to the widest and wisest use. The executive committee of the federation was instructed by a resolution to embody in the program for next year topics concerning the administration of settlements and the community function which they should have in view of the increasing public provision of facilities for social welfare.

The fundamental non-sectarian basis of a settlement was strongly reasserted and many insisted that so-called settlements which exist for a proselyting or propaganda purpose should take a different name.

Methods of money raising and also training of residents by the head resident were also considered.

Charity Organization Societies

The meetings of the American Association of Societies for Organizing Charity at Memphis were unusually interesting in that a larger number of secretaries and workers from the advance lines in the South and Southwest were present than ever before.

James P. Kranz, general secretary of the Memphis Associated Charities, discussed the question of the southern society and the Negro. In every southern city the Negro population is proportionately large, ranging from 20 per cent to 50 per cent. No southern society can afford to ignore so large a bulk of its population.

For two years Memphis has operated a Negro auxiliary known as the Colored Federated Charities. This has a board of Negro directors, which is practically a committee of the Associated Charities, and its own committees and workers.

The independent Negro organization has inherent weaknesses in that most Negro organizations split along the lines of finances, church ambitions, or lack of confidence in one another. All of these are eliminated in the Memphis plan in that the Associated Charities controls all of these three points of possible disagreement.

The other plans of using white workers or Negro workers with no colored board are weak in that the Negro citizens as a people take no interest in the work. In every city in the South where

there is no Negro board, no money is raised by the Negroes for general support, but in Memphis the Negroes in the past two years have raised \$2,500 and have 116 different subscribers. The Negroes meet one-fourth of the cost of operating the Negro department.

Fred S. Hall, associate director of the Charity Organization Department of the Russell Sage Foundation, presented a much discussed paper on The Financing of Our Societies from the Point of View of Salesmanship.

The annual report of the general secretary took the form of presenting some of the unusual family problems which had been presented in unorganized communities, problems which no amount of social change could possibly affect, which required organization and steady intelligent heart-given work over a number of years, on the part of the paid and volunteer workers. He indicated in his report that there could not be too highly trained service in the smallest cities, which demanded the best.

Some State Meetings

The second annual session of the Alabama Sociological Congress, held in Birmingham, May 3-5, resulted in four distinct social movements: a state Social Service Committee with ten locals, a state anti-tuberculosis campaign, a state child welfare movement, the establishment of a Negro section of the congress presided over by the Negroes themselves.

In addition to these results a social program for Alabama was prepared, including the following measures for proposed remedial legislation: a workman's compensation act compulsory education, new child labor laws, a law raising the age of consent to 21 years, a state health code, anti-tuberculosis legislation, equal suffrage, equitable distribution of school revenues, prison and convict probation system, remedial loan legislation, state housing code.

Two things were brought out clearly at the meeting of the third Arkansas State Conference of Charities and Corrections held at Fort Smith, May 5-6. One was the need for an institution for the feeble-minded, the other was for the better care of juvenile delinquents.

Durand Whipple of Little Rock stirred the conference to the need of immediate action by the state to provide custodial care for the feeble-minded. The hospital for the insane—known as the Hospital for Nervous Diseases—under the leadership of Dr. J. L. Greene, has taken front rank in the United States and the schools for the deaf and blind are among the best in this country, yet the feeble-minded have been so long neglected that Arkansas has now a stupendous problem.

The next meeting will be held in Pine Bluff in May, 1915. The Rev. Paul Preston, Fort Smith, was elected president and M. A. Auerbach, Little Rock, secretary.

Two matters were reported upon at the recent Delaware Social Welfare Conference which gave great satisfaction to all who were present. It may

be remembered that only a year ago Delaware passed a ten-hour law for women wage-earners. The inspector under that new law, Miss Malone, reported on its operations for the past ten months as most gratifying.

The other report referred to was on the non-support law. Many did not even know of its passage. Under it the probation officer appointed by the court has the power to commit to the county prison any man who fails to contribute to the support of his wife or children. The prison pays to the probation officer the sum of fifty cents a day for the period of his term.

Perhaps the climax of the successful conference was reached when there was advocated and actually started an organization known as a Central Bureau for Social Welfare Legislation.

Classified Advertisements

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CAPABLE, conscientious woman. Head of Settlement. Twelve years in social work. Seeks connection—willing to leave New York. Address 1250, SURVEY.

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Cornell agricultural man to instruct in farming and gardening. Practical and experienced in all phases, can take full charge of school farm and produce the best results.

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Applications for examination for this position will be received by the

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Candidates should be familiar with the laws affecting the care and relief of indigent persons and needy children in New York City, with the methods and agencies for the care and assistance of needy children, the sick and the poor, and with the present work and historical growth of both public and private agencies and institutions for the care and relief of such persons. Experience or special training in connection with charitable institutions, hospital social service, societies for the relief of the poor in their homes, or for aiding or protecting children, or training along similar lines, is desirable and will be given weight. Acquaintance with some standard writings on some of these subjects is expected.

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(continued from page 239.)

months to put nurses in the field.

Dr. L. R. Williams, deputy-commissioner of health of New York state, gave an interesting statistical study of the rural and urban death rate of New York which apparently showed that while the city rate is declining, the rural death rate is increasing. The recent New York Legislature, at the instance of the State Grange, passed a law providing for special rural sanitation in which the rural nurse was to be a factor, but the appropriation to put this law into effect has been held up by the governor. In the discussion, Prof. W. K. Tate of Peabody College suggested that the higher death rate in the country might result in some degree from the exodus of young people to the city, leaving at home the old folks and babies, with their higher mortality.

Dr. Carrie Weaver Smith, of Dallas, thought that quite likely the large number of doctors from poorly equipped colleges is responsible for the undue death rate, particularly among young children. The country districts, she said, had more than a fair share of graduates of the B and C classes of medical colleges.

The public health discussion was continued in a paper on what the chairman called the Bookkeeping of Humanity, that is, The Needs and Present Status of Birth Registration, by Dr. Cressy L. Wilbur, formerly chief of the Bureau of Vital Statistics of the United States Census, now the chief statistician of the New York Board of Health. He stated that the recording of the birth of the child is the first point of attack in the prevention of disease, for unless the health authorities know of the existence of the infant, no specific steps may be taken to guard it against the numberless dangers which threaten its feeble hold on life. For it is more dangerous just to be an infant than it is to be afflicted with smallpox or typhoid fever.

Curtis E. Lakeman, executive secretary of the American Society for Control of Cancer, discussed Cancer as a Social Problem. He said in view of the fact that recent statistics show that there is a serious growth and spread of cancer, such an organization as he represented, for a study of its causes and best methods of control and cure, was distinctly worth while. Cancer is without parallel among human ailments. It is the most ancient recorded disease, and the most universally fatal to mankind. There is no certain cure except in its earliest beginnings. The cause of cancer is still in the dark, but many significant facts are available. Continued irritation has a marked causative influence, as is shown by the groin cancer of sailors and chimney sweeps, and cases among the operatives of sulphuric acid and ammonia plants. Environment also seems to have a marked influence.

The statistics for 1913 show the highest cancer rate on record. It is therefore a public health problem of the first magnitude, especially since a large proportion of cases are attacked in the most useful period of life.

INFORMATION DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but membership is not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. *Always enclose postage for reply.*

Children

CHILD LABOR—National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

CHILD HELPING—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence, printed matter and counsel relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS—National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth ave., New York. Charles F. Powlison, Gen. Sec'y, Anna Louise Strong, Director of Exhibits. Bulletins covering Results, Organization, Cost, Construction, etc., of Child Welfare Exhibits. Will assist cities in organization and direction. Exhibit material to loan.

CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE—American Assoc. for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knapp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request. Traveling Exhibit. Urges prenatal instruction; adequate obstetrical care; birth registration; maternal nursing; infant welfare consultations.

Health

SCHOOL HYGIENE—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., Dr. Henry M. Bracken, Chairman State Board of Health, St. Paul, Minn. Sec'y., Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York. Yearly congresses and proceedings.

MENTAL HYGIENE—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City. Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

PUBLIC HEALTH—American Public Health Association, Pres., Wm. C. Woodward, Washington; Sec'y., S. M. Gunn, Boston. Founded for the purpose of advancing the cause of public health and prevention of disease. Five sections: Laboratory, Vital Statistics, Municipal Health Officers, Sanitary Engineering and Sociological. Official organ American Journal of Public Health, \$3.00 a year, published monthly. 3 months' subscription, 50 cents. Address 755 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

SEX HYGIENE—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies. Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Object: to stimulate the extension of public health nursing; to develop standards of technique; to maintain a central bureau of information. Publications: Pub. Health Nursing Quarterly, \$1.00 per year, and bulletins. Address Ella Phillips Crandall, R. N. Exec. Sec., 54 East 34th St., New York City.

LIFE EXTENSION INSTITUTE, Inc., E. E. Rittenhouse, Pres. Gives life extension service to subscribers. Service No. 1 \$3.00 a year; Service No. 2 \$5.00 a year. Consists of periodic health examinations, inspection service, and health bulletins on disease prevention. Head office 25 West 45th St., New York City. Phone—Bryant 1997—1998.

NATIONAL HEALTH—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Exec. Sec., Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

TUBERCULOSIS—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

SOCIAL HYGIENE—The American Social Hygiene Association (Inc.), 105 W. 40th St., New York. Division Offices: Chicago, 1632 McCormick Building; San Francisco, Examiner Building. Full information on request. Individual and society membership. The Association is organized to promote sound sex education, the reduction of venereal diseases and the suppression of commercialized vice. Executives, James B. Reynolds, Counsel; William F. Snow, M.D., General Secretary.

CANCER—American Society for the Control of Cancer, 289 Fourth Ave., New York City. Curtis E. Lakeman, Exec. Sec'y. To disseminate knowledge concerning symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publications free on request. Annual membership dues \$5.

Employment Exchange

SOCIAL WORKERS' EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE—The Department for Social Workers of the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations registers properly qualified men and women for positions in social, religious and civic work. The needs of organizations seeking workers are given careful and prompt attention. Emma P. Hirth, Manager, 130 East 22d Street, New York City.

Libraries

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION—Furnishes information about organizing libraries, planning library buildings, training librarians, cataloging libraries, etc. *A. L. A. Booklist*, a monthly annotated magazine on book selection, is a valuable guide to the best new books. List of publications on request. George B. Utley, Executive Secretary, 78 E. Washington St., Chicago.

Aid for Travelers

AID FOR TRAVELERS—The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex. For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Sec'y., 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

Remedial Loans

REMEDIAL LOANS—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 130 E. 22nd St., N. Y. Arthur H. Ham. Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

Probation

PROBATION—National Probation Association, Municipal Courts Building, St. Louis, Mo. Hugh Fullerton, Sec'y. Advice and information; literature; directory of probation officers; annual conference. Membership, One Dollar a year.

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June 6, 1914

Volume XXXII, No. 10

THE SURVEY

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WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 10

Contents

June 6, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

FULL SATURDAY HOLIDAY FOR RETAIL CLERKS	249
THE CARNEGIE BALANCE SHEET OF WAR	249
A PRISON PLANNING TO PREVENT CRIME	250
THE FEEBLE-MINDED WOMAN OF CHILD-BEARING AGE	251
SOME VITAL TOPICS AT THE GOVERNORS' CONFERENCE	251
THE COLORADO WAR INTERRUPTS INQUIRY INTO JURISDICTIONAL DISPUTES, John A. Fitch	252

CONTRIBUTED ARTICLES

LAND-LOCKED DISASTER	"Slocum"	253
THE MAKING OF A RUSSIAN REVOLUTIONIST	Winthrop D. Lane	257
PHILANTHROPY AND BUSINESS	Edward T. Devine	263
POEMS BY MORRIS ROSENFELD—Metrical translations from the Yiddish by Rose Pastor Stokes and Helen Frank		266
WIDOWS' FAMILIES	William H. Matthews	270
"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"—VIII. FIRST EXPERIENCES IN THE LEGISLATURE	Albion Fellows Bacon	276
UNEMPLOYMENT INSURANCE IN FRANCE	Katharine Coman	281
THE WRITING OF SOCIAL POETRY	Charles Wharton Stork	283

EDITORIALS

A MAKER OF AMERICANS	Jane E. Robbins	285
PREPARE VERSUS REPAIR	Stephen S. Wise	286
DRAFTED, a Poem	Sarah N. Cleghorn	287

JOTTINGS

291

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THE SURVEY is a weekly journal of constructive philanthropy, founded in the 90's by the Society Organization Society of the City of New York. The first weekly issue of each month appears as an enlarged magazine number.

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The GIST of IT—

JACOB A. RIIS died May 26. An appreciation of his work by Jane E. Robbins, an old-time fellow worker on New York's East Side. Page 285. A plan to name the new seaside park after him. Page 249.

THE wreck of the Titanic put the safety-at-sea bill half through Congress. Will the sinking of the Empress of Ireland in landlocked waters make law of it? Page 253.

WHAT adequate pensions mean to some widows in the care of the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. The association plans a relief budget of almost a quarter million dollars. Page 370.

THEY who have seen ideal beauty can hardly be satisfied with moral ugliness and social injustice," declares Charles Wharton Stork in urging that the writing of social poetry be encouraged. Page 283.

FROM a peasant girl in the Russian pale to one of the most feared of the revolutionists is the dramatic history of Marie Sukloff, now in this country after her second escape from Siberia. THE SURVEY gives in this issue the first detailed account of the life of this twenty-eight-year-old girl. Page 257.

BUSINESS has become more human and humane, said Edward T. Devine to an audience at the National Conference of Charities last month, but no amount of "mitigation by philanthropy" will make it an adequate safeguard for human interests. There must be sustained and effective participation—not by sufferance but by established custom—of industrial workers in determining the conditions of their work. Page 263.

THE story of Mrs. Bacon's fight for better housing in Indiana at last brings her to the Legislature and to her first speech before a legislative committee—with its results. Page 376.

FLASHES from the poetry of Morris Rosenfeld. Page 266.

IN France, the land of *la petite industrie* and of a slowly-increasing population, unemployment is a less frequent and less discouraging phenomenon than in England or the United States, says Katharine Coman in the eighth of her articles. Page 281.

AFTER much nagging by the Consumers' League, seven of New York's largest mercantile establishments will this year give their employes a full holiday with pay on Saturday during July and August. Page 249.

THE Carnegie report on the Balkan wars, in which all the belligerents are condemned. Page 249.

WHERE to look for the feeble-minded woman of child-bearing age. Page 251.

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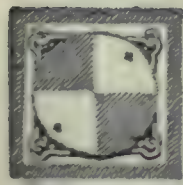
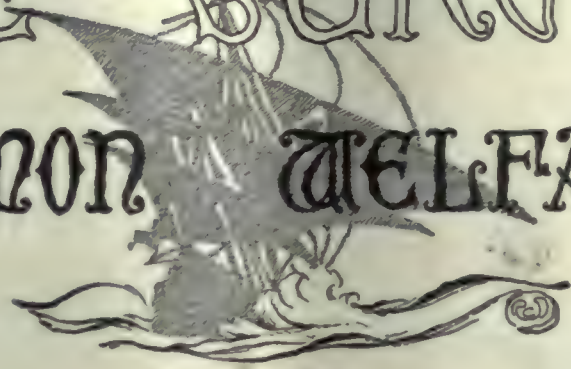
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THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



FULL SATURDAY HOLIDAY FOR RETAIL CLERKS

TUCKED IN among the advertisements of white goods, parasols and summer silks, in the New York newspapers, there has been an important notice the past week affecting thousands of department store clerks.

This notice announces that seven of the largest mercantile establishments in the city—Altman's, Lord and Taylor's, McCreery's, Vantine's, Bonwit-Teller's, Franklin Simon's and Wanamaker's—will for the first time give their employes an entire holiday with pay on Saturdays during July and August. Oppenheim, Collins & Company will close on Saturdays during August. In addition, each of these stores gives vacation with pay to employes who have been with them a certain length of time, usually one year or over. Another department store, James A. Hearn & Son, has closed its doors on Saturday for fourteen years, but in this case the custom has taken the place of a paid vacation.

The Consumers' League of New York city has been bringing pressure to bear for many years that the Saturday half holiday now granted in the big stores might be made a Saturday whole holiday. They pointed to the Hearn store as a successful example of the new policy; they laid stress on the dull business season in the Fifth avenue stores during July and August; most of all they contended that the relaxation from work for two consecutive days and the extended opportunity for rest and recreation during the hot summer months would react upon the efficiency of the workers.

But nobody dared go first. "If they'll do it across the street, we'll do it," said the managers and then they waited for the other fellow.

This year the persistent efforts of the Consumers' League have borne results. Co-operation in place of competition has started the ball rolling and it is believed that other stores in New York city and elsewhere will follow.

"How do we like it?" said the neckwear clerk. "Say, how would anyone like to wake up some morning and remember they can go to sleep again—and get paid for it, too?"

TO NAME A PARK FOR JACOB RIIS

Commissioner John A. Kingsbury of the New York City Department of Public Charities has started a movement to change the name of Telawana Park at Rockaway Beach to Jacob A. Riis Park.

It seemed to him more appropriate that this stretch of shore should perpetuate the name of Mr. Riis, who had given unsparing devotion to its establishment, than that of Chief Telawana, "the last of the Rockaways." Moreover, in all the parks in New York there is no monument or credit given to the man who, perhaps more than any other citizen, drove to plant bits of country in the crowded city districts.

The movement to rename Telawana Park has already brought response. The Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor and other organizations have adopted resolutions favoring the project. The city authorities will be asked to take action.

"Don't let any slip occur in bringing Rockaway Park to the poor 'kiddies' in the tenements, and particularly to the tiny cripples," said Jacob Riis to Commissioner Kingsbury just before he left New York on his last lecture trip.

For eight years Mr. Riis urged that his little playmates, the "children of the slums," were the lawful owners of the sand and sea and sunshine at Rockaway. Then, in 1912 the city of New York purchased the strip of land about a mile long running from Jamaica Bay to the ocean. Part of this has been reserved for public institutions and a public bathing beach. The rest is to be a seaside park with tennis courts, ball grounds and play fields.

THE CARNEGIE BALANCE SHEET OF WAR

TIT FOR TAT, according to the report of the Balkan Commission of Inquiry, has been the deadly policy whereby the nationalities of the Balkan peninsula have been mutually slaughtered and pillaged in the recent wars.

The report, based on corroborated testimony, on the study of documents and on personal observation, is submitted by the Division of Intercourse and Education of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace. In July, 1913, this division constituted itself an International Commission of Inquiry to study the causes and effects of the Balkan wars. Baron d'Estournelles de Constant, senator of France and representative from France at the Hague Conferences of 1899 and 1907, was appointed president of the commission. Samuel T. Dutton, of Teachers' College, New York, was the American representative.

The conclusions of the commission condemn all. "There was," declares the report, "no clause in international law applicable to land war and to the treatment of the wounded which was not violated, to a greater or less extent, by all the belligerents." The documents of the Bulgarians alone, show that in the war of the allies some little effort was made by heads of the army corps to stop crime against laws and customs of war.

"Dum-dum" bullets which expand when striking the body and deform the wound were used, the flag of truce was violated in several instances, there were cases of bombardment of undefended places, the inviolability of hospitals was abused by all and many prisoners of war were killed and pillaged.

A clause in the international treaty governing war guaranteed by the Convention of the Hague 1907 and signed by all the belligerents, states that "family and home rights, life of the individual (non-combatant) and private property, and religious convictions are to be respected." Yet women of all ages, lit-



Courtesy Rev. L. D. Woodruff, Philippiopolis

ENTRIES FOR STRUMITZA ON THE BALANCE SHEET OF WAR

The springs and some fountains in Strumitza were left unravaged by the Greeks. About one-third of the houses in the town had been demolished after the signing of the treaty of Bucharest, when the Rev. W. W. Cooper, an American missionary from Salonica, came riding in on a donkey covered

with the American flag, and ordered the Greek commander to stop. In this way part of Strumitza was saved.

The children are Bulgarian fugitives from Macedonia. The fathers of many were tortured and killed; their mothers and sisters were raped by the soldiers.

the girls of 9 and old grandmothers of 90, were outraged by the invading armies; goods and property were plundered, and religious conversion was forced at the point of the bayonet.

The report points to the fact that the reflex psychological effect of such crimes against justice and humanity is felt long after the deed itself is forgotten. The murder of 50 persons in one house will undoubtedly warp forever the mind of the 9 year old child, Chrisanthe Audon, who survived the slaughter. The wholesale maltreatment of women, the supreme intolerance, paralleled only in times of the Spanish inquisition, the blow at education and free thought, the demoralizing and unproductive life of the barracks, all these things the report enumerates as adding to the social confusion in the Balkans.

"The extreme barbarity of some episodes," it states, "was a local circumstance which has its root in Balkan history. But the main fact is that war suspended the restraints of civil life, inflamed the passions that slumber in time of peace, destroyed the natural kindness between neighbors and set in its place the will to injure. That is everywhere the essence of war."

The revolting scenes of torture, flames and outrage are followed in the report by a rolling up of figures which in a less dramatic way unfold their stolid, convincing story of the hideous consequences of war. Forty-four thousand, eight hundred and ninety-two dead, 7,824 missing, 104,582 wounded is Bulgaria's cost in human life; 22,000 dead, 25,000 wounded is Serbia's. There are no figures for Greece, Montenegro or Turkey; but in each the totals run into the thousands. Nor do the records in-

clude the victims of epidemics or the hoards of innocent babies, women and peaceful farmers sacrificed.

The property loss is also incomplete. It cannot account for those intangible items, the slackening of production, the suspension of debts, the loss of rents, the business failures, the withdrawal of credit. The only gauge is one of big national estimates. The Bulgarian bank deposits dropped one-third in value from July, 1912, to October, 1912; the receipts of the Bulgarian railways amounting to nearly fr. 30,000,000 from September, 1911, to September, 1912, became non-existent in 1913. The Bulgarian debt has risen during the war about fr. 395,000,000 and in Greece the national debt will be doubled.

Behind these imposing totals lies the real distress caused by the war, the poverty of the farmer whose land has been ravaged, the poverty of the family whose breadwinner is lost or crippled for life, the poverty of the 300,000 Macedonian refugees driven from their homes into Bulgaria and seeking succor of the parishes and the state.

"If," writes Nicholas Murray Butler, president of Columbia University, and acting director of the Carnegie Endowment for International Peace, in discussing the motives for the inquiry, "the minds of men can be turned, even for a short time, away from passion, from race antagonism and from natural aggrandizement to a contemplation of the individual and national losses due to war and to the shocking horrors which modern warfare entails, a step and by no means a short one will have been taken toward the substitution of justice for force in the settlement of international differences."

A PRISON PLANNING TO PREVENT CRIME

THE FIRST STEP in what is described as a program to step outside of the prison walls and meet crime on its own ground—in the midst of society—has been taken by the management of the state prison at Jackson, Mich. An extension work department has been organized with the three-fold purpose of keeping young men out of prison, of aiding paroled prisoners to meet the terms of their paroles and of preventing discharged prisoners from coming back.

Those responsible for the plan liken it to the extension department of a university in that its method will be to go out among the people of the state, instructing them and arousing them to a sense of social responsibility.

Michigan has not been noted for quick acceptance of humanitarian penology. This latest move is significant in that it is conceived and executed by a prison, and its opportunity lies in the fact that the state has no outside agency attempting these objects.

Four years ago Jackson prison was called one of the worst managed penal institutions in the country. In 1909 the Legislature abolished the contract labor system and all but one of the pending contracts at Jackson expired July 1, 1912. The state account system of prison industry came in.

One of the next improvements at Jackson was the establishment, under the régime of Warden Nathan F. Simpson, of a grade and high school department under the direction of the state superintendent of public instruction. The school offers a diploma to prisoners who complete its course and they are then

eligible to enter the freshman class of any college in the state.

Warden Simpson then discovered that the average age of his prisoners is shifting downward. Ten years ago it was twenty-eight; today it is twenty-three. This seemed to indicate lax parental and social influences. Moreover, the management discerned that the attitude of society toward the ex-prisoner is such that he is almost compelled to find his associates among criminals.

In the belief that society must be sharply brought to a sense of its own responsibility, the extension work department was started a few weeks ago. Part of the announced plan is to organize each community to care for its wayward youth and to receive back its paroled and discharged men. The prison will send its chaplain, E. H. Lougher, and other agents into the various communities to lecture on the causes of crime and to effect local organizations auxiliary to the extension department.

Each organization, it is planned, will be induced to study its local conditions, to prevent childhood from coming in contact with such influences as lead to wrong-doing, to save wayward youth from ever coming to prison, and to provide real friends for the man who has learned the lesson of prison life and is anxious to begin life anew."

THE FEEBLE-MINDED WOMAN OF CHILD-BEARING AGE

WHERE is the feeble-minded woman of child-bearing age, not in an institution, to be found? On what basis is she "floating" in the social milieu?

Out of 3,300 cases of suspected mental defect examined at the New York Clearing House for Mental Defectives from January 1, 1913, to February 28, 1914, 474 were women over sixteen. A study of 281 of these women made by Dr. Max G. Schlapp, director of the clearing house, and Leta S. Hollingworth, psychologist to the clearing house, classifies 113 of them as morons (the highest grade of feeble-minded), 105 imbeciles, 26 primary epileptics, 22 moral imbeciles and 15 idiots.

Ninety-four of the 281 were, when referred to the clearing house, living at home, assisting in simple tasks about the house. This is the largest occupational group. Sixty-seven, the second largest group, were in domestic service, employed chiefly by private families, cheap hotels and boarding houses. Twenty-one were engaged in simple factory operations. Twenty were living in orphan asylums, refuges, reformatories, or other institutions. Seventeen are declared to have been prostitutes. The remaining sixty-two were found in eleven different occupations.

These facts reveal strikingly the menace to the community of the feeble-minded woman of child-bearing age. More than half were of so high a grade



A BLIND TITANIA, QUEEN OF THE FAIRIES

A Midsummer Night's Dream was given this year in the dramatic work of the Pennsylvania Institution for the Instruction of the Blind, at Overbrook.

The institution's report holds that the drama not only makes the institution known, but clears up the old impression that it is a "blind asylum" while in reality it is "a boarding school for boys and girls who happen to be blind."

Most important of all, it gives self-confidence to blind pupils, helps them to get around and often completely transforms those who are slow to hear and to observe.

that their defectiveness went long unsuspected. And the greatest number surviving on any one economic basis were found in family life, able to care for their own immediate personal needs, performing simple household tasks and taking care of children.

One hundred thirty-two of the total are declared to have had immoral relations; fifty others were suspected. Thirty-seven were unmistakably afflicted with venereal disease.

Left to their own devices, these women were rapidly adding to the number of feeble-minded in the community. Eighty-nine illegitimate children were found; how many could not be found is a matter of guess. Sixteen were illegitimately pregnant when examined. Forty-six legitimate children were located, making a total of 135 known offspring. The average mental age of the mothers of illegitimate children was nine years.

It would be futile, declare the authors of this study, to indicate item by item what these defective women have cost the community.

SOME VITAL TOPICS AT THE GOVERNORS' CONFERENCE

WHEN the Governors' Conference comes together for its seventh annual meeting in Madison, Wis., June 5-9, it will be the first time that it has met in the central part of the United States.

Two sessions are to be given to a discussion of the uniformity of safety and sanitation laws for places of employment.

Governor O'Neal, of Alabama, will present to the conference the report of the Committee on Rural Credits. Discussion of the state control of natural resources will be opened by Governor Spry, of Utah.

One of the important subjects of the conference will be the uniformity of laws fixing the conditions to be met by foreign corporations before doing business in a state. The discussion on it will be opened by Governor Miller, of Delaware. Administrative problems to receive discussion are extradition and the submission of the governor's recommendations in bill form.

THE COLORADO WAR INTERRUPTS INQUIRY INTO JURISDICTIONAL DISPUTES—BY JOHN A. FITCH

PROBING THE CAUSES OF UNREST—IV

WHEN THE Commission on Industrial Relations renewed its hearings last week its purpose was to inquire into jurisdictional disputes, boycotts on materials, and arbitration in the New York building trades. Instead of the testimony that had been planned, nearly all of Wednesday and Thursday was devoted to dramatic recitals of events in Colorado by actual participants in them.

The regular program involved a rumor that an agreement exists between New York contractors and some of the unions that effectively shuts out competition from other cities in the building line. The contractors in the agreement are supposed to employ only members of New York locals, and the New York locals are supposed to refuse to handle certain kinds of material not made in New York and also to refuse to work for outside contractors.

If such a contract exists no one would admit it on the witness stand. There is a restrictive agreement between the marble workers and their employers, under which the men refuse to set marble not cut under union conditions. The employers declare this a reasonable stand inasmuch as it tends to protect the standards of the industry.

T. E. Carpenter, who represents in New York a Pittsburgh firm manufacturing kitchen appliances and refrigerators, stated that he had had frequent trouble with the sheet metal workers, when installing material in New York. Once, he said, a business agent of the union served notice on the firm that it would have to erect a plant in New York in order to have its materials installed without trouble. Prior to this the New York union had compelled the firm to unionize its Pittsburgh plant.

A representative of the union then took the stand and admitted that he had suggested that it would be a good thing if this Pittsburgh firm would open a New York plant. He denied, however, that he had insisted upon it. He declared that 95 per cent of the sheet metal workers of the country lived in New York and vicinity and that he was serving their interests in trying to get plants to locate in New York. It would be advantageous for the manufacturers, too, he said, because it would standardize their labor costs.

The lowest initiation fee charged by a New York local in the building trades is \$21, in the case of carpenters. If a member leaves the union it costs him \$10 more than that to get back. The fee is \$25 with the structural iron workers and the marble workers. The sheet metal workers charge a fee equivalent to 100 hours work, \$62.50. The Tile Layers' Union appears to have the highest fee of all. A candidate coming

from the helpers' local gets off for \$100, half of which is paid by the local from which he comes. Outsiders have to pay \$200 for the privilege of laying tile in Greater New York.

An interesting witness was Dominick D'Allessandro, president of the Hod Carriers' and Building Laborers' Union, sometimes referred to as "the count" in labor circles. He wears a gold medal given him by the king of Italy, in recognition of his services in fighting the padroni system, and he has the right to print on his card the title "Cavalier."

The building laborers in Chicago, 15,000 strong, belong to D'Allessandro's union. When they finish at one job they go freely to another. It is not so in New York, the commission was told. There are no less than six local unions of building laborers in New York, each doing different and specialized work. No laborer can go from one job to another in a different line of work without joining another union; he needs six different union cards, each costing \$25.

At this point the routine testimony was broken by Hannah Thomas and Pearl Jolley, wives of Colorado strikers who had come East with Judge Lindsey of Denver to see President Wilson.

Both the Colorado women were living in the Ludlow tent colony at the time of the battle of April 20. Mrs. Thomas was arrested by the militia in Trinidad and was held in jail eleven days. When released, she declared, it was without a trial and she was never informed of the nature of the charge against her. This statement was contradicted by a later witness.

Mrs. Jolley told the story of the Ludlow battle as she saw it. She declared that the militia had started the trouble by deliberately attacking the colony. She was in the tent colony all day, and testified that the firing upon the tents was incessant although the men had gone out into the hills. Bullets fell all around her and the heel of her shoe was shot away. A young boy in the colony was shot and killed. Later the Greek leader Tikas was captured by the militia and killed by them.

While Mrs. Thomas and Mrs. Jolley were testifying it was discovered that Edward J. Boughton, major and judge advocate of the Colorado militia, was in the city. He was subpoenaed and went on the stand on Thursday morning.

Major Boughton declared that an attack was made on the militia while Tikas was conferring with Major Hamrock of the militia. There was much excitement that morning apparently and each side suspected that the other was about to make an attack. Tikas had secured from his men a promise not to open hostilities until he could talk with

the major. While he was engaged in the conference, Major Boughton said, the strikers, misunderstanding a maneuver of the militia, marched to a point of vantage and opened the attack. Later, when Tikas found he could not stop them, the major said he was seen to join his men.

The fighting lasted all day. Once the militia were compelled to abandon a wounded comrade in order to escape a fierce attack from the Greeks. Later, when they recovered the ground, the wounded man was found to have been shot several times and his body shamefully mutilated.

When at night the militia finally took the camp, they found out for the first time, he said, that there were women and children in it. They had seen the women escaping early in the day to an arroyo at the rear and supposed they were all gone. They rescued all they could find, he said, although under fire from the strikers in the hills. It was two days later that the pit was discovered containing the bodies of two women and eleven children who, the major declared, the evidence proved had died of suffocation. He admitted that the soldiers had spread the fire in the camp and burned all of the tents to the ground.

Major Boughton admitted, also, that Tikas and two other men were captured by the soldiers and that Lieut. K. E. Linderfeldt had broken the stock of his gun over Tikas' head, and that later all three prisoners were shot. It was not clear, he stated, that all were killed by the militia, but he admitted that the bullet wounds in Tikas' body were caused by the fire of the militiamen.

Major Boughton said he had been sent East by the governor of Colorado, to counteract the false statements that are being made in the press and elsewhere. He stated that he has visited 26 Broadway, the headquarters of the Standard Oil Company, but has not visited any representatives of working people.

In answer to other questions, Major Boughton stated that Troop A, which was principally involved in the Ludlow battle, was made up almost exclusively of company guards. He stated that the mine guards were a source of great irritation to the miners, but he insisted that none of them was employed prior to the beginning of the strike, apparently overlooking the fact that one of the original demands of the strikers was for the "abolition of the notorious and criminal guard system."

When Major Boughton was excused, Judge Lindsey asked if he might be heard. He launched at once into a speech denouncing the mine owners and operators of Colorado. He charged them with criminal disregard of law and with endeavoring to block all efforts to enact measures promoting social and industrial justice.

LAND-LOCKED DISASTER

Will the Wreck of the Empress of Ireland Do More Than the Sinking of the Titanic to Bring in Safety at Sea

NEARLY one thousand people went down last Friday morning with the steamship Empress of Ireland, and were drowned.

It was not in a storm that this tragedy—one of the worst in the history of navigation—occurred. The weather was good.

It was not amid the perils of the high seas, a thousand miles from help, that the ship went down. It was on the St. Lawrence river, and the shore was a mile away.

It was not for lack of means of summoning help that so many lives were lost. The wireless apparatus was in working order, messages were sent and received, boats started to the rescue from nearby points—they could not reach the ship in time.

The Empress of Ireland served well until she met the test. Then she sank in fifteen minutes. With the shore a mile away the ship could not be beached.

Two years and a month have passed since the Titanic sank in mid-ocean with the loss of 1595 passengers. In the first shock the American people with one voice called for action that would promote safety at sea. Federal legislation was proposed, and some of it enacted. Ocean steamship companies voluntarily increased their lifeboat capacity. The company owning the Titanic withdrew a sister ship from service and rebuilt her, to make her safer.

But the bill, sponsored by Senator La Follette, which would do more to promote safety on the water than anything yet done, has so far failed of passage, because of the persistent opposition of steamship interests. It is known as the seamen's bill. It is as much the passengers' bill, for its provisions aim at safety for all.

Under the impetus of the Titanic wreck it passed the House of Representatives, only to be hung up in the Senate later, when the influence of that disaster had begun to die away. It was reintroduced by Senator La Follette in the present Congress and this time the Senate passed it. Now it is again before the House. Is it to be hung up there till Congress adjourns, or will the wind which blew up a wisp of fog on the St. Lawrence last week blow good to unnamed and unnumbered somebodies?

Strong objection to the La Follette

By "Slocum"

UNDER pressure of the demand of the public for speed and size and luxury, marine engineers, builders and managers have given speed and size and luxury. Safety has been a secondary consideration, and whatever may have been done in this direction by exceptional companies has had no binding force upon those willing to take the chances of disaster and profit by them. The maritime law of liability itself has tended to aggravate the tendency to take such chances. Shipowners have failed to work out adequate safety rules just as tenement house owners failed to work out tenement regulation and factory owners the factory laws.

MEANWHILE the Seamen's Union, all but crowded to the wall in the course of the transition from sails to steam, has through Andrew Furuseth long urged upon a reluctant Congress a comprehensive scheme of safety regulation, along with labor legislation affecting conditions aboardship, and the legal rights of seamen.

THE Titanic disaster gave impetus to their movement; thereafter public interest waned and their opponents have been active in preventing the LaFollette bill from reaching a successful issue in the lower house of Congress. Meanwhile, an international treaty on safety at sea has been drafted, which lowers some of the standards now prevailing and which, if ratified by the Senate, will stay the hands of our government for the next six years.

THIS article is written by a former ship's officer, not a union member, but frankly in sympathy with the proposals of the LaFollette bill, both for safety at sea and for the regulation of labor conditions. The recurrence of another great sea disaster calls for a fresh hearing from everybody—and especially from Congress, for the proposals of the Seamen.—
EDITOR.

bill comes from the owners of boats plying on bays and inland lakes who declare that its safety provisions should not be applied to ships that do not go out of sight of land. On this point the sinking of the Empress of Ireland on the St. Lawrence River is a staggering piece of rebuttal.

What is the LaFollette bill, and what will it accomplish? The most obvious need of a passenger, when disaster overtakes a ship, is some means of escape

from the doomed craft. This is the need which the Titanic, slow-sinking in a calm sea, held up to the world. Lifeboats for all are needed, and—equally important—men who know how to lower and control them. This last was the need which the Volturno, burning in high seas, with half helpless friendly vessels standing by, set before all men. The section of the La Follette bill covering these two points reads as follows:

"*PROVIDED*, that no vessel carrying passengers, except those navigating rivers and harbors and the smaller inland lakes, as hereinbefore specified, exclusively, shall be permitted to depart from any port of the United States unless she is provided and equipped with a sufficient number of sea-worthy lifeboats to carry and transport at one time every passenger and every member of the crew licensed to be carried on board such vessel and unless she shall have a sufficient crew to man each lifeboat with not less than two men of the rating of able seamen or higher, who shall be drilled in the handling and lowering of lifeboats under rules and regulations to be prescribed by the Board of Supervising Inspectors with the approval of the Secretary of Commerce."

There is little if any opposition to a requirement of lifeboat capacity equal to the passenger capacity of the boat, for ocean-going steamships. From shipping interests on the Great Lakes, Chesapeake Bay, and other inland waters, however, there comes strenuous opposition. They declare that many of the boats plying in those waters are built for excursion purposes only, are operated only in the day time, when dangers are at a minimum and are so constructed that there is not room for a lifeboat capacity (exclusive of rafts) equal to the loads of day passengers they carry, while the expense of carrying crews to man them would be prohibitive. They state that to require them to meet the provisions of this bill will drive summer excursion business from the water.

Similar objections have been raised by owners of boats whose courses lie altogether within bays, such as the Coney Island and Atlantic Highlands steamships. The La Follette bill exempts harbor craft but does not define a harbor; and shipping interests in New York have had difficulty in getting the federal authorities to clear up the confusion as to the meaning of the term. If the boundary lines laid down in the

pilot rules issued by the Department of Commerce are to govern, these boats would be exempt. Excursion boats plying close to the shore, whether on bays, harbors or the Great Lakes are a different sort of traffic from cabin-carrying passenger boats and the apparent intention of the La Follette bill is to exclude them. They may require different safety regulation, but it should be equally rigorous.

It is difficult to see any reason for excluding Great Lake boats which ply in mid-lake. If they are unsafe when not fully equipped with lifeboats they are a public menace. There are boats running from Buffalo to Duluth, which are frequently out of sight of land, and require several days for the trip. If we refer to the excursion boats alone, there are those running from Chicago to St. Joe,

"—his action in maintaining a high speed and creating a strong draft of air from forward, sweeping the flames aft."

If lifeboats are to be of service there must be men to handle them. The bill provides that there shall be at least two able seamen for each lifeboat, and requires three years of deck service at sea or on the Great Lakes as preliminary to that rank. The shipping interests oppose this provision; they would have some of the boats manned by stokers and stewards. Yet the steward is not engaged for his physical strength. The stoker comes from the fires, from working in an atmosphere of more than 100 degrees, to face an icy wind on deck. He would be in no physical condition to handle a boat.

The opponents of the bill retort that

as overtook the Volturino and the Columbian. Any landsman is able to judge whether thirty days or six months is sufficient training for all these things.

The ship owners grant that the crew should know how to handle a lifeboat, and they recommend an examination, under the supervision of government inspectors, to determine a seaman's fitness. This, they insist, would be a better test than three years' service at sea.

The bill as originally introduced by the seamen provided an examination as an alternative to a time limit, but that feature was opposed by the commissioner of navigation. There seems to be no reason why the La Follette bill would not in addition to its other requirements permit such a test, nor why actual deck service on fishing boats, harbor craft and the like would not be recognized

THE NATIONS AND THE SEA

The International Convention on Safety of Life at Sea drawn up in London is in the hands of the United States Senate. Some question marks might be put in front of the personnel of the conference, and the lack of practical seamen among them is a singular omission. Moreover when thirteen nationalities are gathered together to consider matters of marine interest and welfare, it means thirteen different viewpoints, and thirteen compromises before a general conclusion can be reached.

The convention does two things, undesirable and wrong. It first lowers some of the existing American requirements, such as the wireless provisions. The great boon radio-telegraphy has been to seafaring men and to passengers is well known to every casual newspaper reader. Monuments have been erected to record the bravery and the devotion of wireless operators. American law provides that steamers plying between ports more than 200 miles apart and having more than fifty persons on board shall have two operators and continuous service. By this international convention, only speedy vessels on intercontinental traffic are compelled to have continuous wireless watch and service.

The second and perhaps not so obvious error is the lowering of the lifeboat standards. The English law provides lifeboats for all persons on board, the La Follette bill the same; but the treaty calls for only 75 per cent, the remainder may be provided for with rafts.

But what is of more importance than either of these things is the surrender of the jurisdiction now exercised by the United States over vessels foreign and domestic in our own ports. The treaty would seal up the question of safety at sea for six years after July, 1915. That is, legislation by any country in the interval must be consistent with the terms of the convention. There may be a diversity of opinion about American-Panama toll rights. But there is not, nor should there be, any doubt about American jurisdiction over vessels in our own ports. Port authorities in America now have power to regulate in-coming and out-going foreign vessels. They can say to a captain: "Stop, your vessel is too deeply loaded; your crew is insufficient; you have too few lifeboats."

The international treaty would prevent port authorities from exercising this power with respect to safety provisions superior to the low minimums set by the treaty. The United States might pass higher and more expensive standards as to its own ships, but that would merely put such vessels at a disadvantage with the vessels of other nations. It is entirely reasonable for the nations to covenant as to the minimum safety standards which shall be enforced in all seas. But they should not tie the hands of any nation which in the name of safety may set higher standards for all vessels coming to its ports. The Titanic disaster led in two years to a revolution in safety concepts as to lifeboats. If this treaty is enacted, no lessons growing out of the disaster to the Empress of Ireland could be effectively applied until 1921.

Michigan, which cross Lake Michigan, during the season, twice each day. At the middle of the voyage they are more than an hour from land. What would happen at such a point if there were a collision, or fire broke out, and there were not enough lifeboats?

The critics of the bill would have us believe, apparently, that ships on inland waters can be run to shallow water and beached, in case of disaster. Could they beach a vessel that caught fire in the middle of one of the Great Lakes? The Empress of Ireland went down, a mile from the banks of the St. Lawrence. The captain of the General Slocum which burned ten years ago in the East River with the loss of a thousand souls tried to beach the ship—and with what result? The commission that inquired into that disaster reported as a cause of the spread of the fire:

an able seaman on a modern steamship knows no more of boats than a steward. If this is true are not the ship owners criminally negligent? Able seamen should be trained to meet an emergency.

At present anyone can be put aboard an American vessel, and called a sailor. The shipowners have contended that steam navigation has killed sailorizing and that it is a thing of the past. One such at the Senate committee hearings claimed he could make a steamboat sailor in thirty days. Another contended six months was sufficient. A steamboat sailor steers the vessel, keeps a lookout, paints and cleans woodwork, rigs stagings, slings weights, repairs awnings and deck gear, washes decks and keeps the ship clean, handles lifeboats and is supposed to be able to row and save himself and the passengers in the event of a wreck, or such a disaster

under it as well as service at sea or on the Great Lakes. The provision of an examination seems no sufficient reason, however, to shorten the time requirement. Such a test would probably be made in a quiet harbor in smooth water. It is incorrect to state that three years' service on deck at sea will not provide opportunity to gain experience in the handling of boats. There are many harbors, the world over, where ships lie safely at anchor, but where the waves are frequently high. That is true at Liverpool, in the mouth of the Mersey, it is true in San Francisco Bay, and in Hampton Roads.

England, Germany, Norway, Australia and New Zealand say three years' experience is needed to make a sailor, and they have passed laws to that effect. The provision in the La Follette bill on this subject would merely bring

us up to the standard of these countries.

Sufficient lifeboats for all and trained seamen to man them are necessary safety provisions. These will be of little avail, however, if the seamen do not understand the language spoken by their officers. The bill, therefore, provides that within five years from the passage of the act sixty-five per cent of the crew on vessels flying the American flag shall be able to understand English.

England, France, and nearly all the European maritime nations have what is popularly called a language test. The lives of the passengers and the crew often depend on a seaman's intelligent knowledge of the commands of his officers. As a proper safeguard to all on board the men who man the boats should be able to understand the language of their officers.

The manning scale, seamen's efficiency and language tests are all vitally connected from the standpoint of safety, for the deck crew man the lifeboats in case of disaster at sea, and on their skill, strength, and gallantry depend the lives of the passengers. The promoters of the bill hold that there is a further question of large public policy at stake in them.

The white men—English, American, Scandinavian, and in a measure the Latins—are forsaking the sea. The Lascars, natives of East India, Chinamen and Japanese are growing in numbers in vessels carrying passengers. The reason usually given for their presence is that white labor is not needed.

In the last analysis the real reason for the presence of Asiatics on American steamers is that they are cheap. The yellow seaman has many virtues; chiefest of all is that he costs a third less than a white sailor. In no industry has the pressure of competition by Oriental labor been felt by American workmen so keenly as in shipping. That the opposition is not confined to the men is shown by an annual report of the Imperial Merchant Service Guild, an organization of ships' officers. The following statement appears on the subject of the conduct of Chinese crews:

"Time was when an Oriental crew was looked on by captains and officers as a blessing, owing to their docility and obedience. Drunkenness was unknown, and the authority of the officers was unquestioned. But there has been a metamorphosis. From many reports received from members, Chinese crews are the principal offenders, and sundry instances of murderous assaults, insolence and insubordination have been brought to our notice during the past year; in some cases, but for the timely aid of other members of the crew, officers' lives might easily have been sacrificed. Many cases have occurred recently of mutiny with these crews on the high seas, and officers and engineers have had to resort to desperate means to defend their lives."

The promoters of the bill contend that the natives of a country have a right to a place on their own ships. Seamen are needed as a second line of defence; the United States navy is short of men. Germany can remain her navy without trouble because of her efficient training of seamen. France has a dependable supply of seamen at her command.

The opposition to the language test comes from the Pacific steamship companies who now employ Chinamen and Japanese. They declare that with the higher wages they would have to pay to English-speaking seamen, they would not be able to compete with the Japanese vessels.

The *London Times* in an editorial on the opening of the International Conference on Safety at Sea, said: "The risks of the sea are too varied and great for human ingenuity to overcome completely." True enough, legislation cannot remove the dangers; but it can minimize them. A passenger vessel with several thousand souls on board is a hotel afloat—a hotel at sea exposed to the dangers of the deep, such as fire, collision, and the unseen hazards of the sea. No complete list of the human lives lost at sea is kept anywhere. But an incomplete list shows that in ten years over 6,000 souls have been lost from passenger vessels alone.

So much for the obviously safety provisions. The bill also provides for improved conditions for the sailor. With the increase in efficiency and moral fiber that comes with economic advancement, as the history of shore crafts well demonstrates, these features also may well be regarded as safety provisions.

Briefly, the bill proposes to establish a standard of efficiency, improve the living quarters of seamen, abolish advance notes, and give the sailor a fair share of his wages upon reaching a port. The *New York Evening Post* commenting on the measure says:

"On the side of the sailor it is highly unfair that he, of all workingmen should have no more rights than a minor. He is not allowed to come and go if conditions do not appeal to him like any other laborer, and he is not permitted to possess the money he has earned except at the end of his contracted voyage, no matter how many ports he may in the meantime have visited. In fact, the seaman is scarcely a man before the law, and the very irresponsibility which these measures are intended to guard against is largely the result of such measures themselves."

Important scientific study has been given to the relationship between fatigue and efficiency. The La Follette bill seeks to prevent a seafaring man being worked whether by long hours or laborious toil up to the point that fatigue renders him inefficient. The hours a seaman must work in port is a matter the captain decides absolutely. If the

seaman refuses to work in port, he is liable to fine and punishment. The hours of officers have been regulated, so that a comparatively fresh man is on the bridge when the ship leaves port. Why should the seaman not have the same privilege? On shore there is legislation for railroad men in every state in the union, limiting their hours of work in the interest of public safety. Why are we less concerned about safety at sea? A sailor benumbed with cold and stupid for lack of sleep is a danger to navigation and passengers.

A stoker's work in the bowels of the steamer is exhausting, disagreeable and done under depressing conditions. In the hearings before the committee there was much discussion about ventilators, temperature and men collapsing through overheating. It is easy to look down from the fresh air on deck into a fire-room and theorize. Any work that uses up men as stoking does requires consideration.

One fireman's evidence before the congressional committee was convincing: "Coal is coal, and when you are shovelling it, you are shovelling it, no matter where you are." It is hard work anywhere, but when the temperature is above one hundred degrees, it is almost beyond human endurance.

What the La Follette bill proposes for the seamen is little enough. It provides a three watch system for the stokers which would involve four hours of labor followed by eight hours of rest. For the deck hands it provides "watch and watch," that is, four hours on duty followed by four hours of rest.

The worst "snag" which the seamen have encountered on the labor provisions of the bill have to do with reforms which would secure greater freedom for the men. These provisions would give seamen the right to one-half their wages in port, and abolish the advance note. The "advance note" as its name implies is a note given on a seaman's wages in advance of earning them. On American coastwise vessels, there are no advance notes. They were abolished and with their abolition went many of the abuses that had gathered round the coast seaman's life. An advance note is an invitation to rob a sailor.

A hard-up sailor can get a boarding-house master to advance him a few dollars if he will sign over to the boarding-house master his first month's wages on a ship to be found for him. The boarding-master arranges this through the "crimp," a labor broker. The crimp obtains the ship; in twenty-four hours the seaman is off to sea, his first month's wages gone. The proceeds are divided between boarding-master and crimp. Because the sailor had the power to sign away his wages, the boarding-master and the crimp were interested in him. When the sailor has no power or legal right to sign away his wages,

the waterfront parasites, crimp, boarding-masters, tailors and saloon keepers let him alone.

The offence does not usually become known until after the seaman is at sea or discharged in a foreign port. The captain of the ship, and witnesses are then beyond the jurisdiction of the courts, and have scattered to the four winds. In abolishing the "advance note," the La Follette bill is getting at the root of crimping and kindred wrongs in a sailor's life.

A sailor's wages when accumulated in the hands of the captain become then a temptation to an unscrupulous man, a whip to crack over the head of the sailor. It is a fundamental cause of desertions from foreign vessels in the ports of the United States and from American vessels in foreign ports.

Consul Mayer at Buenos Aires says:

"I attribute the unusual number of desertions to the law of December 21, 1898, which reads:

"Every seaman on a vessel of the United States shall be entitled to receive from the master of the vessel to which he belongs one-half part of the wages which shall be due him at every port where such vessel, after the voyage has commenced, shall load or deliver cargo before the voyage is ended *unless the contrary be expressly stipulated in the contract.*"

"In my opinion, which is based upon observation, if the words in italics were not in the contract, desertions would not be so numerous, for the following reasons:

"Most of the American vessels coming to this port sail from Boston, Mass. There the shipping articles are signed by the seaman before the United States shipping commissioner.

"On the front page of such articles, towards the bottom of the page, I find in almost all shipping articles the following words stamped: 'No money to be advanced during the voyage.'

"The seaman, once the vessel is in port, will ask permission from the master of the vessel to go ashore, which permission is granted for twelve hours. He will ask for some money, which is refused, the master of the vessel claiming that the shipping articles which the seaman signed provide that no money shall be advanced during the voyage. The seaman goes ashore without a dollar in his pocket. He falls in with runners of boarding houses and shipping masters, by whom he is taken care of, by being provided with liquors and eatables. In many cases the seaman gets intoxicated and does not return to his vessel, and at the expiration of the forty-eight hours from the time his permission to go ashore ceases, the master promptly reports him a deserter.

"The vessel remains in port discharging and receiving cargo for about two months, and as the seaman has little or nothing to do,—the cargo being all discharged by stevedores,—by the seaman's deserting the master or ship saves the wages, and I never knew of a mas-

ter who worried about a deserted seaman. The shipping master takes hold of the deserter and soon finds another vessel for him (not an American vessel) and collects one month's allotment for board due him by the seaman. The ship saves from two to three months' wages by the seaman deserting. The shipping articles further provide that these seamen ship for from twelve to eighteen calendar months, and the first time they learn they can draw no wages is when they ask the master for money when the vessel is in port, and it is hardly to be expected that they will stand by their ships when they can be kept out of their wages for twelve to eighteen months."

There is no moral, economic, or commercial reason why a sailor should not have his wages when they are earned. The assumption has been that accumulated wages tied a man to his ship. The withholding of a sailor's wages has never kept them on board their vessel; on the contrary it has driven thousands ashore into the clutches of the crimp, as evidenced by Consul Mayer's report. Sailors have risen in character, conduct and efficiency as they have obtained power over their own wages. The withholding of a seaman's wages is a relic of barbarism, one of the unworthy traditions of the sea. The right to half his wages in any port will solve many of the economic problems in a sailor's life, brighten his social condition, teach him to be self-reliant, wipe out the methods by which the crimp and the boarding-master get their power, and lessen the powers for oppression at the hands of unscrupulous ship-masters.

A sailor can be arrested as a deserter if he leaves his ship; no matter what the conditions are. Seaman are thus the only class in America who may be punished for the violation of a civil labor contract.

ANDREW FURUSETH ON THE EMPRESS OF IRELAND DISASTER

There is nothing in the London Convention on Safety of Life at Sea that would have prevented the disaster in the St. Lawrence River or minimized it. The Empress of Ireland was up to the London standard in construction, equipment and manning. If the convention had been in force, she would have left Quebec in exactly the same shape as she did the day before she sank, except that a lot of her waiters, cooks, coal passers, etc., would have been rechristened "certified lifeboatmen"; indeed, her crew might have been less effective by failing to understand the language of the officers. She might, under the convention, have had a crew of East Indian coolies, South African Negroes, Malays, or Chinese, to whom orders would be transmitted through interpreters. To this extent her crew, poor as it was, was above the London standards.

A deserting seaman can be held in an American prison, sentenced to a term in prison or delivered back to his ship, for the simple act of leaving the service of an employer. The treaties that give captains such power should be abolished by the usual process in such matters. A foreign sailor should have the right to leave his ship in an American port if he wants to, and claim one-half of his wages. The forfeited wages would more than compensate the owner for any trouble and expenses in supplying the place of the quitters. The passage of the La Follette bill will end this practice and make sailors free men. Our government will then cease to be a slave-catcher for foreign vessels.

What effect will this have on foreign shipping? The master of an English tramp ship signing a crew for a voyage from Hull, England, to Norfolk, Va., after the passing of this act, will be obliged to consider the conditions prevailing at his destination. At Norfolk, he would have to pay the wages in vogue at the American port, or lose his men. The Norfolk wage is probably 30 per cent greater than that of Hull, just as the cost to the American workman, ashore or aboard ship, to keep his family, is greater.

The bill would thus remove the present 30 per cent wage handicap on the American investor who wishes to put his money into an American vessel, carry American goods under his own flag, and employ American sailors at American rates. It would remove the present pressure upon American sailors to leave the sea, as a calling which a man can't follow his life through and rear a family. Wages would then be no barrier to the growth and operation of American vessels. As things now stand, the Standard Oil Company, for example, sails its fleet with few exceptions, under foreign flags in order to ship its men at the sub-American wages paid in foreign ports.

The safety provisions—setting a three years' apprenticeship to seamanship, and requiring a far greater proportion of skilled men than heretofore,—would be equally powerful in lifting the general status of the men. Individually and collectively, they would be stronger to bargain with their employers. For that reason the bill is opposed by the shipping interests. For that reason American students of what organization has meant for transportation on land, in lifting the standard of life and labor for the men who make up the railroad brotherhoods and for the families dependent on them, should favor it.

At a blow, the LaFollette bill will enhance safety at sea, remove the handicap of labor costs under which American shipping interests now suffer, and improve the conditions of sailors all over the world.

The Making of a Russian Revolutionist

An Interview with
Marie Sukloff

By *Winthrop D. Lane*

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MARIE SUKLOFF

At twenty-eight, one of the most feared of Russian Revolutionists, now in this country.

BENEATH the branches of a Russian forest, in the province of Vilna, a group of the czar's subjects are gathered under cover of a pitch black night. They have come singly and by stealth. In America the meeting would have been advertised and the place would have been a public hall, with everyone invited. But in Russia you are sent to jail for what you think.

Now in whispers, now in the louder tones of excitement, members of the group step out and address the others. We know what they are saying. One of them begins with a taunt at the autocratic power that would close their lips and bind their brains. He rushes on to a description of the condition of the Russian workingman, and we hear the equivalents for "exploited" and "disfranchised." One exclaims against the lot of the peasant, and the word "serf" comes from curled lips. Another refers, with bitter irony, to the generous "emancipation" of the peasants by Alexander II in 1861, and asks if the new extortion of the state has proved more beneficent than the old extortion of the landlord. "And remember," he shouts, "your masters may still beat you under sanction of the law."

Just beyond this circle, where the lights cannot carry, two small girls are crouching behind the trunks of trees. No one knows they are there. They have

come after the others and will leave before they disband. They are only twelve years old.

Tomorrow they will organize a similar meeting among their playmates. No one pays any attention to the actions of children; they will not have to meet at night in a forest. A neighboring field will be exclusive enough. There, in form and substance, they will reproduce the speeches of older heads, adding the humor of their own naive grappling with big words and bigger thoughts. But they, too, are in earnest.

A Refugee

One of these two young girls is now in this country. She is a refugee from Russian "justice," an escaped exile. It is only sixteen years since she first crept through the night to one of those secret gatherings, and yet in that time she has grown from an eaves-dropping child to one of the most feared revolutionists in Russia. The fiery denunciations to which she listened under the sky were the fuel which later blazed out into revolution, and when that came it found her armed, ready to add to the flames.

Twice sent to Siberia for life and twice escaped; defying the courts of law at the age of sixteen; for three years kept in solitary confinement, and for four and a half imprisoned in the stronghold of Akatui with some of the most famous rebels since the Reign of

Terror; making her way 300 miles through a Siberian winter with a three-year-old baby in her arms: these are bits of her history. Her name is Marie Sukloff. It is now two years and a half since she is said to have crept between a sentry's legs and dodged her million-eyed pursuer until the Manchurian frontier was safely crossed. She reached America six months ago. A few weeks with Jane Addams at Hull House and a few more with Lillian D. Wald at the Henry Street Settlement, New York, induced her to accept this country as her present sanctuary, and she is now living on the upper west side of New York city.

When I first saw Miss Sukloff I did not know who she was. The thing that impressed me most was her vivacity of manner; after that, her eyes. They are not what Galsworthy would call mesmerizing; they are straight, searching eyes, but kind also. Her smile is the sort that seems to light up a dark room. Her cheek bones are high, and her cheeks, in spite of prison food and hunger strikes, look fresh and healthy. Her expression is intense and earnest, the effect being heightened by a small dark braid of hair which lies upon her head like a low wreath. You do not have to talk with her long before you find yourself thinking she is beautiful. Her fingers are small, but they do not taper like an artist's. Neither are they those of

a farm laborer, though she has been one. They come to abrupt ends, so that one may imagine a similarity between her fingers and her ways of thinking.

Miss Sukloff speaks English with many apologies but understands it well. So alert is she mentally that often she grasped the meaning of my questions before they were fully phrased and answered in Russian without waiting for them to be translated.

Her Education Begins

Her appearance of kindness and sympathy does not belie such glimpses of her nature as I was privileged to obtain. At one of our interviews she discovered that the interpreter had had no breakfast and the proceedings were summarily, though graciously, adjourned. Another of her characteristics is not usually associated with persons of revolutionary views. She has an intense love of accuracy. If she is not sure about a thing she does not like to say it. Several times I asked her about distances in Europe and each time she begged that I go to a map and make certain that her figure was right before printing it.

Respect for other peoples' property is another of her traits not usually attributed to revolutionists. When our interpreter, who with her kindly agreed to go over the first draft of this article, seized an eraser and started to rub out an inaccurate sentence, Miss Sukloff snatched the eraser from his hand and, as he confessed to me later, lectured him roundly on the impropriety of tampering with another's possessions in the owner's absence!

But let us return to Vilna, where revolutionists are made. "On the banks of the Neva, the Volga, and the Vistula," writes Anatole France, "the fate of new Europe and the future of humanity are being decided." In the days when Marie Sukloff was gaining her first impressions of the tyranny of Nicholas II, the world knew little of the forces that were destined to shake his throne, and to implant new courage in the breasts of those who dreamed of freedom.

In a small village forty-five miles from the city of Vilna, in the Russian Pale, Marie was born twenty-eight years ago. Her parents were hard-working, orthodox Jews. To extract a scanty living from their farm of twenty acres used up all their energy of mind and body. Their implements were primitive and a large family, six children besides Marie, depended on their efforts. They were ignorant people, living, like all peasants, in constant fear of the government.

Marie was a frail child. A little taste of schooling gave her an appetite for more, so that she became eager for an education. But she was needed at home. There were younger children to look after, and even a little girl can do some

work in the fields. So she was taken from school.

One day she and her chum did something very wicked. They didn't know how wicked it was, but it was bad enough to add spice to dull lives. They knew that her chum's sister belonged to some sort of secret group of people who seemed to know things nobody else knew, and who circulated small pamphlets among themselves, which they guarded very carefully. Marie's chum learned where her sister kept these pamphlets and they decided to steal one and see what was in it.

The first they read contained a vivid description, in Yiddish, of the conditions of the Russian workingman. It was so interesting they stole another. The second described the serfdom of the peasants. Much of it they could verify from their own lives, and it set them thinking.

For some time they continued to steal these pamphlets, which had been printed secretly and were supposed to be kept under lock and key. Then one day their courage took a new step and they decided to go to one of those night-meetings in the woods, of which they had heard. This was more thrilling still. There they heard things which filled their thoughts in the day time, while they worked, and gave life a new color.

After Marie and her chum had listened to a few of the secret meetings in the woods, they organized their day-time imitations of them. Choosing the more adventurous among their companions, they called themselves the Jewish Little Bund, patterned after the real Bund to which the chum's sister belonged, a well-known revolutionary organization with branches in many places.

What She Read

The things they read and heard began to make them look about a little more closely at the conditions of their own life. Marie began to compare the way her parents and other poor people lived with the way the rich people in the village lived. She saw other girls going to school and not having to work as she did. At first it only made her unhappy, but presently she began to think that there was some cause back of it all.

Then some one put a book into her hand and soon Tolstoi, Turgenieff, Gogol, Goncharoff and Dostoyevsky were helping to form her ideas as to the nature of that cause.

In this way things went along for several years. Marie's parents knew she was meddling with unconventional ideas and remonstrated. But their objections never went as far as punishment, and she was not deterred.

Slowly she built up an objective view of the Russian peasant, coming to see him not as the stolid and half-imbecile adorer of czar and church which he has been so often painted for foreign eyes,

but as the oppressed and harried subject of unscrupulous autocrats. She saw his independence of the priesthood, and began to think that if he went to church with suspicious regularity it was because church was the least ugly place to go to. She saw his activity in town meeting and believed she discovered in him a genuine capacity for co-operation with his fellows. In the village commune she saw his aptitude for economic union.

The Russian Peasant

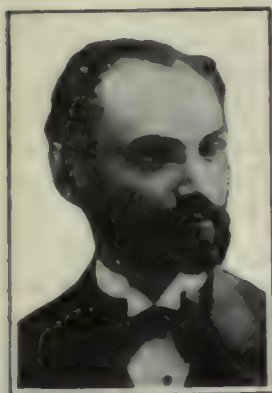
She began to realize that if he was ignorant, it was because his government kept him so. His refusal to use modern farm machinery, which is so often pointed to as indicating his mental stodginess, she began to see as mere inability to buy it. But above all, these things, she began to see the part which the half million Cossacks of the czar play in his life. Few are the villages, she learned, which have not at some time or other been beaten by these hirelings into submission and terror. Picture the effect on her impressionable mind of such an order as the following, issued by a "land official" and directed at the peaceful residents of an ordinary village:

"Nobody shall leave the village at night at all, or in the day-time for more than twenty-four hours without reporting to the selectman where he is going and for what purpose. For any departure without permission the guilty one shall be punished. Anyone who departs at night is to be reported in the morning by the watchmen and sentinels to the selectman, who is to inquire into the matter and punish disobedience, even if it be proven that there was nothing suspicious or improper in the departure."

Gradually she learned, also, that the peasants of Russia were awakening. She found that for a score of years there had hardly been a time when some village was not in revolt. But long distances between centers of population, inadequate communication and the ubiquitous Cossack had kept rebellion from spreading.

Then she was told of the origin of the revolutionary movement—how it had begun within the memory of her own father and consisted at first of academic discussion among students in the universities and technical schools, but presently took the form of secret societies whose members, under the disguise of doctors, midwives, school teachers, governesses, factory hands and common laborers, went among the people with seditious pamphlets and oral arguments, seeking to make proselytes. When success began to attend these efforts, she learned, the police interfered and there were wholesale arrests of those who

¹Quoted from Russia's Message, by William English Walling, page 169.



GERSHUNI

One of the fighting inner circle of revolutionists. Miss Sukloff helped to nail the lid on the barrel in which he escaped from Akatui.



"THROUGH STRUGGLE YOU WILL GET YOUR RIGHTS"

The group of prisoners at Akatui who met Miss Sukloff and her companions at the time of her second exile.



SOSONOFF

Slayer of Von Plehve. When ten of Miss Sukloff's companions in Akatui tried to commit suicide, Sosonoff alone succeeded.

preached anti-government doctrine. Many, she learned, were imprisoned or exiled, and so she came to have an especial horror of a power which would not permit people to express their own views, or even to have views of a particular kind.

These were precocious ideas for a girl of sixteen, but poverty and thwarted ambition often put an edge to intelligence. By dint of learning such things Marie had become a hater of czarism and an avowed Socialist. As such she was lonely in her home town. So she moved to Odessa for the purpose of meeting other and older radicals. The Socialist Revolutionist Party, which was the first to adopt terrorist methods, had been formed the year before. Marie met many of its members, including Catharine Breshkovsky, the "grandmother of the revolution," who was one of its founders. She had gone so far in her own thinking that it was easy for her Odessa friends to persuade her to the philosophy of the new party. When she joined it within the year she was the youngest of its members. At this time she was a revolutionist in theory only, not yet ready to begin actual warfare on the government she had come to hate. But events were at hand which were to bring the transformation.

A Batch of Letters

Among the friends to whom she was writing was a former playmate whom the military requirements had taken away and put in the army. He, too, was a Socialist. For some reason the army officials suspected this young man of holding ideas unfriendly to the government. They searched his possessions and found a year's letters from Marie.

In one of these letters she had written, in Yiddish: "I shall not rest until

I see the blood of the vampires." She blushes now at the recollection. It was a bit of youthful bombast of which she is not proud; in bad taste rhetorically, she thinks. By it she meant merely to express her hatred of all oppressors.

But the official translator, in changing the letter into Russian, made "vampires" read "vampire." This was construed as a direct threat at the czar. That alone would have been sufficient to brand her as too dangerous to be at large, but the officials had another clue.

First Arrest

Each year, on the third of March, the revolutionists of Russia commemorate the famous "emancipation" of the peasants which Alexander II was forced to make in 1861. The beneficence of this liberation was somewhat dimmed by subsequent events and it wasn't long before the peasants were calling their vaunted freedom a mockery and were claiming that they were being systematically cheated of the promises made to them. In harmony with this spirit the celebration of the revolutionists takes the form of posting proclamations, on the anniversary of the manifesto, contrasting Alexander's pretentious pledges with the present condition of the peasants.

Marie had been involved in this work. The government searched her house and found forty pieces of type which, on comparison, proved to be from the very supply that had been used in setting up some of these proclamations. So, on February 21, 1902, she was arrested at Kishineff and thrown into prison to await her trial.

At that moment the revolution was only four years off. Up to this time Marie's activities had been only those which pass uncensored in most civilized countries. Yet with unconscious cer-

tainty the sinister power of the czar was grinding out another revolutionist to join the makers of terrorism.

For eighteen months before her trial Marie was kept in solitary confinement. Day and night continuously she was cooped up in a square cell that measured six of her steps each way. Fifteen minutes of every twenty-four hours she could change the scene of her pacing to the prison yard.

She shudders now when asked what passed through her mind during that year and a half. For four years she had been reading and seeing much of the lives of her countrymen and of the tyranny of her country. Now she could think it all through, sort it out in her mind, which, though still that of a little girl, was being swiftly matured by experience beyond her years.

Her Mental "Coming of Age"

This was the period of her "coming of age" mentally. It was this first arrest, imprisonment and trial that made Marie Sukloff an active revolutionist. When she came through it she was ready to take up arms against a power which she believed to be crushing out the best that was born in millions of men and women. Her own lot, she saw, was not unique. The revelations which led to her discovery had implicated others. In the same prison were two hundred men and forty women whose offenses, like hers, were that they "thought too much." From them she heard stories which made her clench her hands and grit her teeth.

The food in this prison was bad. So Marie and her fellow prisoners organized a hunger strike. The strike lasted ten days and ceased when better fare was promised. But the promise met the fate of many Russian promises—it was

broken. The meals did not improve. Meanwhile two men died as a result of the strike. The Russian government had not begun to resort to forcible feeding at this time. That practice has come in since, "but even the Russian government," says Miss Sukloff, "regards it as one of its extremest punishments."

Finally her turn for trial came. Among the counsel for defense was Maklakoff, a brother of the present reactionary minister of the interior, who defended Mendel Beiliss free of charge. Pereverzeff, Kalmanovitch and Ratner, three of Russia's famous lawyers, were also among her counsel. All defended her for nothing.

Exiled at Eighteen

The evidence was presented and the form question put: What will you do if liberated? She did not give a form answer. Though fresh from her prison ordeal and now scarcely eighteen years old, she arose, facing the judge, and said:

"I will do my utmost against you and to change the awful conditions in Russia."

The court pronounced her a "dangerous, revolutionary person." The usual punishment for her offense was eight years at hard labor. But Marie was young and the court took pity. Her sentence was commuted to life exile in Siberia.

But she was not allowed to start at once. Now that she was disposed of so satisfactorily, it was no great matter to the government whether she set forth immediately or went back to her lonely Odessa cell. Besides, the facilities for travel to Siberia were overloaded just then with hundreds of other political prisoners. For another year and a half she lay in solitary confinement in Odessa, and then she began the immemorial march to Siberia, first made by the priest, Avvakum, in 1658 and increasingly trod ever since by the feet of religious and political nonconformists, until the yearly average of exiles has swelled to 20,000!

It was to the village Alexandrovskoye, in the district of Yeniseisk, 3,000 miles from home, that Marie was sent. The nearest railway station is 150 miles distant. There she was free to move about and live much as she chose, though under constant surveillance by government officials. It was bitterly cold, for Alexandrovskoye is nearly on a line with Sitka, Alaska. Many of the villagers were prone to regard all exiles as dangerous and bad, so her prospects for companionship seemed slight.

The government gave her eight rubles a month, or four dollars, for living expenses. The vigilance of the officials toward her, very constant at first, was

relaxed as the days went by. She seemed too young and timid to escape. Once again the government was being blind. It had made her a revolutionist; it did not know to what lengths she would go.

In planning her escape Marie tried to persuade an older couple, her friends, to escape with her. But the presence of their little child, who had suffered banishment with its parents, would have led to their almost certain capture, and so they refused to accompany her. Then Marie offered to take the child with her and return it to its grandparents in Vilna. After much hesitation the parents consented.

Of the details of her escape Miss Sukloff will now tell little. She is re-



GERSHUNI AND SPIRIDONOVA

serving that part of her story for a book. One night, three months after her arrival at Alexandrovskoye, she was helped by peasants to get safely out of the village. "It is the peasants who make possible so many escapes of exiles," says Miss Sukloff. "Everywhere they are sympathetic with the revolutionists."

But to be safely out of the village was only to begin her hardships. The cold was bitter, and she had a three-year-old boy to care for and keep warm. She had also one hundred rubles, fifty dollars, the gift of friends and her father. This was not enough to enable her to cross the border into China or to flee to Japan. For in those countries she did not know where to find the friends who would have enabled her to return home.

So her only recourse was to turn back toward European Russia. Fifty dollars would not pay her railroad fare. Besides, railroads are in the hands of the

government in Siberia. They might be watching for her on the trains.

She started to walk home, but again the peasants came to her aid. For fifty cents they let her ride a long way in their carts, and this became the chief mode of travel for Marie and her young charge. Much of the journey was made at night. Villages are few and far between in Siberia and the peasants, when going to market, often travel day and night without coming to one. So huts have been built along the road as way stations. In these Marie slept sometimes, but often a whole night was passed in the cart, sleeping or pushing on.

She often told who she was, but no one refused to help her. She can smile now at the recollection of the chubby face of the little boy who learned during those four terrible weeks to look to her as to his mother, and on whom she expended a mother's care and protection. But there were moments while they bumped over the rough roads, or lay awake on the carts at night, when she wondered if either would reach the goal alive.

On to Paris

For three hundred miles Marie traveled in this fashion. When she reached the city of Krasnoyarsk she had just money enough to buy a railroad ticket home. By this time she believed it was safe to trust herself on the train, and so she spent her last forty-five rubles that she might restore the child more quickly to its own people.

But Vilna was no place for her. Aside from the danger of capture, she felt that she must get away. Most of the plans of the revolutionists are formed outside of Russia, and in those plans she wanted to have a part. Imprisonment and exile had made this girl of nineteen a more impassioned champion of the Russian poor.

So she decided to go to Paris, where many of her fellows lived. Poor as her father was, he supplied her with enough money to steal across the Austrian border at Brody and go on to the city of the Bastille and the massacre of the Champ de Mars.

In Paris she met for the first time Azeff, general organizer of the fighting inner circle of the Socialist Revolutionary Party, who directed the attacks on Plehve and the Grand-duke Sergius. She became his devoted friend, so that today her voice breaks when she tells of his exposure as a betrayer of the revolutionists. The story, as Miss Sukloff tells it, has dramatic features not generally known.

The unmasking of Azeff came in 1907. For some time before that officials of the police department, sympathetic with the revolutionists, had been writing anonymous letters to revolu-

tionist leaders, telling them that some one within their organization was betraying the names of those who assaulted ministers and giving other secrets away to the department. The purport of these letters spread among the inner ranks of the revolutionists and caused each one to look with suspicion on his fellow. Azeff went to the director of the department of police, Lopukhin, and urged him to deny the letters. When Lopukhin showed little sympathy, Azeff threatened to have him killed if he didn't grant his request. Lopukhin's reply has become famous on the lips of the revolutionists, as showing that the head of the czar's repressive system, on which, Miss Sukloff says, more money is spent annually than on the whole system of education, was at heart himself a revolutionist. "That's enough," said the director of police. "You have shed blood enough. I will put a stop to it."

Lopukhin went immediately to Paris and in person laid before the revolutionary leaders the whole treachery of Azeff, even to the details of their last conversation.

For this Lopukhin was sent to Siberia, though the czar pardoned him later. Azeff disappeared. It has since been stated in European newspapers, says Miss Sukloff, that he is a spy for the Austrian government and has discovered important Russian military secrets for his new employers.

The Approach of Revolution

Miss Sukloff reached Paris in August, 1904, and stayed there nine months. She became an active plotter against the government, a career which was soon to put the weapons of war into her own hands and to send her once more across the Siberian border, at a moment when popular rebellion was assuming proportions which were to shake the Empire. Reverses in the war with Japan, begun in February of that year, were fanning the flame of opposition which had been directed against that conflict from the start. A few weeks before Miss Sukloff reached Paris, Sosonoff's assassination of the minister of the interior, Plehve, was hailed by the European press in ways which have led it to be called the most popular terrorist act ever committed.

In November, two months later, a congress of members of the provincial and municipal assemblies, permitted by the tacit consent of the police, approached the crown with a suggestion for an extension of self-government and wider guarantees for individual liberty. The day on which the deputation laid these requests before the new minister recalled the fifth of May, 1789, when the French States-General met at Versailles. But the imperial ukase of De-

cember 12 enunciating reforms contained no word of constitutional government and failed to satisfy public opinion. Continued petitions from all sources were accompanied by widespread agitation, and this culminated at Moscow in the murder of the Grand-duke Sergius on February 4, 1905.

Even that failed to impress the forces of reaction. The murder of Sergius was answered within two weeks by a reaffirmation of the principle of autocracy. The new minister of the interior, with a better knowledge of the effects of such flaunting, hastened to the czar and obtained on the same day the issue of a rescript which stated the emperor's intention of summoning representatives of the people to aid in "the preparation and examination of legislative proposals." A commission was formed to carry this promise into effect.

Miss Sukloff's Part

With events in this stage, Miss Sukloff returned to Russia. A blond dye applied to her dark hair was successful in baffling the police and she was able to meet and plan with fellow revolutionists in Moscow, Kiev and St. Petersburg itself. Her return was in May. On June 6 the emperor promised the speedy convocation of a national assembly, but when a month later, the new law was issued, it was found that once more the autocrat had perjured himself and that his promised "imperial duma" was to be no more than a consultative body. It could "examine" proposed legislation, but the duty and right of making laws still rested with the czar alone.

The announcement was met with that furious agitation which has passed into history as the most remarkable political phenomenon of modern times. A general strike, culminating in September, tied up all communication throughout the country. For days the whole mechanism of existence was at a standstill, and all intercourse with the outside world cut off. The Russian people, after centuries of oppression and years of intermittent, scattered revolt, had apparently united, caught the government unprepared and were about to wring from it a degree of toleration and justice which would make up for all the bloodshed and destruction it had cost.

What followed is general knowledge. Except for one act, Miss Sukloff's part in it was that of hundreds of other revolutionists. That act, which must remain nameless until Miss Sukloff's mission here permits her to disclose it, places her high up among those whom the Russian peasant and workingman are today bewailing as lost leaders and martyrs, those who went to the last desperate extreme to free their countrymen from tyranny, and whose efforts,

though still sources of inspiration, were robbed of the immediate victory which seemed so likely to crown them.

The paralyzing warfare of which this act was a part at last forced the government to yield. On October 30 the czar issued his famous manifesto, containing seven brief paragraphs in which was promised a constitution guaranteeing national representation, freedom of conscience and opinion, and individual liberty. For a moment it seemed to the leaders of revolt as if the French Revolution had been fought over again to a happier ending.

On January 1, 1906, Miss Sukloff was arrested and after seventeen days was tried and sentenced to imprisonment and hard labor for life. Out on the Mongolian frontier in Manchuria, 3,000 miles from the nearest point in European Russia, stands the stronghold of Akatui, a prison for murderers and thieves. Only the year before the government had begun to herd its political prisoners there also and it was to Akatui that Marie Sukloff was sent. Her arrival with five other heroines of the revolution was greeted by the political exiles who had preceded her with triumphant songs, with flowers and with banners bearing the inscription: "Through struggle you will get your rights."

Some Famous Rebels

In Akatui she found herself among a group of revolutionists known throughout all Europe. Among them was Gregory Gershuni whom many Americans will remember, for he came here following his escape in 1907, and whose words, hurled at the judges who tried him for assassination, are part of the message of the Revolution:

"History will forgive you everything—the centuries of oppression, the millions you have starved to death, the other millions you have sent to be butchered on the battle-field;—everything but this: that you have driven us who mean well with our fatherland to seek recourse in murder."

Gershuni set at naught the government which imprisoned him by escaping in a barrel of sauerkraut, only to die a year later of lung trouble. This version of Gershuni's escape has been denied, but when I asked Miss Sukloff if it was true, her answer was characteristic of her experience. "I was among those," she said, "who helped to nail the lid on and punch the breathing holes."

There were also Sidortchuk, student in an agricultural school, who killed the chief of police of Zhitomir during a Jewish pogrom, and later died by drowning in Italy; Karpowitch, the student who killed Bogolepoff, minister of education, and later escaped from Akatui to London. Another was Soson-

off, the slayer of Plehve, for "God knows which of his blood-lettings." When an order was issued that a number of political prisoners be whipped, ten of Miss Sukloff's companions tried to commit suicide and Sosonoff, who had taken poison, was the only one who succeeded.

Five of those at Akatui besides Marie Sukloff were women. There was the teacher, Bitzenko, who had killed General Sakharoff after his descent upon a village with a so-called punitive expedition (she is still in Akatui); Izmailovitch, daughter of a lieutenant general in the Manchurian army, who after the Jewish massacre in Minsk helped a man throw a bomb at General Kurloff, wounding him and killing the chief of police (also still in Akatui); Yeserskaja, daughter of a noble family and wife of the president of a provincial assembly, who killed Governor General Klingenberg following the pogrom at Mohilov (she has since been transferred to Yakutsk); Fialka, a working girl of nineteen, who was caught in charge of an Odessa laboratory where bombs are made (she is now in Bagousin, Siberia); and Spiridonova, one of the best known of all, for it was this young school teacher who shot down Lujenofsky for his massacring of the peasants in the district of Tomboff. After the shooting Spiridonova was beaten and flogged by the soldiers. They mutilated one of her eyes. Two officers bragged of raping her. These paid for it in death at the hands of her friends. She, too, is still in Akatui. She said to her judges:

"I am going away from this life. You may kill me, you may contrive the most horrible punishments, but you cannot add anything to what I have already endured. I am not afraid of death. Put me to death—but you cannot kill in me my faith in the fact that there will come a time when our nation will be happy, when our nation will be free, when the life of our nation will assume forms in which truth and justice will be realized, when the ideals of brotherhood and liberty will not be merely empty sounds. For this I do not regret to give my life! That is all."

Punishment by Idleness

To see Miss Sukloff today makes one feel that a life of hard labor in prison would soon kill her. But the "hard labor" which the czar plans for his political prisoners wears out their minds, not their bodies. "Our work," says Miss Sukloff, "consisted of doing nothing. About fifteen years ago the government discovered that political prisoners were quiet and philosophical while doing hard labor, so it decided that that was too easy a punishment. Much worse, it was thought, would be just having to sit with folded hands and folded brains for weeks, months, years. And it is worse. That

is why so many try to commit suicide at every chance. They are driven crazy by idleness."

Miss Sukloff's description of the life at Akatui was published in *THE SURVEY* for January 3. During the winter a New York newspaper printed a dispatch from St. Petersburg declaring that Russia had decided on far-reaching reforms in her prison system. Solitary confinement and idleness were to be done away with, the story said, and Siberia would soon be known as a blossoming garden, not a dungeon. I showed this to Miss Sukloff and she laughed. "I have heard stories like this many times," she said. "But they are never true. Nothing ever happens." She has no faith in the reform of Russian prisons except as it may come through bitter compulsion.

For over four and a half years, while the fruits of the revolution were drying up, she endured this prison life on the Mongolian frontier. One day it was discovered that she had appendicitis and a trip to Irkutsk for an operation was decided upon. She was glad—any break in the monotony was welcome. But there followed eight months of monotonous waiting in the Irkutsk prison before the operation was performed.

The Second Escape

Her jailers found that it is as necessary to guard sick people as well ones. The operation left her in a weakened condition—but not too weak to think. A bare fortnight after it was performed her cot was empty and she was not to be found. How she did it she has not yet told. There is a rumor that she crept between the legs of a sleeping sentry and hid in a nearby town while it was ransacked by government officials. Those who know the story say that her escape was more dramatic and hair-breadth than any that have yet been written.

With this second escape, in April, 1911, the story of Marie Sukloff as an active revolutionist ends. To the blunt question, What made you a revolutionist? she has but one answer—a shrug of the shoulders indicating the futility of all reply. "I would have to speak that much to tell you," she said, picking up a large volume from the table. "I would have to tell you all that is wrong in Russia." It was a sufficient answer, in that it disclosed that no single act of oppression, such as the sacking of her home town or the murder of a close friend, had led her to take up arms against her government. She is the product of accumulated tyrannies, she was ground out by the slow processes of education and experience.

"Yet," she said, "I have often wondered why I am the only revolutionist in my family. When I was stealing inflammatory pamphlets and eavesdrop-

ping on secret meetings, my brother, three years older than myself, was living in the same town and subject to the same influences. But he was not serious minded, and when he was old enough to enter the army, he ran away to Canada to avoid compulsory service. Even my chum who ran away to night meetings with me, married, became the mother of children, and settled down to a bourgeois life."

The disintegration of the revolution during the years of her imprisonment are well known. How, after the alluring promises of the czar's manifesto, the "terrorists of the reaction" began an organized extermination of the elements supposed to be hostile to the traditional régime; how the "black hundreds," as they were branded by public opinion, directed their attacks especially against the Jews until robbery and murder, committed with the connivance of the police, became wholesale; how the first duma, in the spring of 1906, made so many further demands on the throne that it was speedily dissolved, its most radical element adjourning to Finland and there meeting in imitation of the tennis-court conference at Versailles; how the policy of influencing elections was begun before the second duma, a year later, and carried to such a flagrant extreme before the third duma that the minister of the interior had to defend this breaking of the czar's sacred promise by declaring that what the autocrat had given the autocrat could take away; how freedom of conscience affecting 15,000,000 people and including the right of Christians to join non-Christian religions, was first granted and then, by the action of the administration, rendered a dead letter—all this has been written into history.

Miss Sukloff's Hopes

But though the revolution is dead, the revolutionists are not. Of their activities today and their plans for the future Miss Sukloff will not speak. It is their accomplishments of which they tell, for the past is secure; some one might rob them of their designs. The stones of oppression are grinding out new recruits to the forces of discontent. New leaders are coming forward. Miss Sukloff speaks joyfully of the formation, a few months ago, of the Peasants' Party, which with the Social Democratic Party and the Labor Party makes three revolutionary bodies now working secretly for the common cause. The leaders of these parties cannot let themselves become known, for to befriend the oppressed in Russia is to be an enemy to the government. It is different with those whose influence is wielded only by their writings. Of Russia's literary people, Korolenko, says Miss Sukloff, with his stories of the soil

and peasant life, is making the deepest impress on the oppressed working classes today.

Many ask how long it will be before a revolution of the peasants and working-men will be successful. Some one has put the time at twenty-five years. "I cannot tell," says Miss Sukloff. "In prison one gets out of touch with life.

Soon I may know again what to think of my countrymen, but now I cannot tell.

"But I wish that American women, who have so much of opportunity and freedom, could let their sympathy be known to their Russian sisters, who have nothing. It is hard for you in this glorious country to realize our condi-

tions and our struggles, our sacrifices and enslavement. Never was a conflict so unequal. I want to do what little I can to make you see what that conflict means. That is my mission in America—to help you feel the struggles of the Russian peasant as he tries to throw from his shoulders the weight of centuries."

Philanthropy and Business¹

By Edward T. Devine

LET us use the word *philanthropy* in the old and noble sense as brotherhood touched with emotion; as the love of fellow man not for what one can get out of him, or as a channel for ostentatious benevolence, but for his own sake, as a fellow being whom not to love and cherish and respect is to deny our birthright of humanity.

Not every man is by nature a philanthropist, any more than every man is normal and complete as to any other human trait; but the perfect man, the natural man, in the sense of that nature towards which the generations yearn and strive, is a philanthropist. He does care for others. He respects their rights not by contract, express or implied, but because it is his nature. He struggles for their advantage, not with conscious deliberation in order to promote his own, but again because it is his nature. He avoids injustice, oppression and fraud, not because the laws restrain him, but because they are detestable. He cannot help it. He is born that way; and social nurture does but strengthen his innate inclinations. Whatever his superficial demeanor may happen to be, he is not callous at heart, or coldly calculating in his fundamental human relations. He is moved by social ideals of a progress in which all men share; by visions of a redeemed society in which exertion, toil, even pain and suffering may indeed persist, but if so, not as a result of business relations, not as a result of man's injustice or neglect.

That, if your minds go along with me so far, is what we are to understand by philanthropy, a glowing faith in humanity, a manner of life which is based upon constant recognition and acceptance of a family relationship to other men. It is inconsistent with deliberate incitement to class conflict, though it is not without a sympathetic understanding of that class conscious struggle which is, or may be, an inter-

mediate stage towards universal brotherhood.

Business—perhaps because it is more familiar—is a little harder to define. It is evidently not to be identified with philanthropy. Business men are constantly telling us that they are not engaged in philanthropic enterprises, a curious variant of this announcement being that they are not in business for their health, as if the preservation of their precious health were the highest form of philanthropy of which they could conceive, or at least the farthest removed from their ordinary pre-occupation with business. Even social welfare features tacked on to industrial or mercantile establishments are often zealously guarded against what the proprietors are pleased to call the "taint" of philanthropy.

Business Not Altruistic

No! business is not philanthropy. They are not of one blood. In fact there is a temptation to take the short cut of describing business as simply the opposite pole to philanthropy, its direct negation in principle and its chief obstacle in practical experience. We all recognize that commerce may be a means of strengthening human relations; that industry may represent the organized effort of society to meet human wants; and that both commerce and industry so understood are beneficent. Business then might be represented as that particular principle in commerce and in industry which antagonizes their unifying and beneficent results; as the exploitation of employees, competitors and consumers for personal gain. Pure business might be described as the unadulterated effort to secure from every transaction the utmost pecuniary advantage.

If business were so defined, the business man would be one who deals with affairs, that is to say with the making, transporting and marketing of goods solely from the standpoint of personal profit, and it would be a matter of sublime indifference to him, as a business man, whether profit were obtained by the cheapening of machinery and pro-

cesses, by lowering the wages of labor, by widening the market, by eliminating competition and raising prices, by monopolizing incidental unearned increment, by side speculations in securities, or by securing governmental favors. The temptation to give the business man this bad name and hang him at once is greatly strengthened by the unfortunate fact that business has done all these things and does them. Business in the abstract and business practice in the concrete deserve the hard things which have been said of them by the prophets of Israel, by the Greek philosophers, by the oriental seers, by the Christian fathers, by the poets of humanity, and by the candid critics of this latter age in which successive industrial revolutions have enthroned business in substantial control of our destinies, so that as never before in human history, we may observe the real nature of business written large upon the face of human affairs.

But in such a characterization of business as this there would be injustice—an injustice like that of the Scotch-Canadian philosopher who wrote a book on the American woman. He depicted a very disagreeable creature. Somewhere in his volume, he explained that this type of woman was not distinctively American. It seems that she is to be found also in Canada and in Scotland, but for convenience he preferred to call her an American woman because he had to have a title, and it seemed to pain the author less to picture the object of his dislike and disapproval as an American. That there might be some sensitiveness on the part of the real American woman appears not to have troubled his philosophic soul.

The prevailing mood among students of the social aspects of business is really one of perplexity. There are those who love business, just as Emerson liked a monk's cowl, or as ex-President Taft loves the courts. Puritan as he was, Emerson balked when it came to realities and could not imagine himself cowed. Professor Taft, himself, is said to use strong language, especially in

¹An Address given before the National Conference of Charities and Correction at Memphis, May 10, 1914.

private conversation, about the doings of particular judges in these same courts which on principle he loves. Any socially minded business man has a hard time to defend business at its worst as we now all know it to be since the Hughes insurance investigation, and the collapse of the New Haven system, and all the sickening exposures in the decade between those two events have done their deadly work. Business includes all that is done primarily for profit, and the fact is that an infinite number of wholly useful and praiseworthy things are actually done from that motive. Whether commerce and industry could be carried on, as Socialists think that they could, if the motive of personal profit were eliminated, is a fair question for debate, but certainly they are carried on from that motive mainly at present, and to business we must give the credit for the greater part of what they achieve.

Business Men Not Limited to the Business Motive

As we survey the history of industry and commerce, of business in operation, we discern unquestionably much that seems to express the spirit of philanthropy, that seems to prophesy a day when other motives will drive out or dominate the business motive, when considerations of social welfare rather than the extortion of profit will become a direct and all pervading motive. Business men sometimes ascribe all these beneficent changes to the enlightened application of business principles. Enlightened selfishness is proposed as a sufficient guide to action even in matters vitally affecting others. Philanthropy is dismissed sneeringly either as an utter delusion and pretense, or as a negligible means, among many, of personal gratification, in other words a form of selfishness. I contend, on the contrary, that business is not entitled to this degree of credit, that it is only as the business motive is limited, restrained, supplemented or replaced by other motives that there is substantial progress in bringing commerce and industry, and other social activities into conformity with genuine social needs.

Fortunately the business man is seldom a business man simply. He is a leader of men with an instinctive fondness for accomplishing some good results from his leadership. He is an inventor with a pride in his inventions. He is a religious man with reverence for religious traditions and sanctions. He is a professional man with respect for professional standards. He is a consumer of liberalizing forms of culture. He is a citizen with political and civic instincts. He is a philanthropist with the welfare of his neighbors, his employees, his competitors and his customers at least intermittently in mind. He has generous impulses and just desires.

He circumscribes his business activities and prefers to be partially, at least, a man. He installs welfare schemes, shamefacedly telling the world that he is doing it for business reasons, that contented employees are a good investment, but really feeling a glow of satisfaction, not only at the higher dividends but at the contentment.

Nevertheless, welfare work, coming into existence in such ways is certain to be fragmentary, erratic and disappointing. Business mitigated by philanthropy is better than business unalloyed, but it is no adequate safeguard for human interests. A deeper change than any that has yet been made voluntarily by business itself is essential. Industrial democracy in the spirit of philanthropy is essential; by which we mean the actual participation—not by sufferance but by established custom—the sustained and effective participation of industrial workers in determining the conditions of their work; hours and wages, the conditions of employment and discharge, the introduction of new processes, the way in which one part of the work is to be adjusted to another, the administration of relief and aid schemes, of retiring pensions, and other features of what makes up the total compensation of the workman. Some kind of joint responsibility should be established for maintaining standards of quality of work, so that consumers will have a guarantee based not merely upon the business interests of proprietors, but also upon a long tradition and pride of workmanship in those who are actually doing the work. Obviously this is a different ideal from that of our friends, the efficiency engineers, relying less upon management and discipline; tests and measurements; more upon individual initiative and *esprit de corps*; upon personal capacity and good will.

The ideal of philanthropy is human. It does not become enthusiastic over such conservation of workers as is directed towards the increase of profits. It does not rave over high wages which are paid in order to secure a low labor cost. It believes in conservation and in high wages for other reasons. Nor does it interpret as in the interests of business the current movement for the conservation of life and health, the various movements for reducing the death rate, for safeguarding the public health, controlling infection, improving the racial stock, raising the standard of living, protecting women and children, reducing hours of labor and promoting rational recreation in the hours of leisure. No doubt their net effect is to restrict rather than to enlarge the field of exploitation. The content of life itself is the thing about which philanthropy is concerned. Workers are not looked upon as assets of business, but the ultimate consumers of the products of industry. There is to be no such nationalization of labor as

Mr. Walling in his interesting Progressivism and After forecasts. To workingmen as philanthropists, under the full sway of the spirit of brotherhood, the monstrous perversion implied in looking upon his fellow workman as a machine, rather than as a rational user and producer of wealth, will be sufficiently apparent.

The question which was in the mind of the chairman in assigning this topic is I hope partly answered. To what extent, you asked in the Bulletin, are the captains of industry heeding the pleading of the humanitarians in preventing misery and promoting the common good?

Business has become more humane and more human. This is partly because business men have shared in new social ideals and have learned from the general trend of human events. It is partly because of external pressure. It is not primarily from enlightened or unenlightened selfishness. It has not been for the sake or with the result of increased profits.

Enlightened Selfishness Not Enough

You asked further: Will the time soon come when business will stand out in the open, not merely with an assenting lisp, but rather with a championing shout, declaring that in the last analysis the human factor must never be submerged under the commercial and industrial.

I hear that shout but it is in the language of civics and philanthropy and not in the dialect heard upon the Rialto. Looking to the future we may expect more from the development of the social spirit in the community as a whole, from the strengthening of the position of workers as such, and of consumers as such than from any clearer perception of the directions in which business interest, in the sense of larger profits, are to be sought.

There is no prospect that business will usurp the functions of philanthropy. There is no promise in any achievements of business unrestrained by law or external opinion which would warrant our abdicating as agitators of public opinion. There is no safety in leaving business to manage its own affairs, that is to say, our affairs looked at from the aspect of the pecuniary advantage of the business manager of them. On the contrary, the one constant factor in all social problems which is most baffling, most dangerous, and most worthy of our constant consideration is precisely the business interest which will suffer from its being solved.

The socializing of religion, of philanthropy, of medicine, of education, of recreation, of government, is going on apace. The socializing of business lags far behind. There are initial experiments like that of the Provident Loan Society in pawnbroking which would seem to indicate that it is not impossible.

but there are as yet no evidences that we may cast aside our philanthropic ideals and trust to business for social salvation.

It was in the first half of the nineteenth century in England that business had its unique opportunity. The new science of political economy was its charter and apology. Free trade came at its bidding, *laissez faire* became its watchword, steam its magician. Everything then first conspired to give to business the chance which, in earlier ages, religion, philosophy, politics, and economic conditions had equally conspired to deny. The economic man of the classical economists was not so much of an abstraction, not so much a figment of the imagination as we often assume. He was the real Englishman of an epoch, acting on a business instinct in a golden age made possible by industrial changes. But it was a failure. Factory laws and sanitary regulations, whether inherently desirable—and so late a philosopher as Spencer thinks they are not—were an absolute necessity to rectify the horrible conditions, which the business régime brought into existence. Business was tried and found wanting. It did not sufficiently promote the ends of human life; it was at odds with philanthropy; it produced hatred and resentment and sullen anger; Chartism in one generation and Socialism in the next were its indictment, and whatever the value of the remedies which they proposed, as indictments they have never yet been quashed.

It is a far cry from the north of England a century ago to Mexico and Colorado in the spring of 1914, but the fruits of business, the bitter fruits of business when least restrained, when most itself, are here as they are there.

Mexico and Colorado

If unhappily intervention of the United States in Mexico should prove after all to be necessary—as I hope it will not be—it should be upon even broader grounds than those described in the defeated Lodge amendment. Not because the flag was insulted, not even because American lives and property had been destroyed, but in expiation and remorse because of the sad consequences of the fact that American business men, together with the business men of other civilized nations, controlling the industries of Mexico, have acted consistently upon so-called business principles, and so acting have created or perpetuated the conditions of illiteracy, peonage, landlessness, low standards of living and general helplessness which prevail in that distracted country. If the railways, mines, oil wells and plantations of Mexico, in which American investments are said to be far greater than Mexican investments, had been managed with a view to the social welfare of Mexicans, instead of with a view to their exploita-

tion for the profit of investors, we and the English, and the Germans, and the Canadians might have easier national consciences than we are now entitled to.

I am not advocating intervention. On this we may very well follow the evidently conservative intentions of the national administration. If, however, intervention takes place, it will have to be justified not by its causes but by its results; by the policies followed after intervention has become a fact. It is not surprising that a newspaper supposed to reflect financial interests took quick alarm when a neighboring journal suggested editorially that President Wilson's obvious sympathy with the constitutionalists under Carranza and Villa was probably prompted by his approval of the land policy which they have inherited from Madero, a land policy not to be distinguished from that of the noble Gracchi in Rome, that of the anti-patroom rioters in New York, that of Gladstone in Ireland, and that to which Lloyd George seems to be tending in England—a policy of moderate holdings by cultivators, instead of absentee ownership of vast estates cultivated by serfs.

The more salient issues in Colorado are really not obscure though the responsibility for particular acts of violence of course awaits investigation. What is clear is that the corporations engaged in the steel mills and the mines have overworked their employes, as their competitors elsewhere have overworked theirs, that the twelve hour day and the seven day week have been prevalent there as they have been prevalent in Alabama and Pennsylvania, that exploitable immigrant labor has been utilized because it was cheap and because it was exploitable; that unionism has been bitterly and persistently fought by the companies. Without organization on their part there can of course be no effective collective bargaining, no industrial democracy. There are excellent welfare features in these industries especially in the steel plants of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company. The wages are said to be as high as among their competitors, but the overworked miner and mill worker without a union is not and cannot be an industrial citizen; even politically he is scarcely a citizen. He is in no position to co-operate in securing political or industrial justice. Deprived of the instruments of national progress he resorts to the cruder and now happily unlawful weapons of earlier stages of civilization. Business, crude, unsocialized business has created him. Business must accept responsibility for his acts; and the business men who have actually shaped the business policies on the ground could not if they would evade their own share of that responsibility. The independent companies in accepting freely their share as they have done in a recent statement, declaring that this is not a Rockefeller war, have

shown, I think, a better sense of proportion, a sounder spirit of fair judgment, than have the irresponsible organizers of the Free Silence Demonstration. The miner and mill worker have their own individual responsibility of course. No fear that society will not enforce it to the utmost.

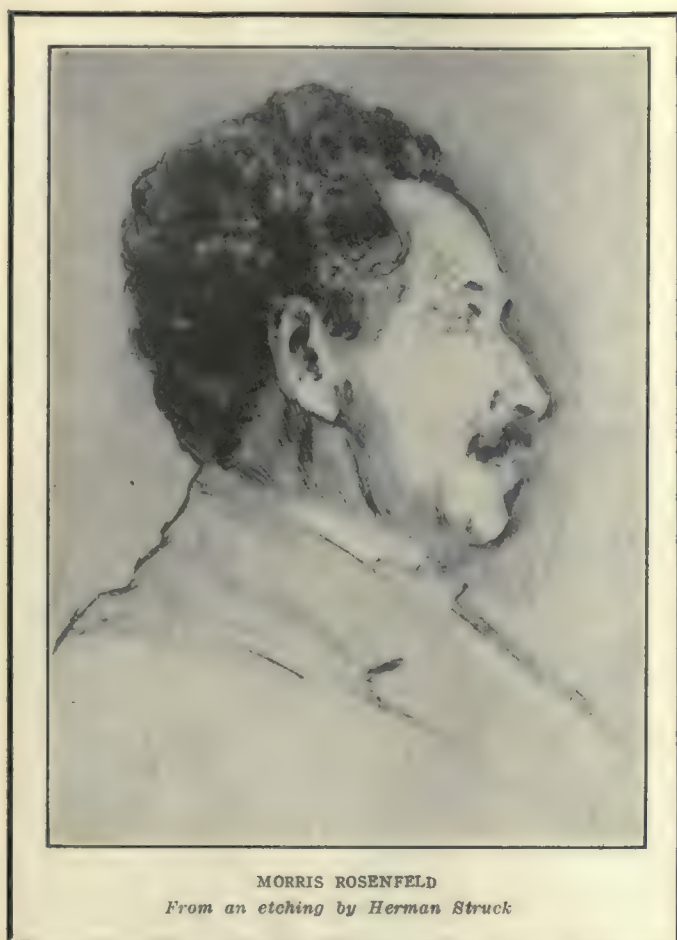
But here we are seeking the deeper truth of a social responsibility, which will never be tried in the courts but only in the enlightened conscience of mankind. Of this social responsibility the business investor, the Rockefellers and others, must bear the chief burden.

Business then is the management of affairs for profit. Exploitation is a word which has implications which many of us dislike, but there is no more accurate phrase that I can find to express what business is than to say that it is the exploitation of competitors, employes and consumers for personal gain. The activities put forth from this motive have been largely beneficent but it is equally true that they have often been disastrous.

Social control of business therefore is essential through direct government regulation—which must not become destruction—through taxation, through legislation to protect the weak, and through administrative machinery to facilitate the course of industrial justice, machinery for the settlement of industrial disputes, for the investigation of grievances, for the maintenance of uniform standards of protection.

If the government is to exercise this control and create this administrative machinery, obviously government must be stronger than business, must command the services in the interests of the social welfare of the ablest men; and if government itself enters into business enterprises and business relations, it must set a high standard of fairness as well as efficiency in all its dealings with competitors, employes and the public. When the liquor business is regarded chiefly as a source of revenue, when railways are exploited as a means of keeping down a post office deficit, questions arise as to whether the necessity for such lofty standards is realized.

The appeal to justice is good but it is not enough. Not theology only but social economy makes Portia's confession that in the course of justice none of us should see salvation. The total annihilation of injustice might leave us bankrupt of progress, prosperity, and good will. The appeal of the future as of all the past is for a genuine philanthropy of which justice is a part, for a passionate concern that our neighbor shall have from us not just dealing only, but the electric touch of human sympathy and understanding, the partnership of man with man which keeps us above the brutes and below the gods on the more congenial levels of our common humanity.



Poems by Morris Rosenfeld

Metrical translations from the Yiddish by ROSE PASTOR STOKES and HELEN FRANK

Illustrations by E. M. LILIEN, from Lieder des Ghetto

IN THE FACTORY

OH, here in the shop the machines roar so wildly,
That oft, unaware that I am, or have been,
I sink and am lost in the terrible tumult;
And void is my soul—I am but a machine.
I work, and I work, and I work, never ceasing,
Create and create things from morning till e'en;
For what? and for whom? Oh, I know not! Oh, ask not!
Whoever has heard of a conscious machine?

No; here is no feeling, no thought and no reason;
This life-crushing labor has ever supprest
The noblest and finest, the truest and richest,
The deepest, the highest and humanly best.
The seconds, the minutes, they pass out forever,
They vanish, swift fleeting like straws in a gale.
I drive the wheel madly as tho' to o'ertake them,
Give chase without wisdom, or wit, or avail.

The clock in the workshop, it rests not a moment;
It points on, and ticks on; Eternity, Time:
And once someone told me the clock had a meaning,
Its pointing and ticking had reason and rhyme.
And this too he told me, or had I been dreaming,
The clock wakened life in one, forces unseen,
And something besides—I forget what; Oh, ask not!
I know not, I know not, I am a machine.

At times, when I listen, I hear the clock plainly;
The reason of old—the old meaning—is gone!
The maddening pendulum urges me forward
To labor and labor and still labor on.
The tick of the clock is the Boss in his anger!
The face of the clock has the eyes of a foe;
The clock—Oh, I shudder, Dost hear how it drives me?
It calls me, "Machine!" and it cries to me, "Sew!"

At noon, when about me the wild tumult ceases,
And gone is the master, and I sit apart,
And dawn in my brain is beginning to glimmer,
The wound comes agape at the core of my heart;
And tears, bitter tears flow; ay, tears that are scalding;
They moisten my dinner, my dry crust of bread;
They choke me, I cannot eat; no, no, I cannot!
Oh, horrible toil! born of Need and of Dread.

The sweatshop at mid-day—I'll draw you the picture:
A battlefield bloody; the conflict at rest;
Around and about me the corpses are lying;
The blood cries aloud from the earth's gory breast.
A moment—and hark! The loud signal is sounded,
The dead rise again and renewed is the fight.
They struggle, these corpses; for strangers, for strangers!
They struggle, they fall, and they sink into night.

Und lehr' — doch was? — Ich hab' es vergessen.
O frag' nicht. — Ich bin nur Maschine. — nichts mehr.

Es ritt und schlägt, es kreisen die Seiger. . .
Doch horch — was kringt dort her von der Wand?
„Rege Dich!“, ruft der ruhlose Pendel, *sa sa*
„Rascher, rascher rühre die Hand!“ *sa sa*
Die Seiger gleichen zwei bösen Augen, *sa sa*
Die lauern auf mich hinuntersehn, *sa sa*
Und jeder Schlag ist wie Meisters Schellen:
„Maschine“, schreit es, „Du hast zu nahn!“ —

Nur dann, wenn langsam verraucht das Getümmel
Und der Meister fort ist, — zur Mittagszeit, —
Da kommt wieder Klarheit in meine Sinne,
Ich fühl' meine Wunden, es regt sich mein Leib,
Und bittere Thränen und heiße Thränen *sa sa*
Benetzen mein mageres Mittagsbrot. — *sa sa*
Es würgt mich, ich kann nicht mehr essen, ich kann nicht!
O schreckliche Arbeit! Entsetzliche Noth! *sa sa*

Es scheint mir die Werkstatt zur Mittagsstunde
Ein Schlachtfeld, auf dem das Kämpfen ruht:
Ringsum im Kreise, da liegen viel Tote, *sa sa*
Es schreit von der Erde zum Himmel ihr Blut.
Ein Weibchen — dann lauter die Glocke zum Sturme,
Die Töten erwachen: anhebt die Schlacht, *sa sa*
Es kämpfen die Körper für Fremde, für Fremde,
Und streiten und fallen und sinken in Nacht.

Ich blick' auf den Kampfplatz mit bitterem Jorne,
Mit Schreck und mit Haß und mit höllischer Pein,
Die Uhr — jetzt oerfieh' ich sie richtig — sie weckt mich:
„Genug schon der Knechtschaft! Ein Ende muß sein!“
Sie weckt meine Sinne und reizt die Gedanken
Und zeigt mir, wie ellenbs die Stunden entfliehn:
Ein Elender bin ich, solange ich schweige *sa sa*
Verloren, solange ich bleib', was ich bin. *sa sa*

Der Mensch, der in mir geschlafen, erwacht jetzt,
Der Knecht, der in mir gewacht hat, schläft ein.
Jetzt ist die richtige Stunde gekommen! *sa sa*
Genug schon des Elends! Ein Ende muß sein! . . .
Du plötzlich — ein Pfiff — der Meister — ein Ärmern —
Die Schlacht hebt an — es wogt um mich her —
Der Taumel verflüchtigt mich — ich weiß nichts —
mich schert nichts —
Ich bin nur Maschine, Maschine. — nichts mehr. . .



I gaze on the battle in bitterest anger,
And pain, hellish pain wakes the rebel in me!
The clock—now I hear it aright! It is crying:
“An end to this bondage! An end must there be!”
It quickens my reason, each feeling within me;
It shows me how precious the moments that fly.
Oh, worthless my life if I longer am silent,
And lost to the world if in silence I die.

The man in me sleeping begins to awaken;
The thing that was slave into slumber has passed:
Now! Up with the man in me! Up and be doing!
No misery more! Here is freedom at last!
When sudden: a whistle!—the Boss—an alarm!
I sink in the slime of the stagnant routine;—
There's tumult, they struggle, oh, lost is my ego;
I know not, I care not, I am a machine!

THE CANDLE SELLER

IN Hester Street, hard by a telegraph post,
There sits a poor woman as wan as a ghost.
Her pale face is shrunk, like the face of the dead,
And yet you can tell that her cheeks once were red.
But love, ease and friendship and glory, I ween,
May hardly the cause of their fading have been.
Poor soul, she wept so, she scarcely can see.
A skeleton infant she holds on her knee.
It tugs at her breast, and it whimpers and sleeps,
But soon at her cry it awakens and weeps—
“Two cents, my good woman, three candles will buy,
As bright as their flame be my star in the sky!”

Tho' few are her wares, and her basket is small,
She earns her own living by these, when at all.
She's there with her baby in wind and in rain,
In frost and in snow-fall, in weakness and pain.
She trades and she trades, through the good times and slack—
No home and no food, and no cloak to her back.
She's kithless and kinless—one friend at the most,
And that one is silent: the telegraph post!
She asks for no alms, the poor Jewess, but still,
Altho' she is wretched, forsaken and ill,
She cries Sabbath candles to those that come nigh,
And all that she pleads is, that people will buy.

To honor the sweet, holy Sabbath, each one
With joy in his heart to the market has gone.
To shops and to pushcarts they hurriedly fare;
But who for the poor, wretched woman will care?
A few of her candles you think they will take?
They seek the meat patties, the fish and the cake.
She holds forth a hand with the pitiful cry:
“Two cents, my good women, three candles will buy!”
But no one has listened, and no one has heard:
Her voice is so weak, that it fails at each word.
Perchance the poor mite in her lap understood,
She hears mother's crying—but where is the good?

I pray you, how long will she sit there and cry
Her candles so feebly to all that pass by?
How long will it be, do you think, ere her breath
Gives out in the horrible struggle with Death?
How long will this frail one in mother-love strong,
Give suck to the babe at her breast? Oh, how long?
The child mother's tears used to swallow before,
But mother's eyes, nowadays, shed them no more.
Oh, dry are the eyes now, and empty the brain,
The heart well-nigh broken, the breath drawn with pain.
Yet ever, tho' faintly, she calls out anew:
“Oh, buy but two candles, good women, but two!”

In Hester Street stands on the pavement of stone
 A small, orphaned basket, forsaken, alone.
 Beside it is sitting a corpse, cold and stark:
 The seller of candles—will nobody mark?
 No, none of the passers have noticed her yet.
 The rich ones, on feasting are busily set,
 And such as are pious, you well may believe,
 Have no time to spare on the gay Sabbath eve.
 So no one has noticed and no one has seen.
 And now comes the nightfall, and with it, serene,
 The Princess, the Sabbath, from Heaven descends,
 And all the gay throng to the synagogue wends.

IN THE WILDERNESS

ALONE in desert dreary,
 A bird with folded wings
 Beholds the waste about her,
 And sweetly, sweetly sings.

So heaven-sweet her singing,
 So clear the bird notes flow:
 'Twould seem the rocks must waken,
 The desert vibrant grow.

Dead rocks and silent mountains
 Wouldst waken with thy strain;
 But dumb are still the mountains,
 And dead the rocks remain.

For whom, O, heavenly singer,
 Thy song so clear and free?
 Who hears or sees or heeds thee,
 Who feels or cares for thee?

Thou may'st outpour in music
 Thy very soul. 'Twere vain!
 In stone thou canst not waken
 A throb of joy or pain.

Thy song shall soon be silenced.
 I feel it—For I know
 Thy heart is near to bursting
 With loneliness and woe.

Ah, vain is thine endeavor;
 It naught availeth—nay,
 For lonely as thou camest,
 So shalt thou pass away.

A MILLIONAIRE

NO, not from tuning-forks of gold,
 Take I my key for singing.
 From Upper Seats no order bold
 Can set my music ringing.
 But groans the slave through sense
 of wrong,
 And naught my voice can smother;
 As flame leaps up, so leaps my song
 For my oppressed brother.

—And thus the end comes swift
 and sure,
 Thus life itself must leave me;
 For what can these my brothers poor
 In compensation give me,
 Save tears for ev'ry tear and sigh?
 For they are rich in anguish.
 A millionaire of tears am I,
 And mid my millions languish.

O, synagogue lights, be ye witnesses bold
 That mother and child died of hunger and cold:
 Where millions are squandered in idle display
 That men, all unheeded, must starve by the way.
 Then hold back your flame, blessed lights, hold
 it fast!

The great day of judgment will come at the last.
 Before the white throne, where imposture is vain,
 Ye lights for the soul, ye'll be lighted again!
 And upward your flame there shall mount as on
 wings,
 And damn the existing false order of things!

LIBERTY

WHEN night and silence deep
 Hold all the world in sleep,
 As tho' Death claimed the Hour,
 By some strange witchery
 Appears her form to me,
 As tho' Magic were her dow'r.

Her beauty heaven's light;
 Her bosom snowy white;
 But pale her cheek appears.
 Her shoulders firm and fair;
 A mass of gold her hair;
 Her eyes—the home of tears.

She looks at me nor speaks.
 Her arms are raised; she seeks
 Her fettered hands to show.
 On both white wrists a chain!
 She cries and pleads in pain:
 "Unbind me!—Let me go!"

I burn with bitter ire,
 I leap in wild desire
 The cruel bonds to break;
 But, God! around the chain
 Is coiled and coiled again
 A long and loathsome snake.

I shout, I cry, I chide;
 My voice goes far and wide,
 A ringing call to men:
 "Oh, come, let in the light!
 Arise! Ye have the might!
 Set Freedom free again!"

They sleep! But I strive on.
 They sleep! Can't wake
 a stone?
 That one might stir! but one!
 Call I, or hold my peace,
 None comes to her release;
 And hope for her is none.

But who may see her plight
 And not go mad outright!
 "Now, up! For Freedom's sake!"
 I spring to take her part:
 "Fool!" cries a voice. I start.
 In anguish I awake.

Within, where they pray, all is cleanly and bright,
 The cantor sings sweetly, they list with delight.
 But why in a dream stands the tall chandelier,
 As dim as the candles that gleam round a bier?
 The candles belonged to the woman, you know,
 Who died in the street but a short time ago.
 The rich and the pious have brought them tonight,
 For mother and child they have set them alight.
 The rich and the pious their duty have done:
 Her tapers are lighted who died all alone.
 The rich and the pious are nobly behaved:
 A body—what matters? But souls must be saved!

PEN AND SHEARS

MY tailor's shears I scorned then:
 I strove for something higher:
 To edit news—live by the pen—
 The pen that shall not tire!

The pen, that was my humble slave,
 Has now enslaved its master;
 And fast as flows its Midas-wave,
 My rebel tears flow faster.

The world I clad once, tailor-hired,
 Whilst I in tatters quaked,
 Today, you see me well attired
 Who lets the world go naked.

What human soul, howe'er oppressed,
 Can feel my chained soul's yearning!
 A monster woe lies in my breast,
 In voiceless anguish burning.

Oh, swing ajar the shop door, do!
 I'll bear as ne'er I bore it.
 My blood! You sweatshop leeches,
 you!
 Now less I'll blame you for it.

I'll stitch as ne'er in former years!
 I'll drive the mad wheel faster!
 Slave will I be but to the shears.
 The pen shall know its master!

I'VE OFTEN LAUGHED

I've often laughed and oftener still have wept.
 A sighing always through my laughter crept.
 Tears were not far away—
 What is there to say?

I've spoken much and oftener held my tongue,
 For still the most was neither said nor sung.
 Could I but tell it so—
 What is there to know?

I've hated much and loved, oh, so much more!
 Fierce contrasts at my very heart strings tore.
 I tried to fight them—well—
 What is there to tell?

THE PALE OPERATOR

I But with my pen I could draw him,
With terror you'd look in his face;
For he, since the first day I saw him,
Has sat there and sewed in his place.

Years pass in procession unending,
And ever the pale one is seen,
As over his work he sits bending,
And fights with the soulless machine.

I feel, as I gaze at each feature,
Perspiring, and grimy and wan,
It is not the strength of the creature,—
The will only urges him on.

And ever the sweat-drops are flowing,
They fall o'er his thin cheek in streams,
They water the stuff he is sewing,
And soak themselves into the seams.

How long shall the wheel yet, I pray you,
Be chased by the pale artisan?
And what shall the ending be, say you?
Resolve the dark riddle who can!

I know that it cannot be reckoned,—
But one thing the future will show:
When this man has vanished, a second
Will sit in his place there and sew.

FROM DAWN TO DAWN

I BEND o'er the wheel at my sewing;
I'm spent; and I'm hungry for rest;
No curse on the master bestowing,
No hell-fires within me are glowing.
Tho' pain flares its fires in my breast.

I mar the new cloth with my weeping
And struggle to hold back the tears
A fever comes over me, sweeping
My veins; and all through me goes
[creeping]
A host of black terrors and fears.

The wounds of the old years ache newly,
The gloom of the shop hems me in;
But six o'clock signals come duly:
O, freedom seems mine again, truly,
Unhindered I haste from the din.

Now home again, ailing and shaking,
With tears that are blinding my eyes,
With bones that are creaking and
[breaking.]

Unjoyful of rest—merely taking
A seat; hoping never to rise.

I gaze round me: none for a greeting!
By Life for the moment unpressed,
My poor wife lies sleeping—and beating
A lip-tune in dream false and fleeting,
My child mumbles close to her breast.

I look on them, weeping in sorrow,
And think: "When the Reaper has come—
When finds me no longer the morrow
What aid then? From whom will they
[borrow]

The crust of dry bread and the home?"

"What harbors that morrow," I wonder,
"For them when the breadwinner's gone?
When sudden and swift as the thunder
The bread-bond is broken asunder,
And friend in the world there is none?"

A numbness my brain is o'ertaking
To sleep for a moment I drop:
Then start! In the east light is
[breaking!]

I drag myself, ailing and aching,
Again to the gloom of the shop.

A TREE IN THE GHETTO

THERE stands in the leafless Ghetto
One spare-leaved, ancient tree;
Above the Ghetto noises
It moans eternally.

In wonderment it muses,
And murmurs with a sigh:
"Alas! how God-forsaken
And desolate am I!"

"Alas, the stony alleys,
And noises loud and bold!
Where are ye, birds of summer?
Where are ye, woods of old?"

"And where, ye breezes balmy
That wandered vagrant here?
And where, oh, sweep of heavens
So deep and blue and clear?"

"Where are ye, mighty giants?
Ye come not riding by
Upon your fiery horses,
A-whistling merrily.

"Of other days my dreaming,
Of other days, ah, me!
When sturdy hero-races
Lived wild and glad and free!"

"The old sun shone, how brightly!
The old lark sang, what song!
O'er earth Desire and Gladness
Reigned happily and long.

"But see! what are these ant-hills?
These ants that creep and crawl?
Bereft of man and nature,
My life is stripped of all!"

"And I, an ancient orphan,
What do I here alone?
My friends have all departed,
My youth and glory gone.

"Oh, tear me, root and branches!
No longer let me be
A living head-stone, brooding
O'er the grave of liberty."



THE PALE OPERATOR

FOR HIRE

WORK with might
and main,
Or with hand and heart,
Work with soul and brain,
Or with holy art,
Thread, or genius' fire—
Make a vest, or verse—
If 'tis done for hire,
It is done the worse.

WHITHER?

To a Young Girl

SAY whither, whither, pretty one?
The hour is young at present!
How hushed is all the world around!
Ere dawn the streets hold not a sound.
O, whither, whither do you run?
Sleep at this hour is pleasant.
The flowers are dreaming, dewy-wet;
The bird-nests they are silent yet.
Where to, before the rising sun
The world her light is giving?
"To earn a living."

O, whither, whither, pretty child,
So late at night a-strolling?
Alone, with darkness round you curled?
All rests! and sleeping is the world.
Where drives you now the wind so wild?
The midnight bells are tolling!
Day hath not warmed you with her light;
What aid can't hope then from the night
Night's deaf and blind! Oh whither, child
Light-minded fancies weaving?

"To earn a living."

CHANUKAH THOUGHTS

NOT always as you see us now,
Have we been used to weep and sigh,
We too have grasped the sword, I trow,
And seen astonished foemen fly!

We too have rushed into the fray,
For our belief the battle braved,
And through the spears have fought our
[way.]
And high the flag of vict'ry waved.

But generations go and come,
And suns arise and set in tears,
And we are weakened now and dumb,
Foregone the might of ancient years.

In exile where the wicked reign,
Our courage and our pride expired,
But e'en today each throbbing vein
With Asmonean blood is fired.

Tho' cruel hands with mighty flail
Have threshed us, yet we have not
blenched,
That fire is burning, still unquenched.

Our fall is great, our fall is real,
(You need but look on us to tell!)
Yet in us lives the old Ideal
Which all the nations shall not quell.

WIDOWS' FAMILIES

Pensioned and Otherwise¹

By William H. Matthews

DIRECTOR, DEPARTMENT OF FAMILY WELFARE, NEW YORK ASSOCIATION FOR IMPROVING THE CONDITION OF THE POOR

WE have not been engaged in relief work for these many years without learning that much is needed in the lives of our people other than mere material relief; that people do not always need what they most want, nor want what they most need. Yet we have also learned that, where the income of a family is below a certain point, the family must of necessity deteriorate by reason of insufficiency of food, lack of clothing, improper and unfit housing; that the lack of these elementary yet necessary things will of itself mean dwarfed, stunted, inefficient lives. Food, clothing and shelter are for the poor, as they are for the more prosperous, essential preliminaries to a humanized life, necessary for the mere maintenance of the functions of the body in normal state. Any adequate program of treatment of widows and their children must give assurance that at least this "indispensable minimum" shall be made possible to each and all alike.

We cannot reasonably hope for any upward trend in families we would help; we cannot hope for results by way of stronger, more resolute bodies and minds which shall in the children's later years mean a larger initiative, efficiency and productiveness, unless we remove from their lives today that constant crushing anxiety that not only deadens hope and aspiration in the mother's life, but also gradually lays its withering, paralyzing hand on the lives of the children, creating a downward pressure on life instead of an upward energy, sapping and undermining the vigor and hope of every member of the family.

Qualities of courage, faith, hope and thrift are not, generally speaking, bred and nurtured in families where continued poverty of life makes it impossible for them to look upon today as the threshold of a better tomorrow.

In some cases the weekly income of a family must of necessity be supplied entirely by the relief organization in charge; in others, the organization needs only to supplement the earnings of an older child, or in some instances, those of the mother herself; again, there may be friends or relatives able and willing to assist in part. Be that as it may, the plan made for the family must bring to

¹From a report just issued by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, New York city.

I. The Indispensable Minimum

the mother the assurance of a definite weekly income, determined by an accurate analysis of the conditions and needs of the family and surely sufficient to supply the normal demands of family life. Any assistance given must be of sufficient amount so that the mother will not be required to work under conditions which mean the breaking of health and strength or the neglect of her children.

Idle it is to deny that a considerable number of people have become convinced that private relief has failed in its efforts to deal adequately with all families that find themselves threatened with or already suffering from such conditions of life, particularly in those homes where distress has crowded and crushed its way by reason of the sickness and death of the main breadwinner of the family. Evidence of such decision is seen in the various acts of legislation that have already been passed in many states, having for their purpose the alleviating and removing of such distress through funds to be gathered and administered by city, county, or state, as also in the appointment of commissions in other cities and states for the purpose of studying present conditions with a view of recommending like legislation.

The Pension Policy

As to the wisdom and justice of adequately caring for women and children who find themselves in or near poverty by reason of the death of the head of the family, we may assume there is no difference of opinion. For some years several of the better equipped private relief societies have been following that policy with at least a few of their families, increasing the number each year as their funds permitted. The New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor has been one of these. In records ten years old one may read of instances where regular weekly allowances were being made to mothers to the end that they and their children might remain together and that they might not feel the necessity of

working beyond their strength for the maintenance of their homes. Yet it was not until 1912 that the association entered upon this "pension policy" on any large scale.

We need not waste time here in discussing the correctness of the term. No vital distinction can be drawn between sums paid in this way and those paid in ordinary relief. Pensions differ in that they are expected to be adequate to meet all the necessities of family life, are paid regularly, are assured to the mother for a definite period of time, thus relieving her from worry and enabling her to adjust her expenses to her income. It is doubtful whether widows' pensions can be dissociated from the idea of relief. In fact, does any program having for its purpose the relief of the afflicted, the caring for the aged, the succoring of the widowed and fatherless, give any promise of such dissociation unless it be a comprehensive plan of social insurance to which all shall make contribution?

But the name is not so important as the method of administration, the spirit in which the pensions are given and received. It will always be a fair question as to whether it is relief itself or the methods by which it is administered that encourage dependency and create pauperism. There is always the danger that in our dread of making people dependent we shall cease to do good for fear of doing harm.

But there are in this city, as in others, thousands of men and women who have received and are now receiving years of education in preparatory schools, colleges and post-graduate schools by aid of scholarships and money grants. They are given these funds in the hope and belief that they will some day make return to the community in the way of useful, helpful lives. The assumption is that they will.

In precisely the same spirit should we supply in adequate measure an income to the families under discussion that shall give opportunity for education, health and all desirable development to these boys and girls until they at least arrive at working age, believing that such investment will be returned in the way of healthy, vigorous, red-blooded workers, that it is an insurance against under-vitalized, stunted, inefficient bodies, against breakage and wastage of future citizenship, against an increase

in that part of our juvenile population that ever keeps busy the machinery of juvenile courts, truancy schools, reformatories and other like institutions.

Administered in this spirit it will make little difference whether we call them "pensions," "mothers' allowances," "compensations to mothers," or by some other more pleasing name. Until the income needed for the maintenance and enforcement of a fair standard of life is assured there can be no foundation upon which the visitor from the relief organization, the nurse, the dietitian, can work.

With this hope and belief the New York Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor is adding to its

pension list each month as many widows' families as its funds make possible. 50 pensions have been granted since December, 1912.^{*} Of these, 7 have been discontinued, 3 by reason of the mother's remarriage, 3 because increase in age and earning ability of children made the family self-supporting; and 1 because of conclusive evidence of the mother's immorality. 43 families remain on the association's pension list. It must not be concluded that these constitute all of the widows' families receiving some definite allowance each week in the way of money or relief in kind. Of these we

will speak later. It does mean that in these 43 pensioned families, the association is supplementing or providing in full an income adequate to provide the necessities of life and to make possible a fairly high standard of home and child care, and that the work being done by the mother outside of her household duties is, neither in kind nor amount, endangering her health or causing her to neglect her children.³

As briefly as possible, and in so far as they lend themselves to statistical tabulation, let us set down some of the more salient facts pertaining to these 43 families and picture as accurately as we can the results achieved by this experiment.

II. The Pensioned Group

SEVEN nationalities are represented in the mothers of this group. Ireland was the birthplace of 14, the United States and Italy of 12 each, England of 2, Russia, Sweden and Switzerland, each, of one. With one exception, all have been residents of the United States for ten years or longer. In practically every instance residence has been in New York city. These facts, however, have not determined the granting of a pension.

The average age of these women at their husbands' death was 37 years, 3 months.

Eight mothers of this group spend part of their time at work outside their homes. We have deemed it wise for mothers to engage in work away from home only to a small extent, believing that the care of home and children called for their whole time and strength. The total hours of those who thus work are 172 per week and the total wages per week, \$30.50. The occupations are washing and cleaning in four cases; of the other four, one is an office attendant, one is in a millinery store, one is a waitress, and one helps at a milk station. In each of these instances proper provision has been made for watchful care of the children by relatives or friends while the mother is away.

It is sometimes said that these mothers should be expected to work where home demands are not urgent and where the age of the children is not such as to require considerable oversight, to which we are inclined to reply that it is the presence of children in the home that makes home demands urgent and that all children require oversight, irrespective of their age. In making decisions as to whether the mother might safely spend some time in gainful occupation away from home, we have striven to keep clearly in our mind as well as in the mother's, that her first duty lay in the proper rearing of her children.

By working at home 10 mothers are able to supplement their income. Three

do plain sewing, 3 wash, 2 finish clothing, one embroiders, and one is a milliner. Their total wages per week amount to \$33.75. Seven other women are janitresses, and receive free rent.

That economic breakdown comes in many of these families before widowhood, where the long sickness of the father has made necessary an appeal to relief-giving agencies, is a fact well known to social workers. In the case of these 43 families, 19 had received no charitable assistance so far as we could ascertain, previous to the time of widowhood; 9 had applied for assistance for a short period (6 months or less) before the husband's death, the loss of his wages through sickness having thrown the family below the level of self-support; the remaining 15 appear on our own records or those of other relief agencies as having sought assistance in previous emergencies ranging in periods from one to several years. In nearly all cases where the economic breakdown of the family had become serious before the death of the father, we find that tuberculosis was the sickness and the cause of death. Twenty-two of the 43 fathers died of tuberculosis.

Efforts to Restore Health

Most persistent and painstaking have been the efforts of visitors and nurses to restore the broken health of the mothers whose minds and bodies bore the traces of stress and strain during the protracted illness of the father. Prejudice of some of the women against public health agencies, lamentable failure at times to realize the need of continued hospital treatment,—these had to be patiently, kindly softened and overcome. Not all these mothers are today in good health. Educational nurses

^{*}Since this article was prepared, the A. I. C. P. has granted twelve more pensions.

must continue to visit many of the homes for some time yet. But trappings back and forth to dispensaries, clinics and hospitals are growing less, and treatment is being watched and followed by the association's nurses.

The opinions of doctors, nurses and visitors who have been responsible for the treatment of mothers in this group, show the health condition to be as follows:

General health good.....	25
Under attention of tuberculosis clinics.....	9
Bronchitis.....	1
Extreme nervousness.....	2
Ruptured.....	3
Obtusal rheumatism.....	3
Varicose veins.....	1

43

There are 191 children in all the 43 families, averaging 4.4 per family. The largest family has 8; the smallest, 2. Seventeen are boys over 14; 8 girls over 14. The others are under 14 years. Of the 17 boys over 14 years, 8 are at work at the following occupations and weekly wages:

Factory.....	\$7.00
Window dresser.....	6.00
Errand boy.....	6.00
Office boy.....	5.00
Errand boy.....	5.00
Messenger.....	4.50
Messenger.....	4.00
Lithographer's apprentice.....	3.00

Of the 8 girls over 14, 3 are at work: 1 in a factory at \$5 per week, 1 in an office at \$5 and the third as a clerk in a store at \$4 per week. The largest number of children working in 1 family is 2. In 33 of the families no children are at work. In several instances the pension plan has included the securing of a scholarship for some one of the children in the family. Much effort has been made to guide the children in their choice of an occupation that should give promise of a steady development of ability and consequent earning power.

It should be said also that our association is giving like care to several families other than those of widows, where the father is totally incapacitated for work by reason of illness (usually advanced tuberculosis) or insanity. These will not be discussed in this paper.

An examination of the school records of the children not at work shows regular attendance in each case.

Fifteen children are in institutions. Five are committed temporarily because of the mother's health; 5 are in hospitals for treatment of tuberculosis; 5 (boys) are in correctional institutions. As the waywardness of these 5 boys developed before the association made it possible for the mothers to remain at home, it is a fair question whether earlier action might not have prevented the necessity of commitment.

In emphasizing, as many relief societies do today, the fact that no children are now being committed to institutions by reason of poverty alone, we must be sure that the mothers of such children are not being required to toil beyond their strength to supply an income necessary to their family's maintenance; that the lives of mother and children are not being impoverished by the business of making a livelihood.

Medical Care

The health of the children in all but 4 of the 43 families needed medical and nursing attention when they came under our care.

Today the opinion of doctors and nurses is that in 26 of the 43 families the children are all in good health. In the other 17 families:

- 9 children must be closely watched and treated for possible development of tuberculosis.
- 4 are affected with slight heart trouble.
- 2 are suffering from infantile paralysis.
- 2 are afflicted with trachoma.
- 3 are crippled.
- 1 is mentally deficient.

From three of the families in which all of the children are now reported as in good health, children have, at our nurses' direction, spent periods at Otisville or at preventoria and are now at home well.

The combined total weekly income of the 43 families before the illness of the father was \$653.45, an average per family of \$15.19. The range of weekly wages of the men is shown in the following table:

Number earning \$8 to \$10 per week	5
" " \$10 " \$12 "	3
" " \$12 " \$14 "	10
" " \$14 " \$16 "	14
" " \$16 " \$18 "	1
" " \$18 per week or over	10
	43

These figures represent the men at full working capacity and not when illness had incapacitated them for regular work. It is well known that at such times the wife often supplements the income by going out to work. But even such combined effort often fails to keep the family income to the point attained when the husband was in full health.

Today, the combined total weekly income of the 43 families is \$570.61, an average per family of \$13.27. This income is obtained from the following sources:

\$111.00, 19%,	is earned by the mothers including the free rent of janitress service in 7 families and money received from 12 boarders or lodgers in 9 families (9 of the 12 lodgers being relatives).
54.50, 9%,	is earned by the children of working age.
17.25, 3%,	is given by church and church societies.
17.75, 3%,	is given by other agencies interested in families.
6.00, 1%,	is given by relatives.
364.11, 65%,	is supplied in weekly payments by the A. I. C. P. (The largest pension is \$14.25 a week to a mother with six children; the smallest, \$2.50; average \$34.00 per month.)

\$570.61, 100%

As a method of pensioning, the general rule of the association is not to pension definitely until a family has been known to the Family Welfare Department for a period of 6 months. Assistance is given in other ways, however, during the interim. The pension decision having been reached, a budget is made of the family needs,—food expense planned by a trained dietitian, and other needs, such as rent, clothing, etc., usually determined by the visitor in consultation with the mother. The other sources of income are ascertained, effort being made to secure co-operation from relatives, churches or other agencies interested in the family. The difference between such combined sources of income and the need of the family is then supplied by the association. The pension amount is always paid in weekly instalments, a visit being made to the home for such purpose.

The standard or diet required for normal conditions as determined by Atwater demands an allowance for season, age, sex, growth and occupation. This requirement has been studied by our dietitians also in relation to home

conditions, experience of other workers and the changing cost of living.

Atwater uses the working man as his unit in fixing the necessary amount of food. The association, following his lead, adopts the working man as its unit of cost, as do many other workers in similar fields.

The allowance for food according to the dietitian's schedule, is \$0.27 for the man, \$0.26 for the mother and each child over 14, \$0.08 for the children under two years. Where tuberculosis or other pathological conditions exist, the necessity of increased feeding is usually made by an increased allowance. But this is, we believe, the lowest sum at which a theoretically adequate diet may be fixed.

Dietaries are made practically adequate by the ability of the dietitian in adapting them to the conditions of each family, through practical instruction given the women in their homes concerning the care and cooking of food, and in the prevention of waste.

Allowances

The question of rent is usually one of facing actual conditions. When the visitor reports that the family is in fairly satisfactory quarters, the rent is taken as it stands. Otherwise the budget provides for any additional rent involved in moving the family to better quarters.

Experience fixes the items of fuel and light at \$2 per month for summer, \$3 for autumn and \$4 to \$5 for winter.

The allowance made for clothing is \$2 per month for older members of a family, with a decreasing proportion for the others.

In sundries there is the same difficulty as in clothing—a lack of standards. The size of the family and individuality of each member must be considered. An allowance of from \$2 to \$3 per month is now made as the "irreducible minimum."

Although inclined to discourage the insuring of children under our present expensive methods of industrial insurance, the association generally continues to pay insurance already taken out in these families, because no satisfactory substitute has yet been provided. This

TWO OF THE ASSOCIATION'S BUDGET FORMS

Where the A. I. C. P. supplies the entire income

Mother and 6 children, oldest 13 years of age, youngest 2 years; 1 boy in sanatorium.

FAMILY BUDGET

MONTHLY INCOME		MONTHLY EXPENDITURES	
Woman earns		Rent	\$12.00
Children earn		Food	29.00
Lodger		Fuel	
Church—gives occasional aid in clothing.		Light	4.00
Other societies		Clothing	8.00
A. I. C. P. Pension	\$57.00	Carfare	
		Lunches	
		Dues	
		Insurance	2.00
		Sundries	2.00
Total	\$57.00	Total	\$57.00

Where the A. I. C. P. supplements the income

Mother and 8 children, oldest 16 years, youngest 6 years.

FAMILY BUDGET

MONTHLY INCOME		MONTHLY EXPENDITURES	
Woman earns	\$14.00	Rent	\$15.50
Boy earns	24.00	Food	44.64
"		Fuel	3.00
Lodger		Light	1.00
Church (and clothing occasionally)	8.00	Clothing	11.00
Relatives		Carfare (to work)	2.00
Other societies		Lunches	
A. I. C. P. Pension	37.00	Dues	
		Insurance	2.00
		Sundries	8.00
Total	\$83.00	Total	\$82.14

Do Widows' Pensions Pay? Three Answers

I.

"I am very thankful for what has been done for my family and myself in keeping our Home together. I tried after my Husband died to go to work every day and make a living for us which I found was very hard to do and at same time try to take care of my Home and Children. My health broke down. I was unable to work. Then the awful thought came before me of having to break up our home and put my Children in an Institution. Miss — who at that time was my visitor made plans for me that made me feel very happy both for my Children's sake and my own. My boys are not strong boys and need a mother's care what they cannot give them in an Institution. I hope I will live to see the time my boys will be able to thank you and show their appreciation of the good that has been done for us, in keeping our little Home together.

Yours Very Sincerely,"

II.

"I read your letter over and over for it gave me such a pleasure to think of someone thinking of our welfare in your standing. We are all well and happy and living nicely for ones of our mean's, my children has grown so lately and does many a little thing for me. I am very proud of them but every mother feels the same towards her children. I would have no home but for you, its you & all of you have kept me. The visitor's I cannot find words for them for my gratitude towards them not only what they gave me but gave me such an idea to live they have helped me in every ways it always made me feel good when they came to see me the taught me lots of things that I would never know of I wonder many and many a time if ever I will be able to show my appreciation towards them I speak to my children many a time about them I hope my little girl will be something like them some day.

Yours Most Respectfully,"

III.

"I am proud to think that you are taking great interest in my Dear Children & myself. Your Assistance of 10\$ weekly has certainly made an improvement with us every way, for we have plenty to eat and lots of milk to drink, and clothing for children, their appetite is increasing are fat and stronger, health is better. I have not the drag as I had nor worry, as I have more time for home what I did not have to attend to their clothing and mending keep them clean also the home I have it cosy and comfortable & we are all well and happy at present. I think if you had not come to my assistance I would have been in my grave by this and I think if other mothers goes by your instructions they also will find improvement in their homes as I have done and I thank Miss — and Miss — for instructing me how to cook and lay my money out.

I remain yours Sincerely,"

is one of the problems of relief concerning which there is much difference of opinion.

Ability to spend a stated income wisely is not uniform among these mothers to any greater degree, perhaps, than among other circles. Some will plan wisely, buy advantageously, cook well; others will not. Malnutrition resulting from too frequent buying from a delicatessen store or push-cart or from poor cooking, may be quite as evil in its results as that which comes from under-feeding.

Ignorance, it may be, which gives a sufficient quantity of food but not of the kind which has body-building and health-keeping value; love, it may be, yet love without knowledge, that feeds children on buns, pickles and coffee; carelessness sometimes, which allows dirt to accumulate and food to become unfit for use. Again, it is quite conceivable that some mothers might be tempted to cut down the amount allowed for food for the sake of spending more on dress or amusements. To guard against these possible situations, the dietitian often visits the home to make suggestions as to buying, to give detailed lessons in cooking if desired. Sewing teachers are also used to give instruction to the mothers and to older girls of the families. The object of all this personal work whether it be done by relief visitor, nurse or dietitian, is the building up of self-reliance, creating stability in the family life, giving people knowledge that shall bring with it power and responsibility

for planning and shaping their own lives.

Finally, before leaving this question of the budget, we wish to emphasize that in every case the personal factor must be more or less considered.

Some families found it possible before the father's death to live on a slightly smaller expenditure than that which we estimated. Whether the result meant under-feeding in that family, can be determined only by exact knowledge of physical conditions. This knowledge would also determine the advisability of increasing the relief in such families. On the other hand, some families, accustomed to a slightly larger income, could make the readjustment only after they had received much education. The allowance made for meeting a deficit of income in such families must be based upon the most complete and accurate data possible.

Results

In answering the question, "What results show in families where the program just outlined has been followed?" we have depended not only on a study of case records, valuable as these are; we have drawn our conviction as to the progress which these families have made, the promise and hope resident in them, from more vital sources. We offer the careful conclusions of visitors who have been dealing at first hand with all these people, who in daily contact have come to know every member of every family, who by friendliness and companionship have won their way into

the lives of "their people". From nurses who have toiled unsparingly to restore health and courage to mothers and to secure disease-resisting bodies for little children; and from dietitians who have instructed the mothers in buying, caring for and preparing food.

The conviction of these experienced workers is that there has been a decided and practical trend upward, that these families have made progress—physical; mental and moral; that money invested in them is returning interest in lives made stronger, ambition kindled, courage renewed, outlook broadened; that this adequate relief, plus personal interest and ministrations, means to the children an opportunity they are not failing to improve,—the opportunity to grow into healthy, honest, capable manhood, and into gentle, intelligent, healthy, homemaking womanhood.

There is yet a third source of reliable information about the results of our pension policy. From the mothers themselves there come to us almost daily messages and letters telling us what this help and friendship has meant to them and to their children—stories of the resurrection of hope, courage and joy of living in lives once bare and monotonous from constant anxiety, hardship and struggle; stories that tell of families released from a deadening poverty of life and environment and given at least a fair chance to throw off the shackles and to fight their way out of the blight into the light. From our mail of the last few days we take the messages given at the top of this page.

BUT there is another picture.

On February 1, 1914, the association had under its care 659 widows. Of this number 185 were childless and many aged; they are not included in this study. Of the remaining 474, 43 are—as just shown—pensioned. What of the remaining 431?

In the personnel of this group 17 nationalities are represented—chiefly Italy, Germany, Ireland and the United States. Their average age at the husband's death was 35. In occupation and wages there is but little variation—office cleaning, washing for the majority, laundry work for those physically hardy. Many of the women who follow these more strenuous and regular occupations lose their positions periodically because of sickness or home cares.

A few other women meet all or part of their rent by janitress service. In all, 192, or 44%, work away from home. It will be recalled that of the 43 pensioned mothers, only 7, or 17%, worked away from home.

In this group are 1,572 children, an average of 3.6 per family. Of these 200 are girls over 14; 194 boys over 14. The tendency is to get these children to work as soon as school grade permits. This is not because parents and visitors are indifferent to education, but because the children must supplement the family income as early as possible. Of the boys over 15 years, 131 earn an average of \$5.68 each per week. Of the girls over 14, 106 earn an average of \$5-\$8 each per week.

Twenty-four children from 20 families are in reformatory institutions because of truancy and waywardness. The explanation of this given by our visitors is "inability of the mothers to control their children."

Medical and nursing service has been given to children of 347 families. Twenty children are at present in institutions for restoring health. Our experience with children of the pensioned group leads us to believe that in the large number of cases the lesser ailments that keep these mothers in attendance upon clinics and dispensaries are traceable to insufficiency and uncertainty of income.

Many of the families are living in more or less congested quarters and un-

III. The Non-Pensioned Group

der conditions that smack not of cleanliness of living. Lack of better accommodations at a reasonable price in the neighborhood where they prefer to live by reason of strong local ties, as also from the natural desire to be near their work that both time and carfare may be saved in going back and forth—this makes improvement in this respect most difficult. Further, janitress service, which means free rent, is for many of these women the surest source of income; but apartments given for that purpose are often in the least desirable part of the building. 34 of the 431 families are fortunate enough to have bathrooms in their dwellings; 327 have access only to hall toilets. The average rent paid per family is approximately \$12.

Family Earnings

The average weekly income per family in this group was, before the father's illness, \$14.16. Some men earned only \$6 a week or less; some earned \$18 and over, but the low wages of the majority may well be given as one reason why the families became more or less dependent, for insufficient income means insufficient food, shelter and clothing, and hence exposure to the diseases that prey on under-fed, poorly clothed, and badly housed people. Of these diseases, tuberculosis took the lives of 173 (40%) of the fathers; pneumonia, 44 (10%); heart-disease, 34 (8%); industrial accidents, 23 (5%); Bright's disease, 22 (5%). Long illness of the father meant in many cases not only stress and strain and the down-dragging pull of poverty before his death, but also using up of savings that in a few cases had been accumulated. As a result, the mother passed into widowhood and the children into half orphanhood with bodies under-vitalized, energy

sapped and mind and hearts at low ebb.

That disease found progress easier in some instances by reason of intemperate habits is true. A drink at morning, noon and night seemed the easy and quick way to cut fatigue and give stimulus for the day's work. But the story of many of these men show them fighting on bravely to the last until tired, diseased bodies refused longer to be coerced; the mother meanwhile supplementing by her work the lessened income, and the relief agencies stepping in when the family fell at last below the self-sustaining line.

In many instances some time elapsed between the date of the husband's death and that on which the families applied or were referred to us for assistance. The explanation of this is found in the fact that insurance had been carried by many of the men. But where insurance was less than \$200, it was consumed at once by funeral expenses and debts contracted during the illness. Death benefits from lodges, contributions by employers and fellow employees were received in some cases. Sick benefits were received in only 33 of the entire 431 families. We cannot discuss here the bearing of these figures on the need for some form of social insurance which shall meet the contingencies that sickness brings to the wage-earning part of the community. Of the 23 industrial accident cases, damages were received in 13; 5 suits are still pending.

A careful study of the monthly budgets of these 431 families compared with those of the 43 pensioned families showed that the additional amount that would be necessary for the 431 families to maintain the standard of living set for our pensioned families would be \$6,062.87 per month. In some families the income is equal to or in excess of the necessary expenditures. In others, the income is considerably below the amount necessary to maintain the standard made possible to the 43 pensioned families.

So much for a brief review of the present circumstances of these 431 families. The question arises, Should an effort be made to treat all our widows' families on the basis on which we treat the 43? Should all these families ultimately be pensioned?

IV. Our Program for the Future

WE are not ready to say that all of these families should be so treated at once. Many of them, we believe, should. We are well aware that adequacy of treatment cannot be wholly measured in figures of dollars and cents; that sufficiency of income in one family may simply mean that the mother or the children are working when they should be at home or in school; or again, that

insufficiency of income may mean that some individuals in the family are not doing all that they should. Again, it may well be that some few of these homes are of a character that would make any effort unwise to keep them intact. Poor as institutions may be as

substitutes for family life, there is no question that they are better than occasional homes with which we have acquaintance.

Yet in making decision as to what family shall be accorded aid in the form of a pension and what family shall not, we must not attempt that impossible thing—drawing an arbitrary line between a fit and an unfit mother. In

a few cases the facts will be palpably plain. In many others quite the opposite will be true, and any early attempt to judge too finely between deserving and undeserving, worthy and unworthy, promising and unpromising, will tend as always, to make the administration of such relief unequal, if not degrading.

Friendship won by continuous service,—that alone can determine merit. From the ordeal of the average relief application office, where they must be grouped and counted among general applicants for relief, these mothers and children may well be spared. Self-fault, improvidence and imposition on their part should not be assumed. The most precious asset to be preserved is independence, self-respect, the finer fibre of those subjected to stress and strain. We play fast and loose with these qualities, especially when dealing with children, when by any system of relief giving we make it necessary for them to appeal constantly to individuals or to institutions for aid.

Uniformity

Again, it is highly important, in our opinion, that similar needs in different families should be met with some approach to consistency, that there should be a degree of uniformity as to methods and standards of treatment. Without such a controlling principle there is bound to come unfair discrimination; a provoking of a sense of injustice; a feeling of bitterness and resentment towards a policy of relief which gives to one family what, for no apparent, understandable reason, it refuses to another.

Certain conditions to be met by those desiring aid must, of course, be made; but these should be of a nature easily understood by all—a statistical statement establishing beyond question the fact of widowhood, the number and ages of the children, the resources and needs of the family. At the same time it must be made plain to the mother under what conditions the aid is given and what will be required of her to assure its continuance.

We believe that a fairly high standard of character and home care should be expected from the mother; that continuous and adequate relief should be used as a lever, if necessary, to lift and keep families to a reasonable standard in such matters as care of health, regular attendance upon school, and general conduct. But it is utterly unfair to demand these things until we have supplied the means that make them possible, just as unfair as it would be for a public school system to demand that parents send their children to school without providing the school buildings to which they might send them.

We do not mean to say that work of inspection will not later on be neces-

sary from time to time. It should deal with the health of the children, their progress in school, and the general condition of the home. Women of high grade and of rare tact and sympathy are required for such work. The delicate needs of these families cannot be met by clumsy, untrained minds and hands. Rather do they call for that which only people of fine spirit and fine mind can give. The influence by which the weak are inspired and strengthened to overcome temptation, the setting up of ideals which shall enlarge the outlook on life, the giving which carries with it the personal interest and service of the giver—this is the charity that overcomes poverty.

It is quite likely that such subsequent investigation will show some mistakes made. Better that risk than the larger one of compelling all to live through a period of minute and trying investigation, of wearing anxiety, of possible want at a time when they are least able to bear it. I have no doubt that there will arise occasion when there will be need of rigid interference with the wishes of the parent. The safety of the whole community may, at times, plainly require the removal to an institution, the placing under custodial or probationary care, of this or that member of the family distinctly unsound or unfit in mind or body. A relief program must not only be comprehensive and just; it must also be educational and, if necessary, disciplinary.

Vision and Action

This then should be our program: Nothing less than the treatment of all our widows' families on the same basis on which we are treating the 43 which we have described.

Believe as we may and do in the necessity of accident prevention laws that shall protect the living and thus reduce the number of widows and dependent children; in workmen's compensation and employers' liability laws so that industry shall bear the expense of maimed, mangled and worn out workers; in the working out of a comprehensive plan of social insurance that shall make adequate provision against all insurable risks, such as sickness, death and old age—yet we cannot let possible future solutions blind our eyes to present conditions that call for immediate relief, to the plain fact that in a large number of families today, in spite of all the work we and others are doing, the health of both mother and children is impaired and deterioration rather than rehabilitation is taking place.

Visions and prophecies of a day when, by large preventive social measures, the causes of want and destitution shall be cut away, must not prevent us from taking immediate steps towards remedying some of the worst conditions that have

fallen upon these women and children. These but follow our failure in the past to check and to prevent the growth of adverse social and industrial conditions which are in large part responsible for the stress, the strain, and the want, that now cruelly grip their lives.

A New Budget

How much money do the facts which this inquiry discloses indicate would be necessary for this association to expend for the accomplishment of such purpose? According to records, it would have required an expenditure of approximately \$6,062.87 more in the month of January than was actually expended. For twelve months this would mean \$72,754.44. It would seem, then, that an increase in the budget of at least \$72,754.44 would be needed for material relief for the next fiscal year for widows' families alone, and this without taking account of any possible increase in the number that may come into our care.

But further, this standard of relief which we would apply to widows' cases should also be applied to certain other classes of cases, such as families in which the breadwinner is totally incapacitated for work either temporarily or permanently by chronic sickness or insanity.

Our experience with the many families in our care in which chronic sickness in one form or another exists, leads us to believe that the necessary raising of the standard in this group would require an additional annual expenditure of approximately \$20,000.00. This, added to the amount necessary for widows' cases, makes a total of \$92,754.44.

Additions to our working staff would be necessary for administering this additional relief. Adequate material relief, however, can be administered at no greater cost than can inadequate. Material relief represents in part the tools with which the visitor or nurse, or dietitian, works for the up-building and rehabilitation of the family whose distress summons her to its side. The need of personal service in addition to material relief, that we need not again emphasize, but they must go together. The strength of one will give strength to the other. The personal service rendered by the Good Samaritan to the sufferer by the roadside, the money spent to restore him to health and efficiency,—one was as essential as the other to the accomplishment of that end. The service, the sympathy, the love which has gone into the lives of the women and children of the 43 pensioned families has meant larger accomplishment by way of better and stronger lives because with it has gone adequate treatment of material needs. To all of our families as they need would we render this combined service.



MRS. LINTON A. COX

Friend and supporter of the housing movement.

“Beauty for Ashes”

Chapter VIII

First Experiences in the Legislature

Albion Fellows Bacon



LINTON A. COX

President of the Indiana Housing Association.

THE family sat and listened to my story of the charities conference and the Commercial Club luncheon. They heard the climax without flinching—I was to go to the Legislature.

“But how can I manage about leaving you?” I asked, looking from one to the other.

“Go!” said the family. “We’ll manage all right.”

“I will keep house and see to the children,” said my womanly eldest daughter who was just out of school.

“I will come right up and stay,” said my mother who had dropped in for a little visit.

Then there was nothing to worry about. My mother took intense interest in my housing work. How glad she was to contribute to it in this way!

Listening for the knell of the telephone, to summon me to the committee hearing at Indianapolis, I set about my preparation for absence, I knew not how prolonged. Photographs, reports and clothes were packed and ready. Then there were the family supplies and wardrobe to look after, to see that nothing lacked. The last thing was to tack a type-written card on the wall of the nursery, lest some of my many directions should be forgotten:

THE CHILDREN’S HEAVY UNDERWEAR IS ON THE SECOND SHELF IN THE LINEN ROOM.

BE SURE TO KEEP THEM HOME FROM SCHOOL IF IT STORMS.

IN CASE OF SORE THROAT, USE ———, ETC.

At last the dread summons came. I tore myself away from the family. My husband put me on the train with many last services and injunctions, and set the bag that held the precious bill on the seat beside me. All the way up to Indianapolis I thought how Daniel felt, on his way to the lions’ den. It was not facing the committee that I dreaded but the public ordeal, and the fear of doing the wrong thing that might wreck the whole undertaking. Every time I thought of that, it gave me that “gone,” faint feeling, which seems like heart failure, but is really, I’ve been told, only a trick of the pneumogastric nerve. It was the same sensation that the Big Dog always gave me in childhood.

The Fight in Prospect

As the train whirled me nearer to the Legislature, the step I was taking seemed more serious, though I had realized from the beginning what it would involve. There was no glamour of misconception over it. There would be opposition. It would be a fight to win, not all those things I wanted for the poor, not comforts, not conveniences, only bare decencies; not those things that would make life worth living, but only a few of those things that would make it less terrible. It would be only taking the first step on a long, weary road. It would be only laying the foundation for the tall, shining castle of my dreams, the fortress of the people’s rights, that could hardly be finished, with dome and spire, in my life-time, perhaps not in another generation.

All we could expect to win was a tenement law,—not a law regulating

all houses, though I felt keenly how much that was needed, as so many of our poor lived in shacks and hovels. But no other state had yet gone so far, and we could not expect to take such a stride at our first attempt. I felt how remote was the ultimate ideal of housing reform, which would regulate all buildings, insuring them to be safe and sanitary, and not a menace in any way to public health or morals.

Yet, even supposing we could attain that ideal, at one bound, in a perfect law, perfectly enforced, still there would be all those essentials of environment for the betterment of the poor that law could not secure, that only philanthropy or an awakened civic spirit could provide. Not matters of convenience only, and of comfort, or at least the lack of discomforts, but of beauty and of outlook that means so much to the moral development of a people—not one of these would be secured.

But, the law had to come first,—to come, then to be enforced, as I am often reminded. I cherished no fond delusion that the moment the governor signed the bill (if it passed), it would automatically take effect, and that crystal water would burst at once from thousands of faucets in all our cities, sunlight break into dark rooms, slimy yards grow a firm velvety sod, and Death and Destruction slink away, leaving rosy children playing among flowers around all our tenements. No, indeed! But, even though only the first step were to be taken, so vital was it, so necessary, that it was worth one whole life-time of toil and struggle just to take that first, biggest, hardest step.



MRS. J. D. FOOR
Whose watchful care saved the bill
from disaster.

Although I had friends in Indianapolis, I thought best not to let them know that I was coming, surmising that my business would be all-engrossing. So I went at once on arrival to the Claypool, near the state house. It had been arranged that Senator Ezra Mattingly and Representative Homer McGinnis should introduce the bill simultaneously in their respective houses. This had been done. These two, with Senator Linton A. Cox, Dr. J. N. Hurty, C. S. Grout, and others interested in the bill, came over to the hotel after dinner, that we might have a brief consultation before the committee hearing.

The state house loomed big and gray against the night. The lights at its gloomy entrance seemed to intensify the darkness. Inside, the great empty corridors, dimly lighted, seemed like caverns of Night, and echoed dismally to our steps.

We emerged like bats into a brilliantly lighted committee room that was fairly well filled. I was grateful to find a number of women present. Afterwards I found that Senator Cox's wife was one of them, and Dr. J. D. Foor's wife was another. From that moment until this, those two splendid women have stood by me.

Before Committees

Dr. Foor was chairman of the health committee in the house. He was there with his committee and so was the senate committee on health, for this was to be a joint hearing. The members of both were gathered informally about, but I could not distinguish them from citizens of Indianapolis, a number of whom were present, among them members of the Commercial Club whom I had met.

Everyone was as grave as if awaiting a public execution. The opening speech, by one of our men, sounded to me like the hammering of the carpenter who was

preparing the scaffold. Now I was called. The side of the great table which I had to pass seemed miles long, and the silence was so deep that if a whole paper of pins had been dropped it would not have touched bottom.

To address a legislative committee, I found, was very different from speaking before a missionary society, a charity organization, or a civic club, who are eager to listen and anxious to be convinced.

Many of these men were fagged, their minds overcrowded with details of numerous bills. Some were haggard and sleepy from a late caucus of the night before. I had thought to speak with some of the fire that burned within me, but my sentences seemed to me as if just taken out of an ice-box. My well-considered reasoning and rhetoric sounded, I felt, as meaningless as the rattling of a fusillade of dried peas. The silence grew oppressive. The tired men shifted in their hard chairs. Two, under the brilliant light, closed their eyes. One man came in at the door, two went out, with a slight confusion in the room. Were they bored? The idea was insupportable, so I fired a few more dried peas and sat down, without being half through. A few others gave short, vigorous talks, and the hearing was at an end. Everyone woke up, and, to my surprise, the meeting ended in enthusiasm, and we were given the assurance that both committees would report favorably on the bill. "You have won the first round," one of the men said, with congratulations.

Oh, the relief of common talk, after that strain! How good every friendly face looked, and they all seemed to be friends.

Friends of the Bill

Between us we had presented the case so clearly as to give the committee the whole situation, and nothing more was needed. Almost all of them were doctors, who had been fighting the very conditions that the bill was planned to remedy. From that time on they were the most enthusiastic supporters of the bill, and my kindest friends.

The next day the health committee of the house asked me to attend a separate hearing, to make certain points plain. Dr. Hurty was there, and Mrs. Foor sat by me. But with what good cheer and high-spirits I went. Daniel was at the king's table now. There were matters of policy to decide which made it necessary for me to remain at the capital. It was important, too, for me to meet as many of the members as possible. I was told.

My first glimpse of a legislature gave me the impression that Professor William James said the world gives to a baby. It seemed "a blooming, buzzing



J. D. FOOR, M. D.
Chairman health committee in the
house.

confusion." What were those men all shouting about? And who were all these people who were trying to get in and out? But presently the seething subsided, I caught a clue, and listened with interest.

After the session, my new friends gathered around me and brought up files and battalions of members for introduction. In a short time I had met almost every one, and found that, from the presiding officers down to the chubbiest cherub of a page, all were kindness and interest. Members assured me of a welcome to the floor, and offered the use of their desks at any time. Doorkeepers and sergeants were as hospitable as real hosts. The custodian of the statehouse himself saw to the stringing of my poster exhibit of city slums on wires along the corridor.

The main business, now, was to make friends for our bill, and all that was necessary, I felt, was that every man in the Legislature should know the facts about the homes of the poor and the remedial powers of the bill. But here were two big rooms full—one hundred and fifty men. It would take a long time to tell each of them the story and go over that long bill.

Before Senate and House

Our men—and their number was growing—decided that it would be a good stroke to have me speak to the whole Legislature, if possible. The plan was arranged late one night, at the Claypool, when Senator and Mrs. Cox and some others were there to dinner.

The next day the consent of both houses was secured, and the senate adjourned to sit in the house and listen to my argument. At that time I was too anxiously engrossed in planning for our cause to think of what a great personal honor was given me, though only once before had such a privilege been granted any woman. All I thought of was the opportunity to present the cause to

so many at once, and the need of white-hot, driving sentences.

The house filled up with my audience, and I sat in the rear with my friends, waiting for a long drawn out debate to come to an end. Then the gavel sounded; a few men conferred, near the front, and I heard Speaker Honan say, "Will the good-looking member from Morgan please escort the lady to the desk?" That meant Mr. McGinnis and myself. Up the aisle we passed, and the speaker gave me a cordial introduction. Standing a moment, to await silence, I looked up and down over the room. What a huge place! Our state house must have been built for giants. How far it seemed across the speaker's great desk! How remote were the lofty galleries! Oh, just for once, to be a man, with a big brass voice! But my friends, standing back by the door, could hear me, and they nodded encouragement. On the front seats were some kind human eyes that never wavered. They cared about the poor, I could see.

Enthusiasm Spreads

It was all over in a little while. I knew now how Vesuvius felt after an eruption, only that Vesuvius would just as soon do it again.

"Things look pretty well for the bill now," Senator Cox said. The enthusiasm of our men was spreading to the others. It would be several days before it would have a second reading in either house, and in the meantime we should all be working. "I believe I'll just stay up here a few days and help push it through," I said innocently, and Senator Cox explained, with a twinkle in his eye, that it would take weeks, not days.

Now and here let me say that if I had not found out what vague ideas people in general have about legislative processes I might not be so willing to admit my own ignorance. But I have found that the majority of people are hazy on such matters. I was a truly humble pupil, and acted only as I was directed, learning to venture, little by little, but with extreme caution.

It was a point of pride with me to avoid all the little things that cause the reproachful remark, "That's just like a woman," and to take, at least outwardly, all the fates of war in the calm impersonal way men do. To no one would I admit fear, or doubt of our ultimate victory, even in the darkest hours, for I realized the value of a confident bearing. Besides, could one engage to take a hand in this tremendous game, and fail of being sportsmanlike? It was my care to avoid sentimentality, and to stick to the practical issues in a practical way, having ready all the business arguments in favor of the law. I wouldn't have let one of those men know that I had ever written a verse.

My entire days were spent at the state house, strengthening our fortifications in every way possible. When the members were free, I explained the points of the bill to them, if they wished, showed them my photos of the slums, and told them plain facts about the poor. When they were busy, I talked with their wives. They were as horrified as I wanted them to be over the conditions I described.

Many of the wives came from little towns or rural districts. How I thanked my years in the country, for there was not an experience in these



J. N. HURTY, M. D.
Indiana State Health Commissioner.

women's lives into which I could not enter. We were good friends at sight, and they were ready to help me by explaining the situation to their husbands and even to the latter's seat mate or neighbor across the aisle.

At all times I had to be ready to meet all questions, not only of members, but of outsiders; and what questions, what arguments had to be answered! But no matter what ignorance, stupidity, avarice or hard-hearted indifference confronted me, I was determined that nothing should tempt me into antagonism or belligerency, for what I could not win I did not want.

The exhausting strain of these all-day sieges, amid bad air and tobacco smoke, and the confusion of a crowded room, may be imagined. I was glad by evening to plod back to the hotel, and, after a lonely dinner, to steal away to rest.

Members and their wives who stayed at the Claypool invited me to join their card and theater parties, but I could not spare the hours that would give strength for the next day's ordeal.

Having been always accorded respectful attention at the state house, I took it for granted that every one understood my footing. But one day a senator surprised me by asking, "Who pays your expenses?" "Why, my husband," I answered, taken aback and indignant. "Well, but what organization sent you here? Isn't some club paying your expenses?" It was hard to make him understand that I was not a paid lobbyist, but, when convinced, nothing gave him a higher appreciation of my work. I saw, then, why a disinterested individual had influence that a club could not wield.

The fact became established that I had come to the Legislature as the ambassador of the poor, not in a personal capacity, and I met people on this plane, even at first acquaintance. It began to have a strange reaction, this eliminating of personalities, and made me feel like a "voice in the wilderness." Even had I wished, I could not detach myself from my work for one moment, for the first sentence, after every introduction, was: "This is the lady who is interested, etc." I was content to have it so, and had neither breath nor strength for other conversation after the day's work was over.

Winning Helpers

One evening as I sat apart for a few moments on the balcony where the guests gathered after dinner, a member of the house, whom I had met most casually, a modest lawyer from a small town, came up and joined me. He began at once to make kindly inquiries about our bill, drawing out the story of its origin. He seemed much aroused by the stories I told him of the slums of our various cities. In return he told of his own experiences with the poor of his town, and then took up some of the problems of poverty. Step by step, forgetting that I was a stranger, he went on to talk of the higher life, and finally, with glowing face and kindling eyes that seemed not to see me, but to be fixed upon the future, he poured out his aspirations for larger and better things.

The next morning I met him in the state house, and he said:

"Mrs. Bacon, I sat up till two o'clock last night, to work for your bill."

This was only one of the many instances in which high appeal met with high response. Sometimes a simple story or a photograph would bring a look of pity and a word of compassion, or a burst of sudden anger against those who wronged the helpless. Often, in a few quiet sentences, would come a glimpse of the inner life, the "better self," as if a shutter had suddenly opened and a light flashed out. These were the men whose enthusiasm kept our cause alive, the men upon whom we could depend.

It is a wonderful thing to look back

upon, that in all my experience with that Legislature composed of men from every walk of life,—farmers, mechanics, lawyers, teachers, ward politicians, men of varied culture and limitations, there was never one occasion where I was not given to feel that womanhood was upon a pedestal. Sometimes I wonder if ever a woman had such royal treatment in any assembly. It is no wonder that I came out of my legislative experiences with a greater faith and pride in the chivalry of our Indiana men, not only for their attitude toward me, but in many instances, toward the weak, the poor and the helpless. Even after opposition developed to our bill, its enemies were no less courteous to me, personally. Indeed, they were as polite as French executioners. Some of them took pains to explain that they were friendly to me, even though they could not support my bill. It was "too ideal," they said!

"I'm sorry to see you wearing yourself out. You are getting thin and pale," one of them said, kindly. "Why don't you go home and rest?" "I will, if you will come over on our side, and see the bill through," I laughed.

"I'll declare, if that frail little woman can come up here and fight for such a cause, it looks like we big strong men ought to help her," said one man, who wavered unhappily between his pledges and his principles.

Public Responsibility

I had to be fair to all of our opponents and remember that housing reform was a strange new thought to all of them. I preferred to believe, as long as I could, that even the worst landlords did not know or realize the wrongs they were committing, for attention had never been called to these things, and custom placed poor folks in old houses, blaming them for the filth they could not prevent. And so long as public sentiment tolerated, nay, was complacently satisfied with filth, vice, degradation and disease, what better should we expect of landlords? So I said nothing about the men, only showing what enormous rentals were collected from the old death traps, and what were the sufferings of the poor who lived in them.

I have said much of our "enemies," or, more rightly, our opponents. How much more is there to be said of our friends. In fact, if I should set down their names, their graces and their kindnesses, as gratitude dictates, "the scroll could not contain the whole," and the story would have to end untimely.

There were a few who stood by me both in and out of working hours. Foremost of these, and most constant, were the Coxes and the Foor. They often came over to the hotel, and sometimes beguiled me out of it. Mrs. Cox

was in the senate sometime every day, if possible. She often sat in Senator Cox's seat. Few men there could have filled it as well as she. Although a most devoted wife and mother, her broad and active mind took in the range of club, school, church, social and civic affairs, and even politics. What a stay she was, with her unfailing sympathy and cheer!

A Philosopher of Housing

Senator Cox was a very busy lawyer and real estate owner, prominent in the Commercial Club and interested in the larger development of the city. He was also a philosopher, better fitted to cope with our present day legislation than my old teacher, Marcus Aurelius, though their spirits were akin. In all the years of our housing movement I have never seen him ruffled or discouraged, or unable to find some good to believe of everyone. He it was who arranged meetings, dissolved difficulties, removed barriers, planned steps, and brought the impossible to pass. Even those whose measures he fought loved and respected him, and his word was like a gold certificate.

The Foor's gave invaluable help. It was a great thing to have Dr. Foor's championship. A man of few but forceful words, he was a power in the house. Men followed his lead because they had faith both in his judgment and his integrity. I can see him now, as he strode to the front of the house, and, with a word, set in motion wheels that had refused to turn. Mrs. Foor was a constant comfort, partly because of her own interest in our case and partly because that increased her husband's. She had taken a clerkship to be with him, as they had no family. Being also a newspaper correspondent, she had the freedom of the floor, and knew everyone there. Quiet, modest, womanly, she was held in a respect that gave her distinct influence.

Her experience had taught her all the little ins and outs of legislative matters that I didn't want to bother the men by asking about. She was always ready to accompany me to one of the rooms or offices where our business took us, and her watchful care more than once saved our bill from disaster. When I went home, she took my place, and went without rest or meals, if necessary, when emergencies arose.

As the men had other bills to look after, and were kept busy in their seats much of the session, they gave me instructions as to the different processes our bill had to go through, so that I might keep close track of it. Every inch of the way, from clerk to clerk, to the engrossing room and back again, I watched its goings and comings, lest strong and jealous hands should harm it. In all of this, and in

the reading of the proof, Mrs. Foor was untiring.

Other friendly faces lighted the gloom of the assembly rooms, and redeemed the arid wastes of hotel life. I can see now the sweet, bright face of Mrs. Will Wood, of whom even a glimpse or greeting would "gie strength anew to me." Senator Wood was the dean of our senate, an authority whom we all consulted, and an orator whose eloquence was always ready for our cause.

If I should fail to record my gratitude to Representative Joe Cravens, so many years majority leader of the house, my story ought to plant its feet squarely in the road and refuse to proceed. That big, breezy, cheery "Don't you worry" of his—he was too busy for more than that—did more to keep my heart up than he ever knew. Mr. Eschbach, the minority leader, calm, cool and quiet, was another tower of strength. With two such men believing in our cause and its vital importance to public welfare, the others must at least listen to our arguments.

Havens of Refuge

Sometimes friends came up from Evansville on business. How good the home-folks looked, especially those that I knew stood for civic improvement and all I was fighting for. Some of them undertook missions and errands for me, and one of our most active civic workers, Will French, stayed over to help at the state house, and we went in to call on Governor Marshall together. After our kind reception I felt new courage.

In the state house my headquarters were in the office of Amos W. Butler, secretary of the State Board of Charities. There I was "at home," and could hang up my coat upon its own hook, and likewise hang up my confidence upon the whole office force. To Mr. Butler I went for tutelage and advice. When things went wrong, I took haven there, and when luck came my way, I stopped to tell them all the good news.

The office of the State Board of Health was another refuge. No other board in the country has taken such a part in housing reform. But it wasn't only Dr. Hurty's direct help in our battles that I valued.

To know that Dr. Hurty, Dr. Wishard, and the whole board were giving our cause their moral support, that they felt about dirt and disease, water and sewerage, space, light and air, just as I did; and that they were willing to share the responsibility of the reform, with absolute fearlessness, was a comfort to me beyond words.

There was one friend who was the angel of my darkest hours. In the hotel was living at the time a lovely, gracious widow, with two grown sons. Once over the threshold of her apartments I breathed peace, and forgot my battles.

While she brewed tea she kept a gentle rillery on the bubble. For headaches and heartaches there were soft pillows and soft words, hot water bottles and warm encouragement. May all space and eternal sunshine be hers—the blessing of a housing reformer!

I was feeling pretty much at home, and had hardly seen a hint of trouble, when our bill came up for its second reading in the house.

By this time, I was used to hearing debates, but—how different debates sound when they are about our own bill! And it was trying not to be able to say one word, myself, to those arguments whose answers I knew so well. From all over the house came discussion and dissention. I was aghast to see that some of those pleasant gentlemen with whom I had talked were hurrying little pink slips up to the desk, and amendments were hurtling like cannon balls. It was terrifying. And here, beside me, uprose one old gentleman, whom I was sure I had converted from some errors of thought. He stretched out his hand, and showed me an amendment he was about to offer, that would have cut down the application of our bill to just a few cities!

Half rising, I laid my hand on his sleeve. "Oh, Mr. S— don't do that! Please don't do that"; I implored; and he sat down. Afterwards the ludicrous side of my appeal struck me. What an argument! But he knew the arguments that were choking me, and it was these that stayed his hand.

I began to think that the cannon balls would never stop flying, when our men brought the battle to a close by a skillful movement, and the amendments were all referred to the Health committee.

Studying Amendments

When the committee convened to pass upon them, I was asked to sit with them. Dr. Foor, the chairman, sat at the head of the long table in the committee room, with members ranged down both sides, and I sat at the foot. Then it was that I saw the good of my long summer of study. It facilitated matters greatly to know what would be the effect of each amendment, as the progressive steps of housing legislation in other states had shown.

In their enthusiasm the men would have gone farther than I dared. So, yielding some points, and standing our ground on others, we were able to keep the bill from being materially injured.

Now there came a lull, and I went home, to await another call.

How good it was to be at home, to find all well and safe; to sit quietly with the family around the fire, away from the noise and tobacco smoke. It was good to find that all the cataclysms

of the Legislature had not made one crack in the earth's crust in our yard. I wanted to lave in domesticity; to scrub the children, to dust and make beds, to cook a little, as a way of shaking off the nightmare of publicity and strain.

Some of our friends came up to express their interest.

"But didn't you feel odd up there, among all those men?" one asked.

"Not any more than you do in a bank or a church or a theatre or a hotel or a street car, or on the street, where men are coming and going," I answered.

Then I described how the wives of the members were always present; how, often, they would bring the children over from their hotels to meet the father, about time for adjournment. I told how I had seen a father, with a small baby in his arms, stand at the rear of the house, while the mother occupied his seat, then give the child back to the mother and stride forward to make a motion. Besides, high school classes came to listen, and clubs often attended.

My friend was still incredulous.

"But I should feel so conspicuous", she insisted.

"If you were trying to save a child who was in a burning building, you wouldn't think about the firemen or the by-standers, and they wouldn't notice you", I answered.

When I went back to the capitol I found that enemies had been busy. Letters had been pouring in, and a horde of landlords had come in my absence, and camped on the grounds. They had raised a great outcry about their "rights", and had been stirring up opposition and sowing doubts. Some of my new made friends came to me with anxious questions about various passages of the bill, and I had to go over all my arguments again and again, and show what other states had done in the way of tenement laws. Some of our enemies were frank and open in their opposition, and fought face to face. Others came, sowed their tares and slunk away, not dreaming that we had their names.

The most vicious lobby of all stayed with us, and was at my heels like a black shadow, wherever I turned. We knew its manifold work by signs of a familiar "hidden hand", at every step, until we felt that we were fighting the Powers of Darkness. We had no weapons to match with men who, as evidence showed, employed thugs in their home towns to carry out their evil purposes by force.

Watching the course of legislation, I learned one by one, all the ways in which a bill may be killed, by strangling, mangling, delays, jokers, interpolations, even theft, as several stories told. Sadder and wiser was I, indeed. Each new evidence of cunning and craft made me more alert and determined.

One day our bill disappeared!

An important step had been delayed, while we waited with impatience, for some of the "red tape" to unwind, that we supposed was holding it. Our insistent demands started a search, and clerks ransacked tables, desks and pigeonholes. "It's gone! We can't find it", they declared. I brought Mr. Cox, and he set others to searching.

In that anxious half hour I realized the lengths to which I should have gone if foul play or outrage had overtaken us. I thought of all the powers of right and justice that could be ranged on our side, and a new and sudden strength came to me. If necessary, we would lay siege to the whole administration. Just as I was making up my mind whether I should go to the Governor first, the clerk stooped down and looked into the big safe. We held our breath. "It's not there", he said in a tone of finality. "Let me see", I said, stooping also. "Yes, *there* it is—that big one, there. Take it out."

Sure enough, it was ours, safe and sound. We had been hurt only by delay. But the incident made us more watchful.

The Opposition

Now, members of the Legislature who owned property were becoming aroused. Some of our strongest and most dangerous opposition came from men in both houses who owned tenements, or whose brothers, cousins or clients owned them, as we discovered later. One member wanted to build stores on twenty foot lots, and put tenements above them. Another fought the law for two sessions, under the impression that it would apply to his single houses, not reading the bill carefully enough to get the definition of "tenement."

One man wanted to change the whole law, so that his wife could cover an entire lot with apartments, that would have dark rooms on the inside with only a small air shaft. He followed me from house to senate, through the corridors and back again, arguing for amendments to fit the plan which he held in his hand. "Go and talk to the men about it", I said worn out, finally. "No, I want to talk to you, because the men will do whatever you say", he insisted. "Indeed, they will not", I said, "but we can't entertain a thought of any such amendments."

Still he hung on. "Then tell me what to do with that land, that will pay as much on the investment, and I'll be satisfied."

Even though I had expected the opposition of selfish interests, I was surprised to see the unabashed way in which money, "vested rights", were weighed against human life, health, safety and

(Continued on page 288.)

Unemployment Insurance in France

By Katharine Coman

UNEMPLOYMENT is a less frequent and far less discouraging phenomenon in France than in England or the United States. Population increases but slowly and consequently the supply of labor does not keep pace with the demand. The more usual difficulty is indeed a shortage of labor.

Wages are high compared with those in England or Germany, and the thrifty French workman is prone to put by some portion of his earnings against a period of enforced idleness. France is still the land of *la petite industrie*; workshops and factories are producing for an immediate market, and over production—the curse of modern business enterprise—does not often occur. Commercial crises originating in England or America have their influence upon French markets, but financial depressions are here neither so acute nor so prolonged as in lands where individual initiative is less strongly developed. The problem of casual labor, so sinister in London and Liverpool, is not apparent at the ports of France.

According to the data on the number of unemployed taken on a given day in March under each of the last three censuses, the proportion of wage-earners involuntarily out of work to total wage-earners is steadily decreasing (3.1 per cent in 1896, 2.97 per cent in 1901, and 2.33 per cent in 1906), and the general average for the whole country is at present estimated at 300,000—a figure that could easily have been duplicated in New York city during the past winter.

Insurance against unemployment through the agency of trade unions aided by municipal subvention has been in operation in some thirty French towns for more than a decade. In Limoges and Dijon, this method, now generally known as the Ghent system, has been practiced since 1896. It was not, then, an entirely new idea which M. Millerand, minister of commerce and industry, brought before the Superior Council of Labor in 1902. The proposition to further this form of foresight by adding a state subvention to the quotas already contributed to the unemployment funds by the several towns, was approved by the council in the following year, and an annual appropriation of 110,000 francs (\$22,000) was voted by Parliament in 1905.

The conditions under which the subvention is awarded to the trade organizations maintaining unemployment funds,

The eighth of Professor Coman's series on social insurance abroad; the fourth to take up problems of unemployment.

vary from the Ghent model in that: 1. the state grant is reckoned according to benefits, and is paid every six months into the unemployment fund maintained by the union, and not directly to members; 2. the rate of the allowance varies, being 20 per cent for local organizations and 30 per cent for federated trades, i.e., organizations with a membership of at least 1,000, representing not less than three departments.

The reason for this preference lies in the assumption that the federated trade union is likely to be more enduring, that it is better able to control its members and to provide them with opportunities for work. In 1912, for example, the five federated unions recognized under the law paid 86,604 francs in out-of-work benefits and received 25,592 francs subvention, whereas the 109 local funds paid 122,960 francs in benefits and received only 21,950 francs, from the state.

It is stipulated that the state grant is to be used only for involuntary unemployment due to lack of work. Sickness and strikes as contributing causes are expressly eliminated, and any attempt at falsification on the part of the individual man or of the administrators of the funds is ground for withdrawal of aid.

In towns of less than 50,000 population, the unemployment fund need not be limited to a special trade, but in such case, the organization must be so far approved by the municipal authorities as to be in receipt of a municipal grant. Mutual aid societies may be brought within the terms of the appropriation, but there were only four such funds with 509 members in 1912. In France, as elsewhere, the *esprit de corps* inherent in a trade union seems to be essential to success in inducing men to insure themselves against the hazard of unemployment.

	1905	1912
Funds	47	114
Members	33,682	49,595
Unemployed	6,645	8,420
Benefits paid	187,713 fr.	209,564 fr.
State aid	25,690 fr.	47,542 fr.

The progress recorded during the first eight years' administration of this state appropriation has not been entirely reassuring, as may be seen in the preceding table:

Although the number of men insured against unemployment has steadily increased, it has not yet reached the 50,000 mark and one half the state appropriation has never been used. Meantime the fifty-one towns and twelve departments which grant subventions in aid of unemployment insurance, have been placing appropriations at the disposal of trade associations to the amount of 130,000 francs per year, but not more than two-thirds of these appropriations have been called for.

The decree of 1905 has been modified from time to time with a view to making insurance against unemployment more feasible or more attractive. The limitation to towns of 20,000 population, of the privilege of organizing all-trade funds has been extended to towns of 50,000. The ratio of the state grant to benefits paid was raised from 16 per cent to 20 per cent in case of local funds and from 24 per cent to 30 per cent for federated unions. The benefit allowance recognized in computing the state subvention was advanced from two francs a day to two and a half francs. Little progress has been made, however, in the way of inducing the men who suffer most from unemployment to undertake insurance funds. Of 49,000 reported as insured at the end of 1912, 38,000 belonged to four well-paid trades in which risk of unemployment is comparatively low. These are: the typographers and lithographers with their 15,300 members entitled to out-of-work benefits; the textile operatives with 10,187 men and women insured; the commercial clerks with 7,555, and the metal workers with 5,366. Butchers and bakers, garment workers, stone masons, carpenters, leather workers, among all of whom the percentage of unemployment runs high, have done little or nothing to avail themselves of the advantages of state-aided insurance. Only seven in every thousand of the wage-earners employed in industry and commerce are as yet insured under the terms of the law.

It is to be hoped that the wisdom of putting out a sheet anchor against the winds of this adversity may gradually be impressed upon the minds of French workmen. Already labor leaders are beginning to realize that the payment of unemployment benefits may prove an at-

traction to men not otherwise easily reached, and the subject of requiring contributions is being discussed in trade congresses. The example set by the typographers is having considerable influence upon other federated trades.

The Federation du Livre requires of all fully qualified members a contribution of fifty centimes (ten cents) a week. Of this one-fifth is set aside for the payment of benefits in case of sickness, death, or unemployment. Strike benefits come under the latter head, and it is noteworthy that the men out of work because of an authorized strike are paid $3\frac{1}{2}$ francs a day until the difficulty is settled; whereas members unemployed for what would be considered legitimate cause under the British system of unemployment insurance, receive but two francs a day, for six days in the week and for a limited number of weeks in the year. The state subvention of 24,000 francs for 1912 is based on benefits paid for involuntary unemployment only.

The question whether France might now enter upon a policy of compulsory insurance against unemployment, following the British precedent, was discussed with Max Lazard, publication secretary of the International Association for the Fight against Unemployment, Professor Edouard Fuster, secretary of the International Association for Social Insurance, with the secretary of the Federation du Livre, and with Maurice Bellom, professor of industrial economics in the Ecole Supérieure des Mines. It is generally agreed that such a step cannot wisely be taken for many years to come. The state could hardly meet the expense without imposing a very heavy tax upon an already over-taxed people.

An obligatory contribution would doubtless be resented by the very syndicates which are at present favorably disposed to voluntary insurance, and the state subsidy would not be regarded as sufficient inducement to accept this measure of state intervention unless the government should raise its rate of contribution. The contemporary French, and the Latin races in general, are instinctively individualistic, and they challenge every measure that extends the field of state regulation.

France's experience with compulsory insurance against old age offers an unfortunate precedent. By the law of April 6, 1910, all wage-earners and artisans, men and women, whose annual earnings amount to less than 3,000 francs (\$600) are required to insure their support during old age. Contributions to the insurance fund are to be made, after the German precedent, by employer and employe in equal sums, and the state undertakes to add a bonus to the retiring allowance. Registration of the persons coming within the scope of this obligation began in July, 1911.

On December 31, 1912, the date of the last official report, there were 7,077,630 persons on this list, while only 1,964,173, or 27.7 per cent of the number required to do so, were actually paying subscriptions into the fund.

Several reasons besides the Frenchman's innate hostility to compulsion may be given for this fiasco. An unfortunate decision of the Cour de Cassation handed down in December, 1911, exonerates the employer from responsibility for the collection of dues from his workmen, as well as from any penalty for failure to pay on his own account. While the large employers of labor are favorably disposed toward the law, the small producers, who are just able to keep their heads above water, are loath to pay this tax. This is especially true of the peasant farmers and *métayers* whose income is little more than that of their agricultural laborers. Very few of them have conformed to this law. Employes, on the other hand, hesitate to exact payment from their unwilling masters, and many of those who are eager to insure pay nine francs a year for themselves and nine on their employers' account. It is to be noted that 62.8 per cent of the insured are over forty years of age, and 46 per cent over fifty, proof positive that only as the years of superannuation approach do men begin to think of making provision for old age. Apparently the great majority of wage-earners over fifty years of age have got themselves insured in anticipation of the speedy realization of benefits.

The French Point of View

There are other special circumstances which militate against the success of compulsory insurance of old age in France. The Caisse des Dépôts et Consignations and the Caisse Nationale des Retraites pour la Vieillesse have a long and honorable history, and they provide means for putting by a nest-egg which are highly attractive to the *petite bourgeoisie*. Investment is dear to the French temperament, and even the wage-earner who can lay aside only a few francs a year prefers to put it into a bit of land with a house upon it than to turn it over to a fund which offers no chance of a rise in value.

The less thrifty elements of the population are pretty effectively provided for by the law of July 19, 1905, which guarantees a pension to every Frenchman over the age of seventy, as well as to any invalided before that age, whose income from all sources does not in the estimation of the communal council, cover the necessary cost of living in the locality. The pension involves no civil disqualification.

Today, seven years after the opening of this pension fund, 668,356 men and women are in receipt of pensions varying from 60 to 360 francs a year, and

the state expenditure on this account amounts to 92,208,128 francs. Clearly according to Professor Fuster, the pension system should have been abolished before the policy of compulsory insurance was undertaken.

Professor Fuster, protagonist of compulsory insurance, and Professor Bellom, its chief opponent, are agreed that the law of 1910 is a failure. It is to be hoped that the number of insured may gradually increase as the principle underlying this form of investment becomes familiar, as well as the fact that though a pension may never amount to more than 360 francs to be paid after the seventieth year, under the insurance act a man secures a minimum allowance of 416 francs a year after sixty years of age. The question still remains, Would not the same results have been achieved under voluntary insurance?

The prime need in France today is not more extensive insurance against unemployment, but a more effective system of helping men to find work. This all-important service is still left to private employment agencies, which operate for profit and which not infrequently resort to underhand methods in dealing with their clients. Such practices are particularly in evidence in Paris where the placing of domestic servants and of assistants in bakeries, butchers' shops, hair-dressers' establishments, restaurants and hotels, has been entirely in their hands. Complaints of extortionate charges and inefficient service, of favoritism toward the Swiss, Italians and Germans whose competition is deeply resented, were voiced in the labor press and thus brought to the attention of the government.

The provisions of the law of 1904 were permissive in character. Municipal councils might, at their discretion, cancel the licenses of objectionable employment agencies, allowing compensation for the unexpired terms. Also, where this step was deemed necessary, they might establish municipal bureaus offering gratuitous service. Mutual associations on the part of patrons or laborers interested was likewise permitted. Few towns beside Paris undertook the proposed reforms, and many of the sixty private agencies bought out at considerable expense by the city, were quickly reopened as mutual associations. The members' dues, fully equivalent to the former charges, were pocketed by the agent, and the service was no better than before. The employment bureau set up in the Bourse du Travail with twenty branches in different parts of Paris, was managed by amateurs, with no regard to co-operation or specialization, and the results were pitifully meager.

Meantime, mutual employment agencies, set up by the employers of the trades represented in the campaign

against the private bureaus had secured practical control of the furnishing of labor to their several constituencies. The law of 1905 which offers subventions to the syndicates providing unemployment benefits, requires that every such body should maintain an employment agency for the placing of its own members, but these are comparatively undeveloped.

By 1911, the discontent of the various clientèles suffering at the hands of these unreformed employment agencies took organized form. National syndicates of hotel employers, hair-dressers, and others, demanded that municipal bureaus, under a management in which both employers and employes must be repre-

sented, should be established in every considerable town and given a monopoly of this delicate but essential transaction.

At the same time, the French Association for the Fight against Unemployment took up the question, and, on the basis of a series of expert inquiries, promulgated a scheme of reform in essential agreement with the conclusions reached by the syndicates. The scheme is confessedly inferior to the highly developed labor exchanges of Great Britain, but it presents as revolutionary a program as is practicable in France at the moment. This program includes:

(1) The establishment of municipal employment agencies to be obligatory on all French towns of more than 10,000

inhabitants;

(2) Direction of such bureaus to be entrusted to a council representing the employers and employes of the trades concerned;

(3) The organization of district agencies dealing with special trades, wherever required;

(4) The summary suppression of all private agencies, even though they appear to be gratuitous, whenever this step shall be demanded by a clear majority of the employers and employes represented on the council.

This project of reform, the French experts in remedies for unemployment have presented to Parliament as "an irreducible minimum."

The Writing of Social Poetry

By Charles Wharton Stork

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IT would be impossible for any American who cares for poetry not to be interested in the idea of social hymns presented by *THE SURVEY*.¹ The whole function of poetry is, of course, wider, being, in the words of Shelley, "to redeem from decay the visitations of the divinity in man." But a very important duty of poetry is to apply the general principles of goodness, truth and beauty to present conditions.

In one sense poetry should not attempt anything new; its appeal being to the permanent and universal passions; but it may and should arouse the noblest emotions of each age in a new and vital way. In other words it should show the application of universal principles to the spirit of the time. For example, the spirit of patriotism which spoke to the Greeks in the songs of Tyrtaeus, to the Romans in the songs of Ennius, takes a very different tone in Kipling's *God of Our Fathers*. In America this spirit should now express the feeling of brotherhood, which alone can solve the problems of class warfare.

There should, however, be no antagonism toward the old poetry of beauty, which has in fact a great practical value. By beauty the mind of man is freed from the clash and oppression of the present so that he may examine himself and learn to look beyond himself. Thus he will learn to care less for money and more for the things of the spirit. Also they who have seen ideal beauty can hardly be satisfied with moral ugliness and social injustice.

To come to the question of awakening a widespread feeling of social responsibility, Professor Patten thinks this can best be done by hymns, but *The Man with the Hoe*, and *The Song of the*

Shirt, are not hymns. My opinion is that it does not matter whether we have a hymn or a poem so long as it does the work of arousing the social conscience. The hymns will be more sung, the poems will be more thought about; who can tell which will do most good? The hymn unites us, but surely *The Man with the Hoe* makes us identify ourselves with the oppressed toilers of the world. How often in singing we forget the meaning of the words in the pleasure of the tune! The important thing, then, is not whether hymns or poems will do the work best, but *what kind* of hymns and poems will do it best.

In the first place, these social poems (including hymns) must deal with the emotions. All poetry must be simple and concrete, appealing far more to the heart than to the head. Abstract subjects like the minimum wage or child labor bills may be debated in the legislatures and the courts, but if we wish to make them vital to large masses of people, we must translate them into terms of humanity, into pictures of noisome tenements and starving children. Dickens, Charles Reade and Mrs. Stowe realized this, hence the power of their novels. The specific picture of a shop-girl's position in *Within the Law* caused six New York stores to raise the wages of their employes.

Therefore poetry which is to bring about social betterment must deal not with the technical terms of economics but with the general spirit needed to bring about the desired result. The people must be made to demand that "something be done." When poetry has excited this feeling, it has performed its part, after that the economist and the legislator must step in. But these technical authorities should not step in too

soon; otherwise the people, instead of surging along together, will be puzzling their individual heads with definitions and distinctions. Let poetry display the wrongs to be righted and inspire the spirit of demanding that "something be done." The definition of what that something shall be belongs to the more intellectual province of prose.

But how should one set out to compose this poetry of social aspiration? Many persons have the impulse to write who have not mastered the technique of verse. The aspirant must first make himself imaginatively a part of the collective emotion he is to voice. There is deep truth in Professor Patten's remark that the poet is not born, but is made by the spirit of the community. This spirit he must express with sincerity and with passion.

Next someone will ask: What about the form of this poetry? In the past all good poetry has depended upon regular rhythm and imaginative figure. The psychological value of rhythm is so easy to recognize that it is only the scholar who worries over the question whether all poetry must be in meter. The child and the man in the street have no doubt on the subject, and they are right.

But suppose our social poet does not know what meter to use. To this there is but one answer: let him read the best poetry of the kind he is attempting and feel what emotional effects are produced by various meters. Then, if his ear does not tell him what meter to choose or how to invent a new one, let him give it up and seek some other means of helping his fellow-men. Certain of the poet's faculties are, after all, innate, though in any case the poetic craft requires practice and the study of models. Nobody would attempt to

¹See *THE SURVEY*, January 3, 1914.

give a song recital without learning the control of the voice, yet the infinite varieties of cadence and verbal music are supposed to come of themselves. This was not so even in the case of Burns, who was brought up on centuries of Scotch song. He studied his predecessors carefully and was very critical of his own technic, as we see by the variants in his poems.

It may be objected that in the proposed hymns strength is wanted rather than refinement, but all true strength must be controlled and flexible. The neophyte in verse, let him be as vigorous and earnest as you like, will at first produce only wooden results. It is true, however, that an intelligent student can learn the technic of verse for himself better than from any text-book. The safest guide is Tennyson. Read aloud the lines of Break, Break, Break, of The Splendor Falls on Castle Walls, of The Brook, and Crossing the Bar. Forget that you have ever read them before and feel how perfectly the meter of each corresponds to the mood. The idea is not to copy these lyrics, but to copy the correspondence of thought and rhythm in whatever you are doing. Finer points will come of themselves later on. Of the old hymns Jerusalem, the Golden is especially rich in verbal music.

THE really difficult question, it seems to me, is that of poetic figure. It is an interesting thought of Professor Patten that we ought now to discard the imagery of war which has been so effective in hymns like Onward, Christian Soldiers. I incline to think that this principle is right, since war as a reality is passing out of our lives. Most important of all, however, is the fact that poetry must have sensuous imagery of some sort.

On this point misconception should be prevented. That excellent critic, Mr. Watts-Dunton, says that mere statement without imaginative figure is not poetry at all, and Professor Max Eastman in his very sane volume, *The Enjoyment of Poetry*, gives us the reason. The best imagery, he says, is not a decorative addition to the thought but a means of intensifying it. That is the reason why all speakers who appeal to the emotions of their audience make use of a "flowery" style. Such a method, even when rather badly managed, has a recognizable value; but how much more is this the case with good poetry? Take Rossetti's line describing a pair of lovers:

"Two souls, the shores wave-mocked of sundering seas."

No one can fail to note how the emotion is intensified by the power of the picture. The written word of fact conveys but little sense of conviction; the poet must show the strength of his feeling by a new and illuminating, but al-

ways sincere, form of expression.

The use of figure is inherent in the human race: it is found in slang, in proverbs, notably in the Bible, and in the speech of the simplest as well as that of the most cultured men. We need but cite, "Money makes the mare go," "A stitch in time," and in a higher spirit, "Man is born to sorrow as the sparks fly upward" and "Though your sins be as scarlet." Many of our words are forgotten metaphors. To "thrill" means literally to pierce, an "impending" evil is one that hangs over us. Thus it appears that we can only describe the world of thought and spirit in terms of physical comparison.

As imagery is so essential, let us see how it should be used. Obviously conventional figures must be avoided or given some new turn, so that the reader may be sure the poet has felt the truth of the comparison and not copied an expression blindly. On the other hand, a figure should not be far-fetched or inconsistent. These faults, especially the former, are a principal reason why hymns as a whole are colorless and unsatisfying.

A proof that this quality counts is found in the fact that the four favorite hymns of those selected by the jury of THE SURVEY are all above the average in imagery, and three of them are remarkably concrete. Richard Watson Gilder's God of the Strong, God of the Weak, is a little uncertain; W. P. Merrill's Not Alone for Mighty Empire, is very concrete but not especially original; Oliver Wendell Holmes's Lord of All Being Throned Afar is true poetry with a somewhat conventional but finely sustained figure, and Kipling's Recessional is the most vivid and original of all. England is represented as having "dominion over palm and pine." And take the passage:

"If, drunk with sight of power, we loose
Wild tongues that have not Thee in awe."

This is both striking and consistent: the drunken man is the man most prone to boasting and blasphemy. Of course we can feel the force of such a comparison without needing to analyze it.

Among the most recent of THE SURVEY's hundred hymns are many which indicate that the imagery of the new hymns is to average better than that of the old. Notice, for example, the picturesque lines of Katherine Lee Bates:

"O beautiful for spacious skies,
For amber waves of grain,
For purple mountain majesties
Above the fruited plain."

or the forceful passage in W. Russell Bowie's poem, the first of the selections:

"Lo, from out the heavy dark
Strained and haggard eyes
Turn toward that breaking dawn
With their dumb surmise."

How this helps us to realize the longing of oppressed millions for the coming of social justice! Of the well-known church hymns some of the best are: O Jesu, Thou Art Standing; Eternal Father, Strong to Save; and In the Cross of Christ I Glory, Towering O'er the Wrecks of Time.

No one has a higher regard for Professor Patten's ideals than I have, but as he does not lay claim to being a poet, it is perhaps fair to examine some passages in his hymns which lose force by transgressing the principles of imagery. When, speaking of the "man below," he writes,

"Uplift his social standard,"

he speaks as an economist, not as a poet. The social standard is a scientific abstraction, about which we can reason and argue, but not sing. Again in

"Our doctrine gleams with promise,"

I am unable to visualize a gleaming doctrine.

"Our goal shines bright with promise,"

would be trite but not impossible. Also Professor Patten pays in general so little attention to figures that he changes repeatedly from one to another, thus confusing the picture in the reader's mind. In this way the real strength of the emotion is never fully transmitted.

The ability to use effective imagery is, like a good ear for rhythm, partly instinctive, but it can, I believe, be largely cultivated by observation. A knowledge of the principles involved will at least give a test for any given case. Less important details, such as rhyme, need not be dwelt on here. It is, however, a good rule to get the second rhyming syllable and make the first agree with it, rather than vice versa.

ENOUGH has been said to make it clear that preparation is necessary for the writer of the new social poetry. That such a poetry will be written there is little cause to doubt. The purpose of this article has been to suggest that the hymns of the future will gain by being, among other things, good poetry. It is not enough that the ideas be worthy or the writers sincere; to be effective, all poetry, whether for the few or for the masses, must obey the laws of its nature. These laws have been briefly given: they are, after all, as the reader will have seen, laws laid down by common sense. Like the rules of any art or craft, they seem very simple, but high quality in workmanship comes only by careful observation and practice.

Those who strive and fail will in the process find out much that is worth learning and will give to others a higher standard of accomplishment. It is greatly to be hoped that so inspiring a purpose may call forth the time and attention needed for its fulfillment, and that America will soon have a poetry which shall embody our noblest social ideals in a form of permanent artistic worth.



Editorials

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Editor

A MAKER OF AMERICANS

JANE E. ROBBINS

“I WOULD not have missed being in it all for anything,” said Mr. Riis—“I have been very happy. No one ever had so good a time.”

Years ago at the College Settlement he spoke of the meadows and fields near the old town of Ribe with tears in his eyes and explained afterward, that his audience had suddenly disappeared from view, and in its place he saw only the north sea-coast. It was this wonderful imaginative genius of Mr. Riis, that caused a roomful of students to lay down their pencils and note-books as they realized that they were listening not to a lecture but to a living, breathing prose-poem.

“Over against the tenements that we fight in our cities,” he said, “ever rises in my mind the fields, the woods, God’s open sky, as accuser and witness that his temple is being so defiled, man so dwarfed in body and soul. How little we have of the making of ourselves. I was born on the edge of the moor, and once its majesty has sunk into a human soul that soul is forever after attuned to it.”

The power of imagination in the boy Jacob caused him in the theater at Copenhagen to spring toward the stage with a cry of “murder,” which made such a sensation that the play was held up while he was put out.

In spite of the tramping and starving of the first three years in America, he knew that he was out to twist the wheel of fortune his way if he could only get his hands upon it.

In Buffalo when the editor of the *Express* laughed at the desire of the green young carpenter to become a reporter, the boy shouted, shaking his fist: “You laugh now—but wait!”

The principal of a telegraph school to which he went in New York city sent him, just as his hopes were almost gone, to the New York News Association, where he began his life as a newspaper man. For over twenty years he spent most of his waking hours with murders, fires, suicides and robberies.

“We talk a great

deal about city toughs,” he wrote in *The Making of an American*. “In nine cases out of ten they are lads of normal impulses whose resources have all been smothered by the slum, of whom the street and its lawlessness and the tenement that is without a home, have made ruffians. With better opportunities they might have been heroes.”

Mr. Riis caught the human drift of things and portrayed it with a pen consecrated to what he thought was the highest and noblest of all callings. It was his work to make his police reports the best in the city and he liked it and got a lot of fun out of it.

“We must have,” he said, “a good sprinkling of fun to keep our dreams from spoiling. The longer I live the more I think of humor as in truth the saving sense.”

Once when there was some fear of a cholera epidemic, Mr. Riis took his camera, went up to the Croton watershed, spent a week photographing the sources of pollution and forced the city to buy a strip of land along the streams that discharged into the Croton River. “It takes a lot of telling to make a city know when it is doing wrong,” said he. “It is just a question of endurance. The right has got to be moved along like everything else in this world by men. That is how we take title to the name.”

For years Mr. Riis worked at night. “At 3 a.m.” he said, “the veneering is off and you see the true grain of a thing.” He was delighted to find that Roosevelt as police commissioner was willing to get up when other people slept and see what the town looked like in the night.

“The power of fact” he called “the mightiest lever of this or of any day.” At the College Settlement where young enthusiasts were collecting facts of neighborhood life he acted as a voluntary auxiliary and helped to make the New York settlements a fulcrum, as it were, whence the lever of reform was applied. In the year 1888 he had written a letter to the news-

SO far as our letterhead shows, Jacob A. Riis was a member of the National Council of Survey Associates. But those who would know of his real relationship to this magazine and adventure in co-operative journalism will find evidence of it in the pictures, the graphic writing, the challenges to the unashamed best that is in us, that crop out from page to page and week to week; from one contribution to the next, and from one city and another. These may be traced back to the technique and power of imagination which a police reporter applied with joy and determination to his night’s work. They are echoes, many of them imperfect, of the human cry caught up by this marvellous Voice of the City Wilderness.

Members of the Board of Directors, National Council, and staff of the Survey Associates joined their names to a telegram to Barre the evening of Mr. Riis’s death (May 26). But for our editorial page, we have turned to the headworker of the Jacob A. Riis Neighborhood House, who as a pioneer head of the College Settlement was a fellow worker with Mr. Riis on the East Side in the early days as well as the new. Friend to 10,000 immigrants, we asked her to set down something of what “the finest immigrant” she has ever known meant to his kind—and to all of us.

papers, asking that flowers be sent to Mulberry street, and they came in such abundance that five stout patrolmen were necessary to give them out to the howling mobs of children. From the distribution of these boxes of flowers and their revelation of the hunger for beauty on mean streets, there developed the settlement at 48 Henry Street, which bears the name of Mr. Riis. It stands within a stone's throw of many a door in which he sat friendless and forlorn trying to hide from the policeman who would not let him sleep, and of the Bowery lodging-house where almost starved to death he lay senseless on the stairs after his first day's work in the newspaper office.

The comfortably lodged who had not red blood enough in their veins to feel for those to whom everything was denied and not sense enough to make out the facts when they saw them about school houses, playgrounds and better tenements always aroused his special scorn. His creative imagination showed him instantly the value of the city school. Half the tenement house population is always moving and he knew that it was only through the schools that the neighborhood feeling could be restored. "In its ultimate development," he said, "as the neighborhood center of things, I would have the school the first care of city government, always and everywhere at whatever expense."

How Mr. Riis came to be a speaker he never knew, and he greatly enjoyed reading in a country newspaper that "a voluble German with a voice like a squeaky cellar door" had been in town. At first the churches were most unwilling to give a hearing to the wrongs of Mulberry street, but at last he obtained permission to show the pictures he had taken by flashlight in the homes into which he had gone as a police reporter. His description of his joy when he read accidentally in his morning paper a four-line dispatch telling of the discovery of flash-light photography gives one an understanding of his enthusiasm. After one of his illustrated lectures the editor of a leading magazine asked him for an article. How the Other Half Lives was the result.

During an attack of illness late in life, Mr. Riis found comfort in knowing that one of the best of the young county officials and a city commissioner in whom he had much confidence both said that this book had first turned their thoughts to public service.

With tongue or pen, his argument shaped itself into the fundamental one of the rescue of the home and the making of tenements which sheltered two million human souls as nearly fit as might be. He summoned the American people to look the matter squarely in the face. James Russell Lowell wrote to him after reading *How the Other Half Lives*: "I felt as Dante must when he looked over the edge of the abyss, at the bottom of which Geryon lay in ambush. I found it hard to get to sleep the night after I had been reading your book."

In 1896 Mr. Riis put before the New York Health Board a list of sixteen of the worst rear tenements and they were torn down in defiance of vested interests. The officeholders who thrive by

propping up the greed of landlords always stirred in him the love of fight, derived perhaps from his Viking ancestors. "Every defeat is a step toward victory," he said. "The cause of justice and right is bound to win. The power of the biggest boss is like chaff in our hands."

His ideas of good government began and ended with the people's life. After thirty years of work he knew that the conditions of New York's crowded tenement quarter still made for unrighteousness and that the great mass of respectable workmen of the city must dwell there with their families. "Yet the work," he said, "was not wasted for at last we see the truth and seeing, it is impossible that the monstrous wrong should go unrighted. We have only begun to find out what government can do for mankind in the day when we shall all think enough about the common good, the *res publica*, to forget about ourselves."

"He was no saint," his reporter friends will tell you, "but a man with a mind and an honest will." He refused a cabinet position at one time because he could do better work elsewhere. "I value the good opinion of my fellow men," he says, in *The Making of an American*, "for with it comes increased power to do things."

To most of us Jacob Riis was the finest immigrant that we have ever known. To all of us, from editor to office boy, he was a friend.

When we fight the bad tenement houses—"dens of death" he called them—we lay a flower upon his grave. We know how he felt about "the perfectly good" child spoiled by the lack of a chance to play, and we must fight for childhood and its playgrounds.

"In my dreams," he said, "I listen to the whisper of the reeds in the dry moats about the green castle hill, and hear my mother call me once more her boy, and I know that I shall find them with my lost childhood, when we all reach home at last."

PREPARE VERSUS REPAIR

STEPHEN S. WISE
Rabbi of the Free Synagogue

THE statement was made not very long ago, and I believe it is accurate, that as head of the Children's Bureau, Julia C. Lathrop has done her work during the past year with just enough money to cover the repairs on one torpedo boat for a year. The manner of the statement is unmistakably American and the conditions which it describes are no less American. Once upon a time, we said: "Millions for defense and not one cent for tribute." Now we seem to act upon the principle: Millions for repair but not one cent to prepare; or, putting it more accurately: Almost any amount for repair and a grudging minimum with which to prepare.

A year ago, Congress enacted a law which, at the suggestion of a small group of social workers, created the Industrial Relations Commission. That commission was by enactment allowed \$100,000 with which, for the period of one year, to prosecute the work of investigating the problems involved in the unrest that obtains indus-

trially and socially throughout these United States. Rather a tall order for \$100,000!

It may or may not be true, but the rumor is current that a distinguished lawyer, who had a part in the adjustment of an industrial dispute in New York a few years back, would have received \$100,000 if his bill had been allowed. A very generous reduction was made in the amount of the bill, though the "cut" was not disproportionate to the amplitude of the charge. But the fact remains that one man for his personal service in an industrial dispute asked a sum of money and received a goodly moiety of it, the total asked being equivalent to the entire sum allowed by the United States for one year to a commission which is to investigate in nation-wide fashion the industrial unrest of which the Los Angeles affair was no more than an incident, though it happened also to be the starting-point to those who urged that something more than reckless incrimination, and recrimination be the ultimate outcome of the incident.

One hundred thousand dollars, let it be baldly stated, with which to ascertain how to adjust the world of social-industrial relationships in America, and exactly the same sum of money asked by one man for his personal service in the adjustment of a single dispute, though it involved a considerable number of people in one city!

But one might go on forever and point out parallel incidents. Not very long ago in England, after a mine disaster, £100,000 was secured for the relief of the dependents of the victims of the mine. But for years, one of the departments of the cabinet had vainly sought to secure the same

amount in order to work out a protective system, the adoption of which would probably have averted this and similar disasters.

It is said that \$1,000,000 was expended a few years ago by the Consolidated Gas Company in order to avert the passage, and finally to test the constitutionality, of the bill which lowered the rate of gas for consumers in New York city. The figures may not be accurate, but, judging by the character of the members of the bar involved, it is credible that a very large sum of money was expended before the constitutionality of the bill was finally confirmed.

One hundred thousand dollars was collected to free Ellen Stone, a fine woman missionary who some years ago was held for ransom. It surely was not grudged. Yet the National Child Labor Committee has never secured \$100,000 in one year with which to do its work of securing life, as well as liberty, for multitudes of children toilers throughout the nation.

To repair is better than to prepare seems almost to have become our thought as far as we may be said to think upon social problems. Why? Because we lack imagination, because, as some one has said, the news of a disaster in China which caused the destruction of one hundred millions of people would not affect the average man quite as sharply as would the loss of one of his fingers.

Imagination is just another name for visioning, and one cannot vision without forevisioning and foreseeing. And to foresee is to prepare and to prepare is of the essence of statesmanship in a democracy.

DRAFTED

SARAH N. CLEGHORN

COLLEGIANS, stretched reposeful
Along your campus greensward,
Between the halls of Science
And fanes of Art and Law,
Your tranquil meerschaums smoking
And nonchalantly turning

The pages of the last romance of Bennett, Wells or Shaw,

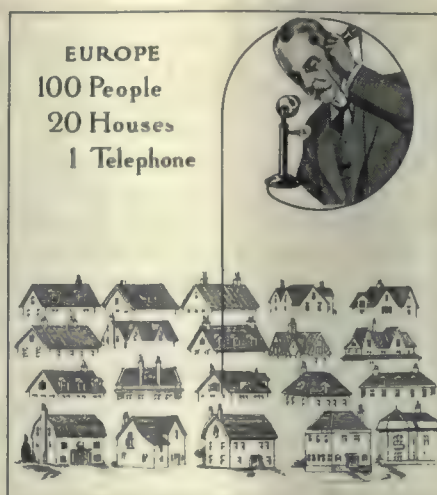
Have you not heard the news, then?
The draft of many soldiers?
What boots us then your learning
If here we look not for
The forward scouts of freedom,—
The engineers of justice,—

The drummers and the ensigns that lead the bloodless war?

O haste and join the army!
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Hear you not ghostly music?

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Shades of your sires were singing
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"We are coming, Father Abraham, a hundred thousand more!"



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VIII

First Experiences in the Legislature
(Continued from page 280)

happiness, to see how individual interest was urged against public good. It was sickening, shocking, to see a man fight against the interests of all the people in the state, and seek to fasten upon the thousands of poor in our cities, and upon their children, preventable miseries, all for the sake of the paltry rental of a few wretched dark rooms, or the cost of a little plumbing.

Many of them did not even plead the common cause of landlords.

It was, "MY house", "It will cost ME."

There were no other arguments to offer against the bill. No one came forward to say that society would be better off if our dwellings were unregulated and unsanitary. No one could show that it was against the interests of the state to protect the poor. True, there was a faint murmur of "paternalism", though we already had on our statute books laws requiring light and air in factories and stores, sanitation in mines, etc. "Paternalism"! Yet this Legislature was soon to vote appropriations to provide for the paternal care of the state over hundreds of its unfortunate citizens. And every one seemed willing that the state should be a step-father to the orphans of the working men who died of tuberculosis and typhoid in our old death traps, leaving their children wards of the state. Why shouldn't the state *prevent* these deaths and their cost?

But most people do not get wildly excited over public cost, I found. Parties do, but ours was a non-partisan bill.

The strongest opposition came from little towns, that were not willing to yield even as much space on their building lots as New York city gives!

It seemed that the landlords and builders of the whole state were all awake, and were uniting their forces against us. But the friends of the poor—where were they? Sound asleep, for all they knew of our fight, having bestowed their alms and said their prayers, and carefully shut their windows on the slum side. Oh, to rattle all those windows, and shake those beds, and summon the sleepers to help us!

It gives me a pride in our men to remember that almost all our active fighting was done by supporters inside the assembly. We had no lobbies, as our enemies had. Our men did their own rallying. True, members of the Commercial Club came and went, and Mr. Grout was with us and others of the charities organization. Some of the wide-awake ministers of the city called to give help and cheer. A few influential women of the city came with Mrs.

Cox, Mrs. T. C. Day foremost and most enthusiastic. But these were a scattering few, and none of them could stay on the ground, as the landlords did.

If our bill could have gone to a final vote, the first week of the session, we would have had a sweeping victory, for enthusiasm was white hot. But it took much stoking to keep up the necessary warmth of feeling, with all the cold water our enemies were pouring on. Any day, we could have polled a majority of members, by counting those who were sorry for the poor, and were willing to see their wrongs righted.

But to get a majority who had no doubts that the bill would do all it was planned to do, and still be fair to the landlords, was another thing. It began to be a question with our doubting and wavering friends whose arguments should prevail, ours or our enemies'. We brought men whose judgment and integrity were beyond doubt, to pit their arguments for humanity and public welfare against those of narrow self-interest. I was ready, in my desperation, to have summoned Jove himself from Mt. Olympus, if we could have reached him.

At this point William J. Bryan came to Indianapolis, and it was arranged that he should address the Legislature. Great was the enthusiasm, and an honor guard was sent to escort him to the state house.

Waiting in the empty rooms, with Edward Meeman, a young newspaper man from Evansville, I mused unhappily upon the thunders that this mighty man should hurl, that we could no more borrow than those of Jove. And yet, why not? His subject was to include many themes of social welfare. Why not housing reform?

"Come with me, quick!" I said to Mr. Meeman. "I'm going to ask Mr. Bryan to say a word for housing reform. Hurry! we have just time to get to the Governor's rooms before they get back!"

Through the long empty corridors we sped, and down the marble stairway, not waiting for the elevator. A guard was pacing up and down in front of the Governor's outer room, which was empty.

"When Mr. Bryan arrives," I said to him, "I want you to see that I have a chance to speak to him, just one moment, before any one else does, without interruption. It's very important. Please, won't you?"

The guard promised, and we took our stand just inside the open door, exactly where a receiving party would have stood. Governor Marshall's broad policy and his strong stand upon all matters of the poor, and of public health and morals, were well known. Here, I felt, under the protection of the father of his state, at the fountain source of Jus-

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tice, I was in sanctuary, and my cause would be heard.

Down the corridors came the sound of voices, and the tramp of many feet, steadily drawing nearer. I had the feeling of standing on a railroad track, in front of an approaching train, as if I must step aside. But I stood fast. And now they were at the door. Mr. Bryan himself stepped across the threshold, and I greeted him, as a rather timid hostess might have done.

"I must speak to you one minute", I said, earnestly.

Instantly, with smiling courtesy, he stepped aside and gave me audience. In three or four sentences I presented the situation, and asked him if he could not include housing reform in the topics of his speech. "If it comes within the line of my subject, I will", he said heartily and kindly, and I slipped away, having been hardly noticed by the crowd.

Among the great throng of listeners who heard Mr. Bryan in the assembly room, no one was more attentive than I, waiting to hear some word upon our subject. One great theme of public welfare after another was taken up. Suddenly a little page whispered to his mother, "Listen, Mamma, Mr. Bryan is speaking for Mrs. Bacon's bill." Neither bill nor name had been mentioned, so it is obvious how clear he made his meaning. I was indeed profoundly grateful for those eloquent and forceful words, for I knew how much they meant to our cause.

And now the days dragged on, while we fought for every inch of ground upon which we stood. I began to get tired and discouraged and homesick. Once, when a senate reading of our bill was due, I had been waiting all day to hear it called. The Coxes were kept at home by illness, and all of my friends were busy and preoccupied. A great mass of bills clogged the machinery of the senate. Long windy debates took up the time, and, while they were proceeding, I would steal out into the corridors, too nervous to sit still and listen. Every time the clerk picked up another bill, and would call out "Senate bill number—", a bullet seemed to have struck me over the heart. But he never got to "No. 51." When it was too late in the afternoon for another bill to be brought up, I went wearily back to the hotel. Even the sight of the little pages made me homesick. Appreciating the effect of physical conditions on spiritual states, I ordered a substantial dinner, but I couldn't swallow it. There seemed to be lumps in everything, even the consommé.

Dr. Simison, a member of the health committee in the house, and one of our most valued supporters, came out from dinner and found me sitting limp and dismal on the balcony which overlooks the lobby.

"What's the trouble?" he asked, kindly.

"I want to go home, and *stay*,—but I won't", I said, and stopped and set my teeth for fear of choking.

He had some new ideas and some good vigorous plans to suggest, and offered to start them going. That, of course, was more cheering than sympathy, and set me up at once with new hope.

That was the nearest I ever came to bolting.

The next day was spent in the same anxious waiting, until the suspense became unbearable. Finally I called a page and sent a card up to the Lieutenant Governor. It read:

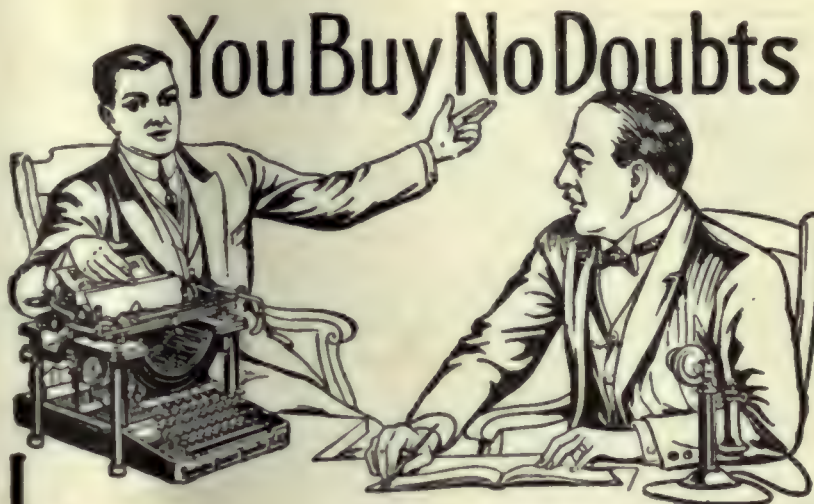
"Dear Governor Hall: *Please* make senate bill No. 51 a special order for tomorrow. I've been waiting so long, and I must go home to my children."

He might have told me to run along home, then, and 'tend to my children, that the others could look after the bills. But he didn't. He was too kind-hearted. Our bill was made a special order for the next day.

A brief visit home found the family thriving and prospering, and sent me back with renewed courage, to cheer our fagged and weary leaders. As the end of the session drew near, delays were more dangerous, and the danger of losing our bill was more serious.

It would be too long a story to tell of the successive stages of the fight, and the agony of suspense at critical moments when loss or injury threatened. Though I would not admit it, fear corroded my heart. I tried to argue myself out of an unreasonable solicitude about the bill. None of the men seemed to feel about their measures as if they were matters of life and death, however in earnest they were. And it was the Lord's work for His poor. He would take care of it. But suppose I failed in my part, and hindered the cause! The lash that had driven me to leave my home still hung over me now. I knew that the loss of the bill would be something deadlier than failure, more desperate than defeat.

A sense of responsibility added largely to this feeling. The measure was called "Mrs. Bacon's bill", by every one, even by the press, and actually scheduled that way, a few times, on the legislative bulletin boards, though, of course, it should have borne the names of Mattingly and McGinnis, the men who introduced it. And, even though doctors and lawyers, architects and real estate men, as well as the members of the Legislature themselves, had mended and amended, carved and whittled it, I knew that I should be held accountable by reformers for all it failed to do, and by landlords and builders for all that restricted them.



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All these months I had seen before me the cities of the state spread out as on a map with all their black spots. I had seen the poor in those spots. Now, as if rising up out of all those spots, and lowering over the poor, I saw a storm-cloud of angry faces, the faces of the owners of the slums. Their anger, resentment and greed we had to confront, as well as the poverty, illness, and misery of the poor whom I was there to represent. But I knew I could face the anger, if we won, better than the misery if we failed.

The situation was growing critical. We seemed to be losing ground, and our men were grave and troubled. Then came days when I could not eat, or read, or sleep, when every breath was a prayer. I was almost "out of the body" with fastings and vigils. Once I had heard Dr. Farr speak of "the loneliness of leadership." Now I knew what that meant.

I was alone in a desert place. The sky shut down over me like a great transparent bowl, shutting out everything else. I stood in the center of a vast bare space, bounded by the rim of the bowl. All around the edge of the great circle were my friends, reaching out their hands to me, smiling and trying to help me, but they could come no nearer. The loneliness would have been insupportable, only for this: inside the circle, all the space about me, under the bowl of the sky, was filled with the Presence.

No matter where I went, that circle seemed to be about me, visible to the inner eye, and to hold every one away. The men I talked to, in the assembly, were all outside of it, and it seemed to me they must be as conscious of it as I was.

At last the decisive hour came, with the third reading of the bill, in both houses. By a coincidence these readings came at the same time. An excited messenger from the house found me in the corridor and hurried me in, just in time to hear the debate beginning. It was hardly under headway when a still more excited sergeant came post haste from the senate, saying I was wanted at once, as the fight was on.

The battle was going bravely in the house, so I followed the messenger across the corridor to the other skirmish line. We had a hasty conference and, to my consternation, I was directed to sit in a chair in front of all the desks, for hasty conference when amendments came up. Our men had made a last poll of the senate, and now went up and down the aisles, rallying adherents to our standard. One of our men was absent, on account of sickness, and Senator Durre, from home, took his place, and was doing the work of four men, in a strong, whole-souled way that was inspiring to see.

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There came an ominous lull, and then the storm broke. Of all the contests I had witnessed, this was the most severe. The whole senate was on its feet, and the men would draw into a great knot, to be driven back to their seats repeatedly by the thundering of the gavel. Then, word came that the bill had passed in the house! But here came an amendment from a Terre Haute member which would cut the bill off by a population classification just above his city, and leave only our largest two. An uproar—the amendment carried!

Then began the final roll-call.

The men drew close together in the front of the room, as the voting began. Now we lacked seven votes! Absent members were rounded up. Two votes were lacking—another canvass! Then two came over to our side—we had won!

I came to myself to find that I was pacing the aisle, inside the railing, with hands tightly clenched, unconscious of having gone upon the floor. It was an hour and a half past the noon closing hour, but no one had thought of time. Only then did I realize that exhaustion and strain had reached their limit. I was dizzily happy.

Quietly, after congratulations, the men and women melted away out of the senate chamber. The heroes of the day in house and senate, who, by superhuman efforts, had saved the bill, turned to other business, as if they had done nothing especial. I tried to tell them something of what I felt, but words! for such service! And it was done for their state, too. It seemed to me that they should have had a salute of cannon; at least there should have been martial music, and a roll of drums. It is for such deeds that men used to be given bay-wreaths, and knighthood. But theirs are the bays, and they are knights who need no accolade.

There were a few final things to be done. Then came the audience with Governor Marshall, and his gracious promise to sign the bill. There were some last little meetings and social gatherings with our friends, and then, farewells. Everyone was so cordial and so glad for me. One of the senators, who had been most helpful said:

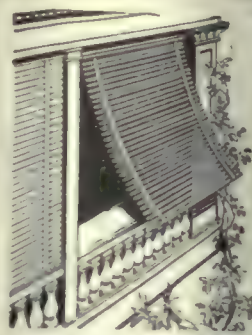
"Mrs. Bacon, I'm a hold-over member, and I hope we will see you back next session."

"Oh, thank you", I said, "but I'm through now, and I never expect to come again."

"I think you'll be here again," he said, smiling. But I was sure in my heart, that it would not be necessary.

With a light and care-free heart I gathered up my belongings, packing among them, for souvenirs, some worn and marked copies of our bill.

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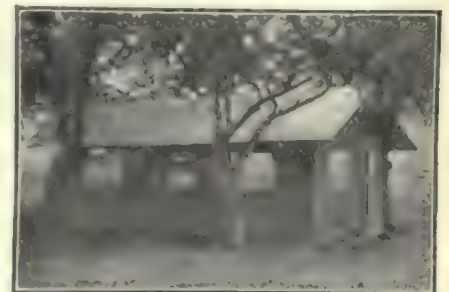
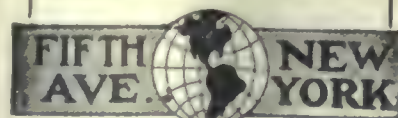
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JOTTINGS

SMILE ON THE FACE OF THE CENSUS

At a luncheon of graduates of the Chicago School of Civics, Julia C. Lathrop told a story on the Census office. In the table of classified crimes was one entry under "Cruelty to animals". Somebody had doubts and looked up the original card. The charge was "keeping a blind tiger."

FOOD AND DRUGS SURVEY

The National Civic Federation announces that it will make a national survey of food and drugs. A questionnaire has been sent to federal, state and city officials. Vincent Astor is chairman of the committee in charge.

ECONOMIC PRIZE ESSAYS

The following subjects have been announced for the Hart, Schaffner & Marx economic prize studies for 1915: A Local Study of the Immigration Problem; A Study of the Protocol in the Needle-trades Industry; The Economic Validity of the Single Tax; Price Maintenance; Reciprocity and Retaliation in Foreign Trade; Ship Subsidies by Indirection; The Development of Trade with Latin America. Information as to conditions and dates may be obtained of Prof. J. Laurence Laughlin of Chicago University.

THE HOUSE OF SERVICE

The House of Social Service of the Stockyards District of the Chicago United Charities was formally opened in April. A description of the house, with its quarters for all sorts of public and private agencies for the sick and the needy, was published in THE SURVEY for December 27, 1913.

Judge Julian W. Mack, one of the speakers, rejoiced in the housing of public and private charity under one roof. He ventured the prophesy that the needs of the poor will be met more and more by public charity. Dr. Henry B. Favill advocated similar houses of service in every district rather than an expensive central building.

INDIANA FARM FOR MISDEMEANANTS

Indiana has just bought a penal farm for misdemeanants of 1,567 acres in Putnam county, paying \$57,000, or \$36.37 an acre for it. It is thought that nearly a thousand prisoners can live on the farm and that the products raised on it will support this number. The land has stone deposits which can be used for road making, and shale and clay for brick making.

Many states have penal farms for more serious offenders, but Indiana is the third to provide the bracing advantages of outdoor life for her tramps and vagrants. Two cities, Cleveland and Kansas City, have such farms.

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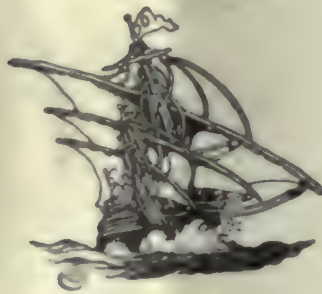
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WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 11

Contents

June 13, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

FIRST GRADUATES OF A SHOP SCHOOL	295
THE SOUTH DIVIDED ON THE BLACK MAN'S CASE	295
THE TASK OF THE SETTLEMENT TODAY	296
URGING ON THE PUBLIC CRY AGAINST SING SING	297
LIVING QUARTERS IN NEW YORK CANNING CAMPS	297
TO MAKE SCHOOL WORKERS OF POLICEMEN	298
REED COLLEGE CONFERENCE ON "PORTLAND 1915"	298

HEALTH

CONSERVING A NATION'S BRAIN POWERS—MENTAL HYGIENE STUDIED IN BALTIMORE	299
DELINQUENCY AND MENTAL DEFICIENCY	302

Olga Bridgeman

INDUSTRY

THE SEARCHLIGHT TURNED ON CHILD LABOR AND THE TAIL- ORING TRADES	303
THE CLOSED SHOP AND THE LABOR BOYCOTT	304
LABOR AMENDMENTS TO THE ANTI-TRUST BILL	305

Christina Merriman

Harry W. Laidler

SOCIAL AGENCIES

FIGHTING ALCOHOL WITH EDUCATIONAL EXHIBITS	306
A NATIONAL MOVEMENT FOR CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING AND FARM CREDITS	307
AN OLD INSTITUTION TUNING ITS WORK TO THE DAY'S NEED	308

Cora Frances Stoddard

W. J. Norton

COMMUNICATIONS	309
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Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents.

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The GIST of IT—

"BURN it," said Conan Doyle after a visit to Sing Sing. Page 297.

THE South's new spirit about the Negro is not new at all, but a return to older and gentler days and ways. Page 295.

PREVENTIVE health work has crystallized in one big campaign after another for ten years past. Now the movement for mental hygiene—to conserve the nation's brain power—has held its first meeting on a national basis and blocked out the work ahead. A sound mind in a sound body for all of us is the ideal. Page 299.

PORTLAND has taken up with a vim the "1915" idea that failed in Boston. An Oregon state conference of charities is one of the first fruits. Page 298.

SETTLEMENT workers in conference reaffirmed the interpretive function of the settlement and turned their social microscopes on the work of their own governing boards. Page 296.

NEW YORK state has put into operation an extensive code of regulations for canning camps. Page 297.

IMMIGRANT workers in a New York white goods shop have been given diplomas for learning English in a factory school run by the Board of Education. Page 295.

EXHIBITS of the results of alcohol on the human mind and body have proved effective propaganda in driving home the character of John Barleycorn to all sorts and conditions of men. Page 306.

CO-OPERATION in marketing and in securing rural credits may be ranked now as a national movement. Widely as some of the co-operators differ on methods, the recent conference in Chicago showed that they have enough in common to form a federation. Page 307.

FOR three score years and fifteen the Union Bethel has served the people of Cincinnati, turning its experienced hand to meet the new needs of new times. Page 308.

HOME-WORK and cannery conditions were vigorously scored in last week's hearings before the Industrial Relations Commission. Page 303.

CLOSING the present discussion of Dr. Williams' article on Temperance Education in Public Schools. Page 309.

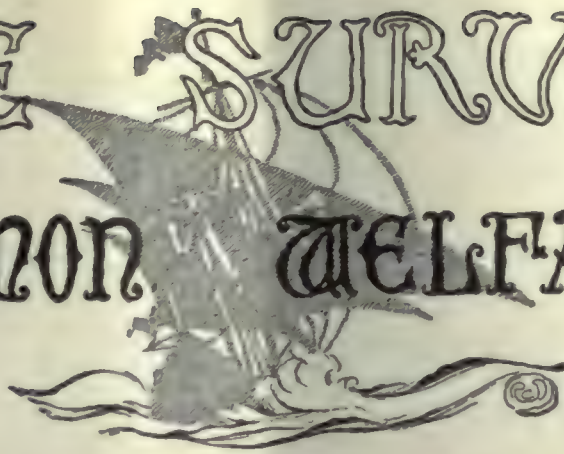
MR. LAIDLER'S interpretation of the closed shop and the boycott in the light of recent decisions. Page 304.

THE Binet test applied to 118 consecutive admissions to the Geneva Training School for Girls, showed that all but six were backward—105 of them three years or more. Page 302.

OVER \$50,000 was raised during Chicago's baby week by publicity schemes—advertising, articles, posters, lectures, movies and sermons. Page 296.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



FIRST GRADUATES OF A SHOP SCHOOL

IN THIS WEEK of commencement exercises no diplomas have been awarded of more significance than thirty-five "certificates of literacy" tied with red, white and blue ribbon presented to the graduates of the first school for immigrants conducted in a factory in New York, possibly in the world, under the auspices of a Board of Education.

They were a strange little graduating class, these operators of the D. E. Sicher & Co. muslin underwear factory as they sat on the platform of the recreation room in the Sicher factory on June 5. They ranged from 16 years of age to 38. And twenty weeks ago none could read, write or speak English.

"We thank you," said Rebecca Meyer when she spoke her "greeting," to the relatives, friends and notable guests who had assembled, "we thank you for giving us teachers, for giving us a bigger view of life, an understanding of our materials and machines—we thank you in the language you have taught us."

The idea of the factory school originated with Dudley E. Sicher, senior member of the largest muslin underwear firm in the world. Two years ago he allowed a few workers time off with pay to attend certain classes at public school No. 4 in charge of Lizzie E. Rector. The improvement in the work of these girls caused Mr. Sicher to request the Board of Education for a teacher to instruct employes in his factory. Last October Florence Meyers, an experienced teacher, was assigned to the work by the board, under direction of Miss Rector.

Classes were held in the recreation room of the factory from 9 a. m. to 12 m. each girl receiving three-quarters of an hour instruction every day. The classes were not compulsory, but if a girl elected to join she was paid for the time in school pro rata her average earnings.

The practical nature of the instruction was demonstrated at the graduation exercises where five girls described The Evolution of an Undergarment. Three told How to Get and Hold a Posi-

tion; the whole class went through exercises in physical training, and Antonetto Fiore multiplied and added sums on a big card-board "work report."

The Sicher school is to be distinguished from the continuation class established in many cities and in two department stores in New York city to continue the work of the public school and from the vocational school which is chiefly concerned with trade instruction. It does, however, come under the head of industrial education. As William H. Maxwell, superintendent of New York schools, said in his address at the graduation, instruction in the English language is industrial education since "without English the morals, limbs and life of the factory worker are in danger."

Mr. Sicher claims, since the introduction of the school, a decrease of 10 per cent in illiteracy among the foreign workers of his factory and a gain of from 20 to 70 per cent in efficiency among the girls who have received training.

A chart has been tabulated showing that the earnings of 10 girls who attended the school regularly 16 weeks rose from an average of 19.5 cents an hour to 22.2 cents an hour while the earnings of 10 girls who did not attend school remained practically the same.



THE SPINGARN MEDAL

To be awarded to the colored person who has rendered the most distinguished service to the human race the past year.

THE SOUTH DIVIDED ON THE BLACK MAN'S CASE

PERHAPS A BIT self-consciously, as though not wholly sure of its welcome, the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People held its sixth annual conference recently in Baltimore.

Partly from accident and partly, no doubt, because the conference was held in a southern city, the discussion was largely on the southern attitude toward the Negro. There were several southern white speakers on the program and they were quite as insistent upon justice and fair-dealing for the black man and as pronounced in their opposition to "Negro-baiting" as those who came from other parts of the country.

Oswald Garrison Villard, president of the New York *Evening Post*, made perhaps the most valuable contribution to the conference in an address entitled, satirically, *Some Traitors to the South*, in which he pointed out that the movement for equal opportunities for the black man had now enlisted some of the more courageous spirits of the South as well as of the North. He quoted from living men and women and from leading southern newspapers to prove his contention that the South was no longer "solid" and unanimous regarding its treatment of the Negro. This address is being widely quoted through the South and has drawn considerable editorial attention from the southern press.

Adalene Moffat, formerly of Nashville, Tenn., and now a well-known social worker in Boston, speaking on the Southern Renaissance described it as a "gradual return" which she had observed "on the part of the white people of the South to that attitude of mind which gave the old South its reputation for courtesy and high-minded ideals, an attitude which my own crude generation, born since the war, claims without so well deserving."

Ex-Attorney General Charles J. Bonaparte, of Baltimore, spoke on Legal and Economic Equality. He combatted the historical theory that the signers of the Declaration of Independence did not have the Negro in mind when they de-



CHICAGO'S "BABY WEEK"

Facing the fact that it has greater mortality of infants than any other city in this country or Europe, Chicago planned heroic measures this spring to make its baby-saving campaign more effective. A "baby week" was designated during which scores of publicity schemes were counted upon to bring a big popular subscription of funds for the Infant Welfare Society. The goal was money enough to increase the number of infant welfare stations to fifty.

The Baby Week campaign was outlined by the advertising men of Chicago. Lorado Taft made a bust of a mother and child, plaster casts of which were exhibited in downtown store windows. Pictures of it appeared on all the posters. Bill board men gave space. Newspapers ran display articles. Coupons were inserted in theater programs. Street-car advertising space was given and signs were all put on elevated railway cars and platforms. Motion pictures and slides were used in all the movies. Lectures were provided. The ministers were urged to preach appropriate sermons on the Sunday which started the week. Milk dealers put wrappers around each bottle of milk delivered during the week, and large numbers of canvassers volunteered to carry the appeal personally.

The Mexican war scare reached its most acute stage on the very days designated as Baby Week. So to all the other ravages for which war and the war spirit are responsible must be added the needless deaths of Chicago babies because public attention was so monopolized by the Mexican situation that this remarkable campaign for publicity fell short of the highest success. A total of \$51,692 was finally raised.

A baby week in New York, June 14-20, has just been announced. At the request of Commissioner of Health Goldwater, Mayor Mitchel has called a conference to enlist the co-operation of many child welfare agencies and associations devoted to the general welfare of the city. It is proposed to conduct an educational campaign to give impetus to the regular summer baby-saving work.

clared "all men to be free and equal."

Aside from these addresses which bore upon the southern relationship to the race question, the most notable address of all was the brief paper submitted by Dr. Jacques Loeb of Columbia University on The Theory of Racial Inferiority in the Light of Modern Biological Knowledge. Dr. Loeb pointed out that modern biology no longer countenanced the naïve theories, popular in the last half of the nineteenth century, that there are biological proofs of the innate inferiority of certain races

to other races.

The Spingarn medal, which was to be awarded to the colored man or woman who had done the most distinguished service for the human race during the year just past, was not awarded at the conference. The committee of award, which included William H. Taft, Oswald Garrison Villard, James H. Dillard, President John Hope and Bishop John Hurst of Baltimore, chairman, announced that it had been unable to reach a decision in time. The award will be announced later.

THE TASK OF THE SETTLEMENT TODAY

"THE SETTLEMENT movement must free itself from all the ties that bind it to the present industrial and social system and be itself at liberty to teach and work for the real liberty of all human beings." This was the message which Howard Bradstreet, president of the New York Association of Neighborhood Workers, gave in his welcoming address to the Inter-city Settlement Conference recently held in New York. This end must be sought, he declared, not through any change of a materialistic nature, but by the continual application of education in the ideals of democracy.

John L. Elliott urged that "while we shall have to have an entirely different system of social production, we are doomed to failure unless we understand the force and power of the personality of every individual and the fraternity of all groups. We need business and political efficiency, but what we, as settlements, must stand for is social efficiency."

Robert A. Woods explained the settlement method as that of working with a "microscope in one hand and a telescope in the other." With this method properly applied, the true settlement worker can interpret the life of a limited neighborhood to the entire community, and can understand the nation-wide social movements because of his intimate personal knowledge of the local group.

It seemed a general opinion that the settlements had not been as active in recent industrial uprisings as they should. Mrs. Florence Kelley challenged the workers to face the facts of congestion and of industrial competition. Paul Kennaday questioned the organization of the settlement itself, by declaring that too many "boards" were undemocratic at heart, and too many "residents" were content to be boarders. He felt that settlement workers should get in closer touch with the people by living in their tenements and working at their trades or occupations wherever possible.

The need for genuine settlement federation was clearly defined. The New York Association of Neighborhood Workers will undoubtedly in the near future have a central office and a paid secretary, so that it can duplicate the excellent work of the Boston Social Union.

The opportunity presented by an inter-city conference for the discussion of some problem common to a whole section of the country was made clear by the suggestion of Mr. Woods that next year the garment trades, largely centralized in the district lying between Boston and New York, be made a special subject of inquiry.

The study of the adolescent boy, which

the National Federation is to make this year, will be begun at once. A comprehensive outline of the book was presented by Philip Davis, who will conduct the inquiry for the federation. In final form this will be a companion study to *The Girl Problem*, published last fall.

An eloquent tribute was paid to the life and character of Jacob A. Riis, one of the first, and surely one of the best, interpreters of the social needs and social possibilities of the "other half."

Mrs. Raymond Robins spoke of the need of educated men and women joining in the movements of working people to develop their own leaders who must be of a high standard of intelligence if they are truly to lead their fellows into a real industrial democracy. She told of the work of the new school for industrial leadership which has been established by the National Woman's Trade Union League.

URGING ON THE PUBLIC CRY AGAINST SING SING

THE CREATOR of Sherlock Holmes has seen and condemned Sing Sing. Not, he says, to make literary use of his observations, but because of his interest in law-breakers and their treatment, Sir Arthur Conan Doyle went up to New York's century-old prison on the Hudson a few days ago and had himself locked in a cell.

"Burn it, burn it," he said afterward. "The buildings are antiquated and unsanitary. It is a disgrace for a state so great and wealthy as New York to have such a prison."

Sir Arthur was amazed to be told that occasionally the prison becomes so crowded that two men have to be put in a cell. It was the smallness and unhealthiness of the cells that especially impressed him. "They ought to be knocked three into one," he said.

Sir Arthur stated he did not believe in making prisons "comfortable hotels." He does believe, however, in individual treatment, in decent living conditions, and in educative work.

"As a medical man, I took great interest in the appearance of the prisoners," he said. "It seemed to me that probably a third of the whole number were defectives—calling for medical treatment or care of some kind. Perhaps another third were young men who ought never to have been put in with hardened criminals."

Sir Arthur declared he believed that James M. Clancy, warden of Sing Sing, is doing the best he can under the conditions.

Organizations for prison reform are agreed that Sing Sing ought to be abolished. An aggressive public opinion demanding this, it is suggested, might be fostered by prison reformers making it a practice to nab illustrious visitors, whose names make good newspaper headlines, and take them to Sing Sing as soon as they land.



UNIVERSITY EXTENSION

The little wash lady, the doll and the doll's clothes are parts of the University of Wisconsin's extension division. Demonstrations of correct wardrobes for infants proved so popular a part of the community institutes held the past year, that a correspondence course has been worked out to include planning, buying, designing and laundering baby clothes.

LIVING QUARTERS IN NEW YORK CANNING CAMPS

THE FIRST extensive code regulating the sanitation of living quarters in cannery labor camps has been formulated by the Industrial Board of the New York Department of Labor. It went into effect June 1.

For many years there has been constant agitation about the dirty and crowded living quarters provided for immigrants who are brought every summer from cities to work in country canning factories. Until 1913, however, the Labor Department had no authority over the sanitary conditions in such camps. One of the laws enacted last year, upon the recommendation of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission empowers the Industrial Board to make rules for the sanitation of such living quarters.

The new regulations adopted in accordance with this law are based in the main on suggestions made by Joseph Maper acting chief for 1913 of the Division of Industries and Immigration of the New York Labor Department.

There must be maintained in connection with all living quarters kitchen and dining room accommodation under shelter; sleeping bunks arranged one above the other must go, as well as the mattress on the floor, and all beds must be clean and free from vermin the beginning of each season. There must be one privy or water closet for every 20 persons of each sex (one for every 25 if there are more than 100 persons in the camp) and each closet must be water tight, fly proof, well screened and sanitary. Water

must be supplied in every camp. Floors of camps must be tight and raised above ground; interior partitions must be solid, and premises of all camps must be properly drained and kept clean.

One of the most flagrant evils in the labor camps has been room over-crowding. The new ruling demands that in every room used for sleeping purposes 400 cubic feet of air space be allotted for each adult and 200 for each child under 14 years of age. Furthermore, at least two rooms must be provided for every family composed of husband, wife and one or more children above the age of 10 years. Sleeping accommodation must be separate for each sex except in the case of immediate families.

Undoubtedly, comments the report of the State Factory Investigating Commission on canneries, the general insanitary condition of many camps is the direct result of long hours of work in the factory by the women of the colony, leaving them little time and less vitality to attend to cleaning house.

Yet the commission found that in but 6 out of 36 cases did the employer who demanded these long hours of labor provide a caretaker for the premises. The new code requires every camp composed of ten or more persons, to have at least one employe to enforce the rules as to cleanliness. The general enforcement of the code will be left to the inspectors of the Department of Labor.

The rules were drafted at a conference of cannery and experts on housing conditions among immigrants. Pauline Goldmark was the member of the Industrial Board acting as chairman of this committee.

TO MAKE SOCIAL WORKERS OF POLICEMEN

THAT THE CALLING of the common "cop" is soon to become a profession of dignity and interest was the prediction made at the annual meeting of the Health Federation of the City of New York, representing 150 organizations interested in civic and social advancement.

Suggestions for a more intensive neighborhood interest for the policeman were made by representatives of various organizations. The Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor wanted policemen commended for reports regarding social needs rather than for the number of arrests made. The Consumers' League suggested that a policeman should understand more thoroughly the sanitary code of the city; that he could be of service in observing whether the 54-hour law for women was being complied with in business places on his beat; that he should have lists of laws governing the buildings in his district, and should carry a list of reputable boarding houses for working girls.

The Women's Municipal League hinted at discarding the uniform of the policemen; wanted stricter inspection after contagion in apartments, and supervision which would put a stop to throwing things in the streets. The Recreation Alliance wanted the Health Department to inspect playgrounds, and it sought a closer policing of parks so that the common "bum" might be moved on and the places made safe for women and children. It made a plea for certain streets to be closed and used as playgrounds, and visualized a "social squad" to be partly composed of women.

The neighborhood organizations recommended conferences for policemen and health inspectors as something to lift them out of their routine and arouse a greater interest in their work.

Commissioners Goldwater, of the Health Department, and Woods, of the Police Department, told of progress made toward a socialized police force, but pointed out that the lack of awards for social service made it difficult to interest the men in work outside of their routine.

NEWSPAPER MEN IN CONFERENCE IN KANSAS

JOURNALISM took another step away from business toward a profession when the National Newspaper Conference and Kansas Newspaper Week, held at the University of Kansas, brought together newspaper men with ideas and ideals for the advancement of the entire publishing industry.

Whether a newspaper ought to give the public what it wants, what are its obligations to its advertisers, and the effect of the daily and weekly press on the public mind—these were the questions which drew the largest crowds.

Led by such eminent journalists as



The Puritans in 1614.

GOING TO CHURCH

The Rockefellers in 1914.

Hamilton Holt, editor of the *Independent*; Oswald Garrison Villard, editor of the *Nation* and president of the New York *Evening Post*; Roy Howard, president of the United Press; Frank LeRoy Blanchard, editor of the *Editor and Publisher*, and James Melvin Lee, head of the department of journalism at New York University, 232 Kansas editors discussed problems that are worrying politicians and reformers all over the country. The endowment of free public newspapers, the licensing of practicing journalists as lawyers and doctors are licensed, the establishment of a state board of censorship for advertising, conducted under the auspices of the department of journalism at the state university, and methods of checking the growing subordination of the editorial to the advertising side of the publishing business, were freely discussed.

Kansas Newspaper Week, held with the conference, consisted of a series of short courses for editors and newspaper men of the state. It was the first instruction in journalism to practical workers offered by a state university. Courses in advertising and news-gathering and lectures on editorial problems were conducted by specialists and were regularly attended by the editors.

Resolutions were adopted asking the state editorial association, of which all the editors are members, to request the Legislature to provide state aid for newspaper men through the department of journalism at the University of Kansas, much as the agricultural college helps the farmers. A committee was appointed to suggest revisions of the code of ethics adopted two years ago by the state editorial association.

That the problems of Kansas newspaper men are not those of the metropolitan press was recognized by the speakers. At the same time it was pointed out that country newspapers are read by more people than are big city dailies, and that there is a greater opportunity for efficiency and improvement in method by the country press. The moral side of the issue was emphasized, also, as affecting every branch of the publishing industry.

REED COLLEGE CONFERENCE ON "PORTLAND 1915"

EXPRESSION of community ideals and a look ahead to the definite steps for next year characterize the "Portland 1915" Conference held May 14-16 at Reed College, Portland, Ore.

In the neighborhood of 3,000 people registered as guests of the college and signed blanks enumerating the things they would like to see achieved in the city by the end of next year.

All the organizations which are definitely at work for the city's welfare were invited to take part, and seventy—municipal, civic, religious, educational, artistic and social—responded with speakers or exhibits or both.

One of the important results of the conference was the organization of the first State Conference of Charities and Correction. Two afternoons were given up to the discussion of case work, widows' pensions, charities endorsements, and team work.

Forehandedness in dealing with the problem of unemployment was shown in the appointment of a committee to draw up definite plans now for meeting the expected problem of unemployment next year. This was the result of a Survey of Portland's Unemployed in 1914 with Prospects for 1915, undertaken by a group of investigators from Reed College, and presented by Arthur Wood, instructor of social economics.

The aesthetic and recreative life of the city was represented by May-pole and folk dances on the lawn; the former by the girls of the freshman, sophomore and junior classes of the college; the latter by the immigrant classes of the city—Russian, Spanish, Italian, German, Welsh, Scotch, Swiss and more—who, dressed in their native costumes, gave their own country dances.

The needs of the city and goals to be reached were indicated in lectures on immigration, co-ordination of social agencies, feeble-mindedness, housing, commercialized pleasure, public defender, oral hygiene, socializing of medicine, city planning, public markets, medical inspection, high cost of living, municipal government, Oregon resources, and loan sharks.

HEALTH

CONSERVING A NATION'S BRAIN POWERS—MENTAL HYGIENE STUDIED IN BALTIMORE

IT IS A LONG day since Crabbe dared in poetry such realism as a sympathetic allusion to the.

"Sad sufferers under nameless ill That yields not to the touch of human skill," or Wordsworth built an entire poem upon a case of senile dementia.

How interest in the "sad sufferers" from mental disorders has passed from poetic sympathy into charitable and legislative activity, is recorded in annals of the nineteenth century. How tentative were the beginnings of this activity, and how much greater is the task than was realized at first, scientific progress and human interest of the twentieth century are demonstrating.

Two years ago, at the Congress for Hygiene, one sub-section meeting was devoted to the question of mental hygiene. But the first convention of mental hygiene societies ever assembling was held in Baltimore May 25, under the auspices of the National Committee on Mental Hygiene. This convention, immediately preceding the annual meeting of the Medical-Psychological Association, was the result, not of efforts of the central committee, but of the expressed desires of a number of societies for mental hygiene from Connecticut to Illinois.

"This seems to me an historic day," said Dr. Paton, in opening the afternoon session. "When we look at mental hygiene in its broad sense, the significance of this meeting is neither more nor less than that we are beginning to take an intelligent interest in the study of human activity."

Careful organization of the meetings made it possible to view many aspects of the problem in a brief time. The sessions convened in Osler Hall, in the building of the Medical and Chirurgical Faculty. At the afternoon session, when Dr. Stewart Paton, of Princeton University, presided, concrete details of mental hygiene societies, their beginnings, specific aims, and some definite activities, filled the time, leaving a margin for personal acquaintance and interchange of questions. The significance of the work to education, legislation, to medicine and sanitation were emphasized in the evening addresses, when Dr. Lewellys S. Barker, president of the National Committee on Mental Hygiene, presided.

Some foundations for successful work by state societies and committees for mental hygiene were indicated by Dr. Thomas W. Salmon. A definite aim, accurate information, relations with other agencies in this field—these he pointed out as the *sine qua non* of successful work. Not necessarily the most attrac-

tive work, nor the most spectacular will form the immediate duty of a mental hygiene society; nor, on the other hand, can definite rules of procedure be laid down for every organization. In one state, the problems are those of the seventeenth century, and a society must get its insane out of jails and into hospitals. In another state, the problems are distinctively those of the twentieth century, and concern occupations and after-care.

Certain of the practical problems which Dr. Salmon outlined as facing each new society may be thus summarized:

1. AIM—Shall a society deal with cases of mental disorder only? Or with cases of mental deficiency also? Both, if possible.
2. INFORMATION—No precedents in this field, no experience to profit by. Doubly necessary to have accurate information.
 - a. community—How deal with insane, both officially and unofficially.
 - b. institutional care—facilities? status?
 - c. after-care—supervision? employment? attitude of community?
 - d. legislation—existing laws? changes needed? danger of haste here is great? need of careful intensive study.
3. CO-OPERATION—A mental hygiene society's relation:
 - a. to hospitals for insane. Remember their longer experience in actual work.
 - b. to courts. Offers of help often accepted.

A MENTAL HYGIENE BILL

One result of the work of the National Committee for Mental Hygiene is a provision in the bill now before the House of Representatives, to create divisions of mental hygiene and rural sanitation in the United States Public Health Service.

The division of Mental Hygiene would "study and investigate mental disorders, and their causes, care, and prevention."

Such a ruling would obviously be of great importance to the mental hygiene movement. Under it, the federal government would become responsible for a large part of the work which now, if done at all, must be done by the National Committee for Mental Hygiene and by state societies. These organizations would then be free to develop special lines of work not provided for by the government.

c. to other agencies in social work. Few of these realize yet how mental defects complicate their problem.

4. PUBLICITY—Sometimes just the name of the society on its office door will bring inquiries to prove a means of contact. Newspapers usually are glad to co-operate.

Following Dr. Salmon's address, representatives from mental hygiene societies of eight different states gave in quick succession the story of their beginnings, their problem, and certain lines of their work.

In opening the evening session, Dr. Barker spoke briefly of recent progress of the National Committee on Mental Hygiene. As a result of the first large gift of money the committee has been able to establish an office, with secretary, medical director and office assistants. Various pamphlets have been prepared and distributed, many public meetings held, and a mental hygiene exhibit arranged and sent to a number of cities. Several thorough investigations of local conditions have been made, local societies formed, and a large correspondence is maintained.

In Miss Lathrop's absence, Dr. Stewart Paton gave the address originally planned for the afternoon. Speaking of the significance of the present interest in mental hygiene, Dr. Paton emphasized the word "Conservation." This word, grown so widely popular of late, is at last applied to measures for protecting the brain-power of the race. The great problem of life, the true meaning of "culture," is just adaptation of the mind to forces of nature already hostile or made so through ignorance and superstition.

The only optimistic outlook possible for the race Dr. Paton believed to be based upon an increased knowledge of the individual and of the mechanism of his adjustment. For the true meaning of this startling increase of insanity and feeble mindedness, this trend of multitudes toward the slums, the hundreds of cases of nervous breakdown, all mean just this: that the individual has failed to adjust himself. Wherefore, this matter of adjustment becomes the vital point in the problem of existence; and social workers, lawyers, alienists and judges have not separate and distinct problems, but one great problem in common.

Applying this specifically to education, Dr. Paton suggested that it would be well if schools, colleges, and universities might become transformed into educational institutions. For the thing of first importance is not whether a boy shall study Greek or mathematics, but that he shall learn to live. So then, the true order in education is, first, how to live, then how to study, last, what to study. And the problems of education

THE EXHIBIT OF WORK BY PATIENTS IN INSANE HOSPITALS



Courtesy Sheppard & Enoch Pratt Hospital

During the recent Medical-Psychological Association Convention, an exhibit of work done by patients in the occupational classes of the different hospitals was shown in the ball room of the Hotel Belvidere. In alcoves of the ballroom were booths containing a great variety of skillful work ranging from fine laces and embroidery to wicker work, furniture, articles of hammered brass and even a hospital magazine. Photographs, charts, samples of records, order blanks and other administrative details, and ground plans, almost filled the main floor.

are seen to be the problems of adjustment, and of mental hygiene.

Dr. Paton told of some experiences of his own at Princeton. An informal suggestion was made in the university,—that there might be a few students who would care to talk over problems of adjustment in their own life and experience. The men responded in numbers that would have taxed the activities of three advisors. But, as the symptoms of maladjustment are by university age so far developed that readjustment is difficult, and often impossible, the work must be begun earlier—with studies in human conduct, and means in schools whereby students may be assisted at the right time in this most vital point of education.

The paper by Senator McLean, of Connecticut, on The Conservation of Mental Health: a National Problem, was read, in Senator McLean's absence, by Dr. C. Macfie Campbell, of the Phipps Clinic.

Reviewing the achievements in conservation and progress in Commerce and agriculture, Senator McLean paid tribute to the work of Reed, Carroll, Gorgas, White, and others, and urged that similar achievements be reached in the domain of mind. Some of the federal government's work to this end, Senator McLean indicated briefly, mentioning the hospital at Washington, primarily for officers and enlisted men and the army and navy and beneficiaries of the Marine Hospital Service, the work for insane Indians, at Canton, S. D., the new institution at Ancon, soon to be completed, the new St. Lazaro at Manila and the examination of immigrants at Ellis Island. The only territory under the American flag where no provision is now made for the insane is Alaska.

Senator McLean referred to the work of the Bureau of Education which was establishing classes for backward children all over the country, and seeking better means for selecting the children for these classes.

Introducing the last speaker, Dr. William H. Welch, of Johns Hopkins Medical School, Dr. Barker mentioned a few facts recalling not only the speaker's interest in all problems of hygiene, but his influence in this field as well. It was through Dr. Welch that the first large gift of \$50,000 for the National Committee for Mental Hygiene was obtained. It was through Dr. Welch's presentation of the need that Mr. Phipps gave over \$1,000,000 for the Phipps Psychiatric Clinic at Johns Hopkins Hospital. He trained Reed, Carroll, Lazaer and Agramonte, whose names are well-known in the records of sanitary progress.

When he began to speak, after the applause of recognition, Dr. Welch traced a large part of the organized effort, characteristic of this age, to new scientific knowledge. This knowledge, originally in possession of a few, has been extended for the benefit of the many.

Quite as important as the direct success of such campaigns as that against tuberculosis, have been some by-products of these campaigns. For instance, anti-tuberculosis work has not only reduced the amount of tuberculosis, but has led to a study of conditions in homes and work-shops, and has influenced mankind to ways of better living—living in open air, sleeping in open air, and using wholesome food. The campaign against typhoid fever has meant also an improved water supply, improved milk and food supply and more decent conditions of living in many different ways. The anti-malaria campaign has meant also restoration of waste marsh land,—has meant the riddance of such pests as the mosquito and much else.

Dr. Welch pleaded for a saner attitude toward the insane. The realization that insanity was a disease, or one of many diseases, not a demonic possession or an "affliction," has been much too long delayed. Education on subjects of mental hygiene is, he said, needed

for people and for doctors as well. Research is needed, study of conditions from whence insanity springs; study of the institutions which care for the insane; study of debatable questions, of "border-line" cases; study of the laws giving commitment of the insane; study of those committed and of the after-care of those same patients.

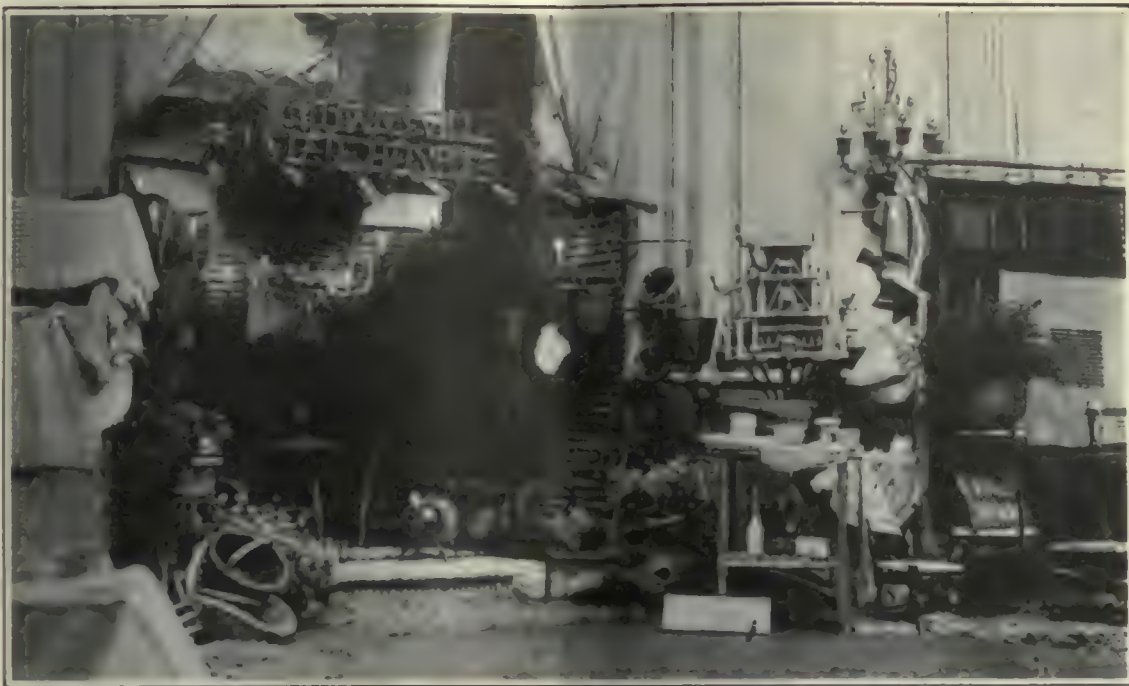
Dr. Welch closed with a note of strong encouragement to workers who are doing this pioneer service in teaching humanity how to live.

The reports from individual societies, called for in chronological order, beginning with the society first organized, indicated the special problem and interest of each state.

Connecticut.—First of the states to organize a Mental Hygiene Society, organized 1908, Miss Macdonald, secretary: The problem of this society is one of publicity and individual assistance. The public must be reached both to make known the opportunities of aid for those mentally afflicted, and to arouse interest and public support. A free clinic has been established, and has been advertised by means of leaflets, letters to the medical profession, personal explanatory visits to organized charities, visiting nurses, teachers, settlements, churches, clubs. The most wide-spread results have come from the exhibit prepared by the National Committee. Interest and support in various sections of the State have been secured by sending letters to lists of people carefully selected from local information.

Illinois—organized 1909, Elnora Thomson, secretary: Illinois was the first state in the Middle West to organize a society for mental hygiene. But actual work of this kind began in Chicago several years ago, when Miss Lathrop, now head of the Children's Bureau, was on the State Board of Charities. In co-operation with Rabbi Emil G. Hirsch, Miss Lathrop introduced some methods of mental hygiene.

The society's first work, 1909, was a



Photograph by the Baltimore Sun

EXHIBIT OF THE STATE HOSPITAL FOR INSANE NEGROES, CROWNSVILLE, MD.

This booth was awarded the first prize of the exhibit. Dr. Winterode, superintendent of the Crownsville hospital, gave interesting explanations of the different items. The rustic cabin background was suggested by a man of sixty, a case of senile dementia.

Crownsville has a farm of twenty acres. It grows its own willows for the wicker work. The burlap which comes wrapped around the meat supplies, is cleansed, dyed and woven into such attractive, fluffy rugs as those shown in the picture.

study of cases pending commitment to the county hospital. This was done at the request of Judge Owen, of the County Court, who, having often fifty to seventy-five cases to pass on in the one day given each week to this work, often felt his information inadequate as a basis of judgment. From three to five nurses now carry on this inspection. An automobile ambulance and a limousine have replaced stretcher and patrol wagon for transferring patients. The Illinois society's problem is financial. The work is hampered for lack of office room, and office assistants. The State Board of Administration has just granted \$50 a month toward the services of an after-care worker,—this is the beginning of the city's taking over such care.

New York—organized 1910. Dr. W. L. Russell gave a brief historical sketch of the development of the society from relief work of the civil war, and alluded to its work of education, after-care, and in securing better legislation. The Social Service Department was reported by Miss Tucker. No trouble existed in finding cases to begin on, she said. The society was formed in response to calls from all over the state for information about care of cases of individuals and social agencies, cases of mental disorders, methods of follow-up work, etc. Much has been done by correspondence. Much by consultation, in New York city, with other social agencies. The East Side clinic,—now transferred to the Cornell Clinic—was organized at first for those who were prejudiced against hospitals, and to ensure better after-care to those

in the neighborhood. Reporting was more faithfully done when patients signed a little card promising to return.

The chief problem in New York is facilities. For example, to secure employment for patients is very difficult. Again, a place is needed to which convalescing patients may be sent. Legislation has been secured which permits the quiet transfer of patients to and from hospitals without the publicity of patrol and policemen.

New Jersey—organized 1912. Dr. Schaeffer: Mental hygiene work is represented in this state by a committee of the Sanitary Association. But work thus far is being done by individuals rather than by co-operative effort. As president of the State Board of Education, Dr. Schaeffer conferred with teachers, and endeavored to detail incident cases of insanity among school children.

Massachusetts—organized 1912. Dr. Charles E. Thompson: Work in this state is distinctly medical because so many institutions are already doing extensive social service work. The aim is to educate the public in this subject of mental hygiene. Funds are nearly complete which will secure the services of a medical director for three years, and allow the society to begin its campaign.

Maryland—organized 1911, Dr. W. B. Cornell, secretary: Little propaganda work has been done; rather, attention has been demanded for practical work with individual cases. Close co-operation between all social agencies adds to the effectiveness of the work. Some of these agencies that send cases to the society—

besides the state hospitals—are police magistrates, police captains, juvenile courts, public schools, the child labor bureau and the federated charities. About five hundred cases have been handled in the past seventeen months. These have been preventive cases, cases for after-care, and a few that were stranded in hospitals. One aim for the immediate future is an adequate system of records, covering the entire history of every case. The state legislature appropriated at its last session \$2,500 for two years. This will be of material aid in the work.

Pennsylvania—organized 1911. Mr. R. D. Dripps: In this state large numbers of insane are cared for in almshouses and institutions. A careful survey of this care through the entire state is the society's first plan, looking toward legislation for improved conditions.

North Carolina—organized 1913. Dr. Albert Anderson: Work began with the National Committee's exhibit at Raleigh, at the time of the Teachers' Assembly. Dr. Adolf Meyer's address at the meeting also created interest. Work has been preliminary, consisting chiefly of distributing literature on mental hygiene.

In closing, Dr. Paton called on Clifford W. Beers, secretary of the National Committee, to summarize reports from several states. Mr. Beers told of the special situations in Maine, where political and personal forces had created a difficult problem, which, it is believed, societies for mental hygiene can help solve. Societies are about to be formed in eight or ten states; Sydney, N. S. W., is deeply interested, also Canada and South Africa.

DELINQUENCY AND MENTAL DEFICIENCY—By OLGA BRIDGEMAN, M. D.

DURING RECENT years, the vice question has been assuming an important place among social problems, and many different causes for sexual immorality have been studied with the hope that some improvement of conditions may result.

It has been argued by many, that the inadequate wages, which so many working girls receive, should be regarded as one important cause. On the other hand, it has been held that immorality is the result of natural immoral tendencies on the part of the girls themselves rather than of incidental causes. There are many causes underlying this problem. Among them is one which is undoubtedly important but which has never received due consideration. This cause is mental deficiency.

In the Illinois Training School for Girls, in Geneva, there is a group of young girls, most of whom have failed to lead a moral life under the conditions in which they had lived, and so have "gone wrong." The Geneva institution has, at present, a population of approximately 400 girls, varying in age from ten to twenty-one years, the majority of whom have been guilty of sexual immorality, and of whom nearly 60 per cent are on admission suffering from a venereal disease.

The vast majority of children sent to Geneva have been held for delinquency alone. Many of these children, but by no means all, have attended the public schools where they have usually been the dull children in the classes and have been distinctly below their normal school grades. With the exception of those coming from the Chicago juvenile court, none have received mental examination, and if it has been noted that the child is "not bright," this has been taken merely as an incidental fact and not at all recognized as having a vital relationship to the child's delinquency.

Such a child is committed to Geneva in the hope that a period of rational living, with plenty of good food, comfortable clothing, regular hours of sleep and an abundance of fresh air, will give new interests to replace the old, bad ones, and that as a result of her stay in the institution, she will go out with fresh ambitions and a wealth of physical strength sufficient to fulfill them.

To be sure, not nearly all of the girls appearing in the courts are sent to such an institution as Geneva. With the establishment of juvenile courts, there has developed a tendency to continue the hearings of these cases from time to time, permitting the child to remain in her old home or in some suitable family home, where she is subject to the friendly supervision of a probation officer. The results of this system have been so good that at present a comparatively small proportion of the girls appearing in court are ever committed to Geneva, and those who do arrive here are, as a rule, incorrigible offenders for whom satisfactory supervision outside of an institution has proved impossible.

As an exception to this general type

of old offenders may be taken a small number of cases sent from districts which have no system of juvenile supervision, and which still persist in committing girls for very trivial offenses or even because of mere financial dependence. This practice of sending dependent children or those guilty of the mildest offenses to an institution, compelling them to associate with hardened offenders and degenerates, cannot be too severely condemned.

Simple contact during daily work with these girls, was enough to show that a surprisingly large number were quite irresponsible and were definitely inferior to normal children both in and out of school. When we had recognized this fact we began the routine application to all new admissions of the Binet tests as modified by Dr. Goddard for American children, for the purpose of making a rapid estimate of the mental plane of the children. The results were startling and fully justified the idea that mental deficiency and delinquency are closely associated.

We examined in all, 118 consecutive admissions. Of these, 105, or 89 per cent, showed a retardation of three years or more, thus ranking as mentally defective; seven, or 6 per cent, were backward, being one or two years retarded; and six, or 5 per cent, were graded as normal.

When it is recalled that dependent as well as delinquent children may be sent to Geneva, the fact that three of the six normal and five of the seven backward children were simply dependent, makes the inter-relationship between mental deficiency and delinquency even more striking. Of these 118 children examined, fourteen had been committed as dependent or uncontrollable at home, and none of these had been sexually immoral. Of the 104 remaining, all of whom had been sexually immoral, 101 graded as mental defectives and three as normal. According to the Binet tests, then, 97 per cent of the children sent to this institution because of sexual immorality are mentally defective.

By far the larger proportion of this group of delinquents are of the weak-willed, irresponsible type, who invariably behave as do those with whom they are thrown. These girls are usually friendly and anxious to please everyone and frequently do very well under careful supervision, but when thrown on their own resources are a constant menace to themselves and to society.

An example of this type is Amelia A., a girl who had been placed in an excellent home, and had for years led a seemingly happy existence. She earned a fair livelihood and was assured of a permanently good home where real affection was felt for her. At twenty-one years of age, because the law so decreed it, she was formally released from all supervision and her bank book was turned over to her. She was, however, strongly advised to remain with the family who had given her a home for so long a time. She expressed her full in-

tention of doing this, but before many days had elapsed, she left this home and with a chance acquaintance she made, proceeded to spend most of her money in a drunken spree, and was sentenced to jail for thirty days.

Since that time, her life has been simply a series of jail sentences, interspersed with periods of debauchery and immorality. This complete downfall in a few months, after years of orderly and apparently contented life, is only one of several similar instances showing the vital importance of proper supervision of such girls.

Another example is Pearl S., who was sent to Geneva in a most deplorable physical condition, with both gonorrhea and syphilis, after having worked for a few months in a factory at a most meagre wage. She did not know why she had been "bad," but "couldn't help it." The court committing her sent her to Geneva with the recommendation that she be allowed to return to her home after having received thorough treatment for the diseases from which she was suffering. This girl had the mentality of a child of seven years.

Of a decidedly different type is Helen L., who, though only ten year old, has most vicious and aggressive sexual tendencies. She is not a passive victim like Pearl S., but has herself such strong perverted impulses, that constant watching is necessary to keep her from indulging them. This child has the mentality of a five-year-old.

The moral and mental defects which these girls show are being considered more and more as permanent and incurable, and yet, as the law now stands, this institution keeps them through their girlhood, developing in them strong and healthy bodies, and at the age of twenty-one turns them out, physically vigorous but mentally weak, and the very best that can be looked for is that they will marry as they very often do. Yet such marriages of Geneva girls are already furnishing more material for our various state institutions.

These girls are not criminals whom a sentence in a reformatory and a little training will reform. In most cases they can be demonstrated to be mentally defective and utterly "incapable of competing on equal terms with their normal fellows, or of managing themselves or their affairs with ordinary prudence."

Their vicious habits and criminal tendencies soon alienate them from their friends and families, who in despair of controlling them, abandon them to the fate of picking up a living on the streets. Drunkenness, petty thieving and prostitution bring them back to reformatories time after time, the only value of the institution being the temporary protection it affords them from the perils of the street, which in the case of feeble-minded girls are appalling.

What they need is protection and friendly detention in some institution other than a reformatory for a period far longer than the gravity of their offenses would warrant, where they can be properly supervised and their anti-social tendencies be held permanently in abeyance.

INDUSTRY

SEARCHLIGHT TURNED ON CHILD LABOR AND THE TAILORING TRADES—BY CHRISTINA MERRIMAN PROBING THE CAUSES OF UNREST—V

THE MOST interesting testimony of the week before the Commission on Industrial Relations was brought out when the commission, grown restive under conflicting stories of conditions under which men's garments were finished in the tenements, called Mary Minora to the stand.

Mrs. Minora is a fair-haired Italian girl of fifteen years. She has been married two years, has a baby six months old, and has worked at "finishing" since she was ten. She didn't know what grade she was in during the two or three years she had gone to school. She had helped her mother work on garments three days a week and had gone to school two.

With her husband, baby, father, mother and little brother she lives in a tenement of three rooms, and works from eight o'clock in the morning to nine o'clock at night finishing "pants." If she works very fast, she can make as much as 60 cents a day.

Her mother, who because of her long practice is more skillful, makes usually 80 cents. And on the combined earnings of these two live the six members of the household, for the father and husband have been out of work for the past nine months. They take turns at the housework in between looking for jobs, so the two women need lose no time from their work. Their rent is \$13.50 a month and they try to put aside five cents a day for clothing.

Mrs. Falzone, who followed her on the stand, explained that she worked as a finisher for nine years, on the best custom made garments. She matches Mrs. Minora's record of about 60 cents for a good day's work, and to lose no time starts the day at four or five o'clock in the morning. Her husband, too, is out of work which makes it hard, but she "lives as God provides," she told the commission. However, she has meat at least once a week and the rest of the time lives on macaroni and cabbage.

The two women told their stories with a direct simplicity that had the weight of truth; and the commission decided to spend Saturday afternoon investigating for themselves at first hand.

Mrs. Minora testified that she had never seen a factory inspector in her life. This went home alike to those who had attacked home work as being a carrier of disease, and to the contractors who had denied that bad conditions could possibly exist as they sent their work only to "licensed" tenements.

Lillian D. Wald of the Nurses' Settlement, felt "unequivocally" that home work should be abolished, not only be-

cause of the bad sanitary conditions and inadequate inspection, but because children were kept at work for long hours when they should be at school.

Indeed, Miss Wald said, there was little or nothing done to prevent the spread of contagious disease, and she had herself seen a garment, sent out to be finished, spread over a scarlet fever patient.

These conditions are in strong contrast to those in the women's garment industries, where the Joint Board of Sanitary Control has done revolutionary work. Miss Wald felt that a drastic law absolutely prohibiting home work was needed.

The chief mercantile inspector of the New York State Labor Department, James L. Gernon, thought it highly improbable that his inspectors got around more than once in any one year. "To be perfectly candid," he said, "I doubt if they've gotten around more than once in the six years I've been in office."

Charles A. Rosenwasser, a garment contractor, told the commission that the witnesses were prejudiced. Most of the women had husbands at work, so what they made at finishing was extra money in their pockets. And, so far as sanitary conditions were concerned, "there's one thing that comes between the scarlet fever and the man who wears the coat, and that's a hot iron."

"Um-m-m," remarked Commissioner Garretson, "assuming for a moment that a hot iron is a good disinfectant, what protection has the man in the shop who's doing the ironing?"

"Well, of course, I don't advocate spreading germs," said Mr. Rosenwasser.

Mayer Schoenfeld, a representative of the contractors, who directly preceded Mrs. Minora in his testimony, was quite sure the commission should not pay too much attention to what they heard about East Side conditions.

"These issues are all sentimental," said Mr. Schoenfeld.

"Do you know Miss Wald?" asked Chairman Walsh.

Mr. Schoenfeld had known her for years, and thought her a very distinguished person. "But she is like all good people who go slum visiting. She has a good heart, but she's apt to be carried away by her sympathy with the under dog."

Jacob Panken, an attorney for the United Brotherhood of Tailors, said that the unions "were deadly opposed to home work," and that there was no child labor in union shops. He discussed the agreements under which the unions and some

of the manufacturers worked, and held strongly that where the manufacturer did something which clearly violated a contract, it should result in a strike, not arbitration; and he stuck to his point in the face of sharp challenges by Commissioners Garretson, Lennon and O'Connell, who held that the terms of contract were never so clear-cut that they could not be subject to different interpretations.

The query into state intervention in industrial disputes developed the interesting statements that the mere threat of investigation of strike difficulties was often enough to make the two sides come to terms.

John Lundrigan, formerly on the New York State Mediation Board, told of conducting an investigation into the strike at the International Paper Company's mills in 1910. Both sides had refused to arbitrate. There had been some violence, and the militia had been called in.

"The investigation was held at Corinth, and we adjourned for the purpose of making a report. The same night we were requested by some of the union officials to make another effort at conciliation, and were notified soon after that the company would deal with any union leaders other than the ones they had already conferred with. A settlement was reached in five or six days."

"As a matter of fact," said Mr. Lundrigan, "These investigations were seldom completed—we never even got to the place where we called a witness. The mere fact that the investigation was to be held induced the parties to get together."

Labor Commissioner Lynch was asked which side, in his opinion, feared to have the facts brought out.

"Well," he parried, "I suppose the unions, if they were wrong, or the employers, if they were wrong."

Mr. Lennon was curious to know whether the unions or the corporations were usually first to ask arbitration.

"Well," said Mr. Lundrigan, "Neither side wanted to see you until it was licked, and then the licked fellow was keen to have you step in."

Mr. Lundrigan and William C. Rogers, chief mediator of the New York State Labor Department, believed that the state should be able to compel mediation. The mediators might be called in upon the demand of either side, or of the municipality affected. Most of the witnesses favored also a federal bureau of mediation, to be called in whenever there was a strike which involved more than one state.

George L. Basford, who has acted as advisor in installing continuation schools in many railroad shops, feels that it is the work of the school to prepare the minds of the boys, but the work of the

employer to teach the trade. "It is absolutely the corporation's business," said Mr. Basford.

"What's to be done with the boys who don't measure up to a certain standard?" asked Mr. Lennon.

"It is the business of every employer to find some place where almost anybody will fit," said Mr. Basford. "They pay great attention to steel and iron, and almost none to human beings."

Dr. C. R. Richards, director of Cooper Union, New York, thought the ideal system would be part-time industrial schools up to the age of eighteen. The control of these schools he would place at first in the hands of the board of education, with an advisory committee consisting of laymen, directly connected with the trades. Those who have spent a year in such schools, should have credit on their term of apprenticeship.

Mr. Lennon wondered whether such schools wouldn't overstock the labor market.

"That would be possible only if there were trade schools all over the country turning out a large number of graduates. But the economic pressure is too great for many of the boys to take time for the training."

Dr. S. Josephine Baker, of the New York City Health Department, felt sure that neither boys nor girls were physiologically fitted for work at fourteen. Nor did she believe that economic pressure was generally a valid reason.

Just here came Elizabeth Watson, a special investigator of the New York Child Welfare League, with a tale of child labor and peonage in southern canneries that brought the listless to attention with a jerk. She told of a child of three, so small that it had to stand on a box to reach its work, shucking oysters for many hours at a stretch. She told of one family consisting of a woman and five children who sometimes made jointly as much as \$3 a day. At other times their earnings were as low as 60 cents. She cited cases of women who for six Sundays in succession worked from two o'clock in the morning to eleven o'clock at night.

"And one Monday afternoon," said she, "a group of them were discharged for sitting down, and weren't given their return tickets."

The long hours were not the only disagreeable conditions Miss Watson found, however. The first time she came across a bad oyster, she asked a man next to her where to throw it.

"Throw it!" said he. "Say, are you crazy? Put it in the can."

The rough oyster shells make the fingers of the workers sore and festered, and Miss Watson told of seeing the oysters handled by workers whose hands were in a shocking condition.

When workers are needed, the canneries send out their "padrones" on a still hunt for families. The best families are those who have the most children. The padrone is paid one dollar a head for workers.

In the Anchor Mill at Rome, Georgia, where heavy cotton twist drill is made for uniforms for the United States Navy, Miss Watson found children work-

ing from six in the morning until six at night. She did not feel that it was just, however, to speak of the conditions in this mill without calling attention to the fact that many other mills in the South making fabrics for the government, were large employers of child labor.

The testimony of Edward F. Brown corroborated Miss Watson's story at many points. Mr. Brown is vice president of the International Child Welfare League, and was formerly connected with the National Child Labor Committee. He declared that one great difficulty in the way of getting better conditions was that the present laws were inadequately enforced, partly because of insufficient state grants, and partly because the laws were administered in a great many cases by politicians who were not always immune to the interests of the manufacturers.

Asked by the commission as to the best machinery for enforcing child labor laws, Owen R. Lovejoy, secretary of the National Child Labor Committee, thought that we should adopt some plan of co-ordination of the activities involved in the administration under one department. He made a strong plea for a federal child labor law which would make it illegal to transport from one state to another the products of any industry which employed children under sixteen years of age.

The commission learned that New York is giving a definite and constructive answer to those who fear that minimum wage legislation will mean dropping the less experienced workers from the pay-roll. In New York city, the Department of Education has started continuation schools in several of the department stores, to give the younger girls something which will make them more valuable to the store. The work is under the direction of Mrs. Anna H. Willcox, who told the commission that while the work was still in the experimental stage, it promised remarkable results. The first class was started last October. In one store, nine out of the sixteen pupils have had their pay raised as a direct result of increased efficiency, and five out of the nine were advanced in their positions.

So far the work has been confined to the "Juniors" under seventeen years old. Mrs. Willcox hopes to be able soon to raise the age to twenty-one, and

to include instruction in salesmanship, in the methods of making materials, and in how to tell the different qualities of fabrics.

Frederick C. Howe, director of the Peoples' Institute was called upon for his views as to the significant and underlying causes for industrial unrest. He felt that two definite assumptions prevailed in the testimony so far given.

The first accepted the present capitalistic system as inevitable and permanent, dividing society into employers and employees.

The second contended that the relation of capital and labor should be abolished and a system of Socialism introduced.

"There is another alternative which covers the objections to both of those systems," said Mr. Howe. "It is just as complete a social program as Socialism itself, but it avoids all the possible evils of a Socialistic society. . . . It is the philosophy which for twenty-five years has gone under the name of single tax—an industrial and social philosophy as well as a financial philosophy."

The single tax, he thought, would do away with the need of labor exchange, minimum wage and social legislation. It would release so much land for building purposes that the demand for labor would far exceed the supply. Wages would go up and the laborer could care for himself without minimum wage laws, employment exchanges or social legislation.

"The proposition is so very simple that its very simplicity makes people incredulous. It could be introduced in New York by the adoption of an amendment one inch long, providing that all taxes would be abolished except the tax on land."

The commission listened attentively for over an hour while Mr. Howe expounded his thesis.

"Do you believe," asked Chairman Walsh, "that the public could be induced to adopt such a philosophy in our time, considering the present institutions of property in land?"

Mr. Howe thought yes, emphatically and asked Mr. Walsh to remember the time when the man who believed in woman's suffrage was thought crazy, and when not so long ago workmen's compensation and widows' pension laws were put down as the figments of the social reformers' brain.

THE CLOSED SHOP AND THE LABOR BOYCOTT—BY HARRY W. LAIDLER

AUTHOR OF BOYCOTTS AND THE LABOR STRUGGLE

OF considerable significance to labor is the decision recently handed down by the Supreme Court Commission No. 2 of Oklahoma, upholding the right of the union to strike for the closed shop and declaring that a suit in damages against a union for causing the discharge of a non-unionist will not be upheld.

The court thus placed itself on record in favor of the legality of the strike for the closed shop, as well as of the accompanying compound labor boycott.

The decision of Judge Brewer in the Oklahoma case is in line with those in New York and Indiana courts, though contrary to precedents established by the courts of many other states, notably Connecticut, Massachusetts, Maryland, New Jersey, Pennsylvania, Illinois and Missouri.

In this case, J. H. Roddy, a miner, brought an action for \$100,000 damages against the members of the Phillips Local, United Mine Workers of America, for causing his discharge from the

employ of the Western Coal and Mining Company. The unionists, it is alleged, stated to the foreman of the company that the plaintiff was "unfit to work with union men and that if Roddy was retained in the service, the union would strike." Roddy claimed that he was discharged because of this demand, as well as on account of the agreement between the union and the company that non-union men would not be employed.

These charges, the court decided, did not state a cause of action, inasmuch as any man, in the absence of a contract to work for a definite length of time, had a right to quit. The same right, the court affirmed, extended to a combination of individuals.

The decision of the Oklahoma court followed that of Justice Parker in the well known case of the National Protective Association v. Cumming, decided a dozen years ago. As a result of this decision and subsequent declarations of the lower courts, it is now generally legal in New York state for a union to strike in order to enforce the closed shop principle; consequently non-unionists who are discharged as a result of a strike or a threatened strike cannot hold the union liable in damages.

There are, however, two or three limitations to this right. Should the sole motive of a strike of this nature be to do injury to non-unionists or should the strike be prompted by malice, it might be considered illegal. In the second place, an agreement would be illegal that provided for the exclusive employment of unionists, thus virtually preventing non-unionists from obtaining any work at their trade in the vicinity of their former occupations, and automatically giving a monopoly to organized labor. A strike entered upon in pursuance of this purpose would probably be enjoined.

Preceding the more liberal decisions of the New York courts, the Indiana supreme court had decided that it was legal for miners to strike to obtain the discharge of non-union men.

The courts which favor the closed shop principle generally take as their starting point the rights of the union worker. The reasoning is simple, and follows that of the Oklahoma court. One man has a right to refuse to work for any reason he may deem sufficient, and the employer has no right to demand a reason. He may give a reason, if he desires, and may frankly state that he does not care to work with a non-unionist. Such a statement or "threat" does not give a ground for action to non-unionist or employer, nor does it justify the injunctive or criminal process. The same reasoning applies to a body of men.

The higher courts in Connecticut, Illinois, Maryland, Missouri and New Jersey, among others, have sustained actions in damages against unionists for securing the discharge of non-union labor. In Massachusetts, New Jersey and Pennsylvania, injunction proceedings have been sustained, and in Vermont criminal proceedings have been brought to a successful issue. In some instances the breaking of contracts, extortion, etc., have been involved.

Courts deciding that a strike for the closed shop is illegal have concentrated attention on the rights of the injured non-unionist or of the employer: the non-unionist's right to enjoy a free labor market and to dispose of his labor as he sees fit; the employer's right to employ whomever he may desire. It is at times stated that a strike for the closed shop and a consequent labor boycott violate the constitutional provisions which declare that no person shall be deprived of life, liberty or property without due process of law and that no state shall deprive any person of the equal protection of the laws.

An employer, the courts declare, has a right to carry on his business in any way he sees fit, to employ or refuse to employ men for any reason or without reason. Interference with this right is against public policy, as it tends to destroy competition and to deprive a man of liberty and property. The non-unionist also has a right to work for others without molestation, and interference with such a right without justification, is illegal.

Some courts distinguish a strike to secure the discharge of non-union men from a strike to obtain better wages, etc. on the ground that the immediate object of the former is that of injury and that the law does not look beyond the immediate loss and damage to the remote benefits which might result to the union.

It is seen from the foregoing that little attempt has thus far been made by courts to decide the question of the legality of this form of labor activity from the broader standpoint of social welfare. While the writer agrees in general with the conclusions reached by Oklahoma and New York courts, he believes that the judges who have heretofore favored the legality of the closed shop and the accompanying labor boycott have, for the most part, failed to consider such vital questions as that of the character of the union and of its terms of membership. Should the qualifications for membership in a union be fair and reasonable, the courts might do well to approve the principle of the closed shop on the grounds of social advantage. For a strong labor movement is essential to social progress, and experience has taught the value of the closed shop as a means of strengthening the union forces.

If the union is a worthy one, and non-unionists refuse to join and assist in the struggle for better conditions, the latter's interest should not be decided superior to the interest of organized labor. On the other hand, if the union is a "closed union" or if the terms of admission to membership are frivolous, proper protection should be given to non-unionists unjustly denied the privilege of membership. In the words of Justice Holmes: "The true grounds of decision are considerations of policy and social advantage, and it is in vain to suppose that solutions can be attained merely by logic and general propositions of law which nobody disputes." Finally, the decisions in these cases indicate the great need for legislation, state and national, that will clearly define the rights of all parties.

LABOR AMENDMENTS TO THE ANTI-TRUST BILL

TWO AMENDMENTS to the Clayton anti-trust bill were accepted last week by the House of Representatives which involve some of the exemptions for which organized labor has been fighting for a number of years. The first amendment applies to labor unions and farmers' associations, and reads:

"Nor shall such organizations, orders, or associations, or members thereof, be held or construed to be illegal combinations in restraint of trade under the anti-trust laws."

The second amendment establishes the principle that no injunction shall be granted in a United States court in the case of a labor dispute, "unless necessary to prevent irreparable injury to property or of a property right for which injury there is no adequate remedy at law." Under the amendment no restraining order shall prohibit the cessation of work or peaceful picketing, boycotting or peaceable assembling.

The first amendment may accomplish directly the object that was sought by indirection in the bill that was passed by the last Congress prohibiting the use of any part of the appropriation in the sundry civil bill for the prosecution of labor unions. It has been criticized sharply, however, as being so vague in wording that both those who want labor unions exempted and those who don't, think they have gained their point. It was enacted by unanimous vote of the House.

There was considerable opposition to the second amendment. In the course of debate, Representative Moore of Pennsylvania denounced supporters of the amendment, and pointing to the gallery where Frank Morrison and other labor leaders were seated, declared that he had not "waited for a nod from the gallery to tell him how to vote." THE SURVEY will later publish a review of these amendments.

A. F. OF L. CONTEMPT CASE DISMISSED

The Supreme Court of the United States on May 11, reversed the decision of the lower courts and dismissed the contempt case involving Samuel Gompers, Frank Morrison and John Mitchell which has been in the courts since 1911.

The case grew out of an alleged violation of the injunction granted in the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia against publishing the name of the Bucks Stove and Range Company in the unfair list of the American Federation of Labor. Justice Wright of the Supreme Court of the District of Columbia sentenced these men, as the three highest officials in the American Federation of Labor, to terms of imprisonment ranging from nine months to a year. In the United States Court of Appeals, the sentences were reduced to a fine of \$500 each and imprisonment of one month for Gompers alone.

This final action of the Supreme Court is based chiefly on the statute of limitations. The action was begun on May 16, 1911, while the most important acts which were declared to constitute contempt of court were committed more than three years prior to that date.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

FIGHTING ALCOHOL WITH EDUCATIONAL EXHIBITS —BY CORA FRANCES STODDARD

SECRETARY, SCIENTIFIC TEMPERANCE FEDERATION, BOSTON

ELEVEN YEARS AGO the writer saw in Bremen, Germany, the first anti-alcohol exhibit. It was a creditable affair even then, with diagrams, pathological models, wealth of literature, and "alcohol-free" drinks. But the plan has been developed until today in continental Europe the anti-alcohol exhibit is one of the great factors in the educational propaganda which is apparently beginning to cut down the consumption of alcohol in Germany, enlisting all classes and receiving well-planned government support. In Germany alone there are three traveling exhibits going constantly from city to city. Switzerland has one, as has Sweden.

There was no serious attempt in the United States to utilize the exhibit plan on any comprehensive scale in work against alcoholism until the Scientific Temperance Federation was invited to exhibit facts concerning alcohol at the exposition of the International Congress on Hygiene and Demography at Washington, in September, 1912.

As it was practically a new idea in this country, the amount of money that could be gathered for the purpose was discouragingly small, and expensive devices were obviously out of the question. Ingenuity was set to work to supply what could not be had by money, and when the exhibit was completed it was accounted creditable and attractive, with variety of illustrative methods, and it won a diploma of merit from the jury of awards of the Hygienic Congress Exposition.

The exhibit method was not entirely new to the Scientific Temperance Federation. For four years, the federation had been renting and lending all over this country and Canada hand-made diagrams representing the results of physiological and social investigations concerning the effects of alcohol, and literally millions of persons had been reached with the facts in this way. The formal exhibit, therefore, was simply an extension of previous plans.

The subject matter of the exhibit deals with the relation of alcohol to physical and mental working ability, to sickness, accidents, mortality, heredity, and to such social aspects as crime, suicide, divorce, child neglect, poverty and pauperism. The model, picture-model and diagram all have a place in portraying the facts.

One finds in it the striking comparative mortality of babies born of sober and of drinking mothers worked out in tiny dolls, those dressed in black representing the babies who died under two years of age.

The insurance statistics of abstainers

and non-abstainers are shown by small gravestones for the percentage which died, and dolls to represent the living.

Cylinders of varying heights tell the story of the proportionate amount of work done with and without alcohol. Prisms show the relative amount of sickness, duration of sickness and death in benefit societies requiring abstinence and in those requiring none.

Diagrams illustrate the detrimental effect of alcohol in tuberculosis; the frequent coincidence of the alcohol habit with feeble-mindedness and other mental defects; the alcoholic factor in non-support and other domestic tragedies which tax the social worker and the public welfare; the disorganizing effect of alcohol upon industry in lowered efficiency, increased accident and sickness rate, loss of time and deterioration in skill.

Once finished and its feasibility demonstrated, the exhibit was in demand in connection with other great expositions. The result has been attendance in numbers and personnel which might not have been secured otherwise, since some of these many people, believing that there is nothing new under the sun on the alcoholic question, might not have seen it had they not come upon it in general expositions.

Ten weeks of the year following its

TILL DEATH DO US PART



**Alcoholic Drinks Helped Break Up
9,228 Homes Every Year
184,568 in Twenty Years**

1887-1906

**One in Every Three Husbands
Divorced for Cruelty was
Intemperate**

Alcohol is an Enemy to the Home

preparation were spent at the two great missionary expositions, the World in Baltimore and the World in Chicago. It was a part of the Baltimore Mental Hygiene Exposition; of the Buffalo International School Hygiene Exposition; won a gold medal at the New York International Safety Exposition, December, 1913; was a feature of two state agricultural fairs in North Carolina, at the suggestion of the State Board of Health; was an exhibit by itself for ten days at Richmond, Va.; won large attendance at the Brooklyn Y. M. C. A. and later was engaged by a great Brooklyn industrial corporation as a part of its social welfare work. Portions of the exhibit went to child welfare exhibits, and to several great religious conventions from Los Angeles in the West to Atlanta in the South and Washington in the East.

Meanwhile another German plan allied to the general anti-alcohol exhibit was also put into operation by the Scientific Temperance Federation—the store-window exhibit. This has already been taken up effectively in many parts of the country as a means of bringing the truth about alcohol "to the people where they are," for no educational work for any reform can expect to succeed unless it reaches out and takes the truth to the people. A pamphlet has been prepared giving suggestions for organizing such store-window expositions.

During the four years that the federation has been sending out the hand-made diagrams, many requests had come for their publications in poster form for less expensive and wider distribution. Not until after the exhibit had been organized, did this become practicable. Now about fifty of the best features of the exhibit have been published in attractive poster size by the Scientific Temperance Federation so that at a moderate expense any community can have a little anti-alcohol exhibit of its own. The posters are all illustrated, either by pictures or diagrams and many of them are printed in colors. The exhibit may be used alone or it may be combined with a general educational campaign. An illustrated hand-book with supplementary data is also available.

The illustrated posters will not, of course, take the place of the large exhibit for the most important work. For this a moderate rental is charged to cover expenses of maintenance and the cost of an expert demonstrator, because to make the exhibit of the highest possible value an attendant is required who knows the facts and how to adapt their presentation to the interests and needs of the constantly shifting and various "audiences."

For the anti-alcohol exhibit has been an "audience getter." At every exposition it has drawn proportionately an ex-

ceedingly large and interested attendance. The visitors have ranged from university professors and physicians to the eager street gamins who ask for the repetition of some favorite illustration—"Tell us about the *joins*" (germs). The college student, the business man, the day-laborer, the social worker, the policeman, the fireman, the nurse, the teacher, the parent, the school boy and girl, the clergyman, the leaders of great educational and social movements, have found subjects of practical interest and inquiry.

One of the most valuable features of the exhibit work is that it affords this opportunity of hand-to-hand work in answering questions, in meeting doubts with other evidence, and even in consoling the hearts troubled by the drinking habits of some member of one's household, for the exhibit illustrations of the effects of alcohol could be replaced with far more lurid ones if it were possible or wise to portray the bits of personal experience and observation that are told the demonstrator. Over and over again, some scientific fact is met by the confirming nod of the head of the man of affairs, and his words, "I know that is true; I've seen it in my business."

What the exhibit does in transmuting information into conviction and conviction into action, can be summarized in four comments made to the demonstrator. All are typical of statements frequently made by visitors.

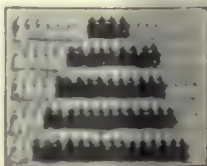
A young workman not very well educated stayed some time listening intently to the explanations. After the others went out, he said, "I haven't been a drinker, but I didn't know but I should have to use it some time. Now I see that I shan't have to. I am very glad I heard this instruction."

A young man a little farther along in the alcohol question, evidently of good family and general intelligence, said that with other young men he had often indulged in the use of alcoholic liquors

Drinking Mothers Lost More than Half their Babies Sober Mothers Less than One-fourth

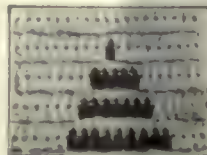
Mortality of Children of 21 DRINKING Mothers

Children in Month and Under Two Years - 42 PER CENT.



Mortality of Children of 26 SOBER Mothers

Children in Month and Under Two Years - 12 PER CENT.



This Sober Mothers were relatives of the Drinking Mothers and had Equal Handicaps

since they were easily accessible. When shown a number of charts relating to health and efficiency, he said from time to time, "I didn't know that," and, finally, with an air of conviction, "No more drink for me."

A third significant comment came from a former bartender who had seen for himself many of the facts displayed. As he passed out he said: "This is the greatest presentation of the anti-alcohol question which I have ever seen. If anything could stop young men from going to the saloon and contracting the alcohol habit, it will be conviction by such facts as you have here, and I believe these will do it."

The fourth remark came from a clergyman of one of America's largest churches who said: "This exhibit has converted me. I have always been a temperance man. Now I am going to fight alcohol."

the writer to classify those vitally interested in the movement as follows:

First, there are those who see in co-operation a great movement destined to solve all the problems that now vex suffering humanity. This class believes that the great thing for which the twentieth century will stand in world history will be the supersession of the competitive by the co-operative régime. With this class co-operation is a religion, and more than one vigorous disciple at the conference expressed his willingness to give his life if need be to this new cause of righteousness. With this group competition is not merely wasteful but "it is born in iniquity," results in the degradation of humanity, and must surrender to the principles of brotherly love as embodied in true co-operation.

Second, there is a class that sees in co-operation not a panacea for all the ills of existing society but a direct means of reducing the high cost of living by the elimination of middlemen in the marketing of farm produce. The difference in price paid by the consumer and the price the farmer secures, is regarded as largely appropriation by a class that reaps where it has not sown. Cut out the middlemen, therefore, and the high cost of living will be solved.

Third, there is a group that sees in co-operation a form of business organization that is superior to the purely competitive order. Many of the wastes of competition are heavy and can be eliminated by co-operative or unionized effort. It is recognized by this group that the function of middlemen is important; but it is believed that in many cases the performance of this function, as well as the producing of the raw materials in the first instance, can be more economically accomplished by co-operation than by competition. The elements making up this class, therefore, include farmers, business interests (middlemen) and students of economics in general.

There should perhaps be added a fourth class, namely, those who hope to serve as leaders in a popular movement of this sort. With some of these the idea is to secure good executive positions in connection with the movement and with others to gain political position through championing the people's cause.

The national organization that is attempting to bring together and keep together these diverse elements has on its hands a stupendous, if not an impossible task. In the first place there is sure to be conflict over the question of the motives of the various types of co-operators. Those who believe that co-operation should find its support in the sympathies, that it is a movement based on brotherly affection, will have difficulty in working amicably with those who believe that the strength of co-operation must lie in its appeal to the pocket-book.

Again, in attempting to embrace both consumers and producers, the movement will find a well-nigh impassable barrier. The farmer believes he is being robbed by the middleman; the consumer is equally sure that he is the one who is

A NATIONAL MOVEMENT FOR CO-OPERATIVE MARKETING AND FARM CREDITS

TWO ORGANIZATIONS joined forces in a four days' discussion of co-operation in marketing and the securing of farm credits in Chicago this spring. The National Conference on Marketing and Farm Credits, which held its first meeting last year, and the Western Economic Society, an organization which holds conferences on important economic questions of the day, co-operated in the presentation of the program, the latter organization in pursuance of its policy, taking no part in business meetings or in the passing of resolutions during the conference.

Two and one-half days were given over to the discussion of marketing and one and one-half days to agricultural credit. The program was arranged by the Western Economic Society. Co-operation was as vigorously attacked as it was extolled, and pending rural credit legislation was both praised and denounced. The conference finally passed minor resolutions urging governmental

caution in the passing of rural credit legislation and requesting an opportunity for co-operative agencies to operate under the protection and regulation of adequate trust legislation. A permanent organization was effected to carry on propaganda work throughout the year and to provide for an annual conference.

Co-operation in marketing and in the securing of rural credit facilities has thus assumed the dignity of a national movement. It is the hope of the leaders in the work to form some sort of a loose federation of interests, which will in a few years cover the entire country and largely supersede the present competitive and individualistic system of organization. This may be said to be the central idea of the movement, but the conference was made up of so many different elements that a clearly defined aim was quite impossible. Constant attendance at the sessions and private conversations with speakers lead

robbed. The farmer will be a co-operator in so far as he can by co-operation secure for himself the returns that now go to the middlemen. But the consumer will feel that the elimination of middlemen should give him his butter and eggs for half present prices. He cannot see how the farmer is entitled to this reduction in cost, for if it all goes to the farmer what is the use of consumers' co-operation?

The answer seems to be that producers and consumers must get together and agree upon a division of the spoils. Can they be expected to do this? They have not been able to do it in the past, and attempts on the part of consumers' co-operative organizations to buy from producers, organizations at less than regu-

lation prices have virtually always proved unsuccessful.

Will this national organization of loosely federated associations of people of diverse ideas and aims be able to bring together consumers and producers, provide an equitable division of the profits, and effect an extensive development of co-operation as opposed to competition? To the writer it seems extremely doubtful; for as yet economic self-interest, whether for good or ill, is a very powerful factor in the affairs of practical life. Producers' associations will doubtless be developed and consumers' organizations will probably gain no little headway; but a great concerted movement in this connection is quite improbable.

A N OLD INSTITUTION TUNING ITS WORK TO THE DAY'S NEEDS—BY W. J. NORTON

THE OLD CANNOT grow young; but who says an old social institution cannot keep its purpose whole, and its ear tuned to new winds of inspiration?

During its life of three quarters of a century the Cincinnati Union Bethel has done just this. At first a Sunday school on the river front, with prominent business men of the day as teachers; then a missionary center for the swarms of boatmen who plied the Ohio River before the decadence of our inland waterways commerce; next a combination Sunday school (with two thousand in attendance), missionary endeavor, lodging-house, and relief work; today the Cincinnati Union Bethel is a social settlement with medical clinics, milk stations, day nursery, a lodging-house, a young women's hotel, and recreation activities in the country.

The seventy-fifth anniversary ceremonies of the Bethel began on Sunday with a celebration by the Sunday school. The present generation of pupils mingled with pupils of past generations. Many of the latter have climbed the ladder of success, and the faces of men prominent throughout the city were seen. A spirit of reminiscence pervaded the meeting, not the



THE FLOATING BETHEL OF 1853

First permanent home of Cincinnati Union Bethel constructed from the hull of an old steamboat.

least interesting part of the program being remarks by neighborhood women who attended the school forty years ago.

The next evening the people of the neighborhood, one of the most congested in the city, gathered to lay emphasis upon the settlement activities.

The exercises closed with a gathering of the contributors to the Bethel and its friends. Addresses were made by ex-President Taft and Owen R. Lovejoy of the National Child Labor Committee.

The Bethel work was organized by O. S. Powell, a Presbyterian minister,

in 1839 in a building on the river bank. In a few months the Boatmen's Bethel Society was formed and a larger building rented. In 1853 the work had so increased that a permanent home was sought, and the floating Bethel was constructed from the hull of an old steamboat. For six years the activities, which were almost exclusively religious and missionary at this time, were carried on in the old boat moored at the foot of Broadway. The following year the Bethel acquired its first real property, the present site of its lodging-house.

In February, 1865, the institution was incorporated: "The object shall be to provide for the spiritual and temporal welfare of river men and their families, and all others who may be unreached by regular church organizations; also to gather in and furnish religious instruction and material aid to the poor and neglected children of Cincinnati and vicinity, and to make such provisions as may be deemed best for their social elevation; also to provide homes and employment for the destitute."

Two years afterward the Union Bethel Church was organized. An old report says it was "with the hearty sanction of the leading pastors in the city at that time. The church stands upon the simple but comprehensive doctrinal basis known as the Apostle's Creed with the phrase 'He descended into hell' omitted, and the phrase 'the Holy Catholic Church' changed to read 'the Holy Church of God.'" Surely a broad foundation for narrow times!

Although emphasis was steadily laid upon evangelical endeavors, there developed interest in social service, which grew until it commanded the same energy as the church activities.

It remained for Mr. and Mrs. J. O. White, who assumed charge of the Bethel about a dozen years ago, to build on this foundation the present structure of social service. Bethel Church activities which had declined became secondary. The social settlement came to the fore and was launched in a new building in 1905. In 1909 came the Anna Louise Inn, a splendid hotel for working women. In 1912 the country home at New Richmond was added.



CINCINNATI UNION BETHEL TODAY
Having all the activities of a modern social center.



ANNA LOUISE INN
Hotel for working women established in 1909.

Communications

TEACHING TEMPERANCE

Three letters and comment thereon by
the Editor

TO THE EDITOR: In view of the large number of letters I have received from readers of *THE SURVEY*, since the publication of the article, *Temperance Education in Public Schools and Its Results* by Edward H. Williams, M. D. (April 18), I ask in the spirit of justice and fairness that the other side be heard.

Allow me to say that Dr. Williams seems entirely ignorant of the work of the Woman's Christian Temperance Union in the department of Scientific Temperance Instruction during the last decade. Since the death of Mary H. Hunt, there has been no such thing as text-books authorized or endorsed by the Woman's Christian Temperance Union.

With the remarkable advance in scientific research as to the nature and effect of alcohol, it became clear to the leaders of the organization that text-books ten, or even five years old, might be outgrown, and should not contain their endorsement. Then, too, the necessity for endorsing such books was passed. The pioneer work was over. The path of teaching an entirely new subject had been blazed. They decided, therefore, not to endorse any text-books, but simply to recommend, when called upon so to do, the books which were up-to-date in scientific research, and best in truthfulness and accuracy.

The department has for counselors some of the best-known men in medical circles in the world—G. Sims Woodhead, professor of pathology in Cambridge University, England; Sir A. Pearce Gould of London; W. L. Reid, for so many years head of the Medical Association of Glasgow, Scotland; Dr. T. Alexander MacNicholl of New York city; and Dr. T. D. Crothers of Hartford, Conn., that veteran in the study of alcohol.

It has also educators of world-wide repute—David Starr Jordan, ex-president of Leland Stanford, Jr., University; George H. Martin, ex-secretary of the State Board of Education of Massachusetts; Arthur Holmes, dean of the State Teachers College of Pennsylvania; and others of like standing. It is self-evident that they would not endorse the absurd statements, "quoted at random" by Dr. Williams. I do not say the statements are not in some text-book, but in my wide study of such books I have never seen them.

It is not my duty to reply to an attack made upon the past. Such attacks have already been answered. But it is my prerogative and duty to reply to an attack upon the present. The following letter is a sufficient reply as to the advisability of this teaching:

"A careful observation has confirmed me in the opinion that children in the public schools should be taught in the most effective way possible the things pertaining to physical and mental health. This certainly would include the effects of alcoholic drinks, tobacco, and narcotic drugs. The purpose of the schools is to prepare children for life. Certainly their physical and mental health are among the most important factors in this preparation."

(Signed) P. P. CLAXTON,
Bureau of Education, Dept. of Interior, Washington, D. C.

Dr. Williams says that in the last analysis, educational movements and methods of any kind must be judged by results. Martin E. Brumbaugh, Ph.D., LL.D., superintendent of the Philadelphia schools, clearly states this year the results of temperance teaching. He says:

"The essays written by the children in our public schools here on scientific temperance, particularly upon the laws of health as they relate to the question of temperance have accomplished an immense amount of good. The children have learned important guiding principles for their lives, and the whole procedure has been so uniformly satisfactory that I wish to give it my cordial approval."

Dr. Williams also quotes government records on the consumption of alcohol and tobacco since scientific temperance instruction has been in operation. Had he quoted other government records his readers would have seen how vast has been the immigration from liquor-making and liquor-drinking countries during the same year. With one million of such immigrants each year, the wonder is we have held the consumption down as low as it is.

Dr. Williams' chief criticism, however, is against the text-books. From that I select the books only which have been recommended by this department, through me as superintendent. One is from *The Body and Its Defense* by Frances Gulick Jewett. Dr. Williams criticises the introduction by Mrs. Jewett of the effect of alcohol upon the blood vessels. This she does by means of an illustration, showing how by electricity through the point of a needle many capillaries may be destroyed, and the red nose of the drinker be relieved of its redness. Certainly Dr. Williams does not belong to the class of teachers, who are "born, not made." He does not quickly grasp what Mrs. Jewett has done with the illustration—introduced the truth in such a way as to rivet the attention of the child.

Mr. McKenny, when superintendent

of the Milwaukee Normal School, told me Mrs. Jewett had the true child's instinct. All over the nation, educators have spoken in highest praise of the Gulick Hygiene Series. Mrs. Ella Flagg Young told me that she read, *Control of Body and Mind* at one sitting, did it up and sent it to the president of the Chicago School Board, receiving from him this reply: "Had I had that book twenty years ago I would be a different man today, but all life henceforth will be somewhat different from having read it, and I cannot tell you how I estimate its value."

Dr. Charles F. Hodge, a member of the Committee of Fifty, wrote Mrs. Jewett his great appreciation of the splendid way in which she had used his investigation of the effect of alcohol upon the cocker spaniels.

The other book criticised is Book I of the Health Series of Alvin Davison, Ph.D., professor of biology in LaFayette College. Dr. Davison introduces an illustration of a rattle-snake on the left and a box of cigars on the right. This is termed in *THE SURVEY*, *Teaching by Innuendo*. Dr. Williams entirely fails to comprehend the use made of it and fails to mention the careful, sane, and scientific way that Dr. Davison teaches the danger of the use of the cigarette.

To wrench one sentence from its context and make it appear ridiculous is unworthy of a scholar. This Dr. Williams does. He leaves out the previous discussion of why lighter clothing should be used in warmly heated houses and says this sentence is used in a book for advanced pupils: "The body can be made comfortable out-of-doors in cold weather by wearing an overcoat or wrap."

We wish it were possible to take up the discussion of the food value of alcohol which Dr. Conn tersely says, "has the same food value as gunpowder has fuel value" and also reply to the number of lessons in this subject required by law. There are but a few states in which the number of lessons is mentioned at all, and where it is the lesson in the lower grades is never expected to be more than ten minutes long while the whole subject of hygiene is covered by it.

Mr. Taft is quite evidently criticising something of which he has little knowledge. But when he said to the young men of Cornell, "to the man who is engaged in responsible work, who must have at his command the best that is in him, at its best, to him I would with all the energy that I possess, advise and urge, leave drink alone absolutely," he must have realized that the ordinary student would wish to know the reasons for such advice and such urging. Scientific temperance instruction gives the reasons.

EDITH SMITH DAVIS.

[Supt. of Scientific Temperance
Instruction of the World's and
National W. C. T. U.]
Hartford, Wis.

TO THE EDITOR: This morning I received the enclosed article by Dr. Williams, a reprint from your issue of April 18. As the names of the persons issu-

ing this reprint are not given, and as the typographical work, size of sheet, etc., are intended to be like those of *THE SURVEY*, and as your name appears in upper left-hand corner of the envelope, the whole thing purports to come from you.

This, of course, I do not believe. Though mailed in New York, this paper was issued and sent out to the clergymen of New Jersey by the Manufacturers' and Merchants' Association, 776 Broad street, Newark, N. J. The name of this association is a euphemism for the Publicity Bureau of the Liquor Interests. They are carrying on a constant warfare in the defense of their business, and have seized upon this article as ammunition.

Without raising the question as to the merits of Dr. Williams' paper, which I read with great interest when it appeared in *THE SURVEY*, I want to utter my protest, as one of your subscribers, against the use of your name as a mask behind which these people may do their fighting. I hope you will not let it pass unnoticed. If they had a right to reprint the article, they should acknowledge it and not dishonestly put it up to you.

RALPH B. URMY.

[Pastor Central M. E. Church],
Newark, N. J.

TO THE EDITOR: I have your favor of this date, and am extremely sorry for the indefensible way in which some of the reprints of Dr. E. A. Williams' article have been sent out. Those that were mailed from this office went in our own envelopes, but we received a large order from the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association of New Jersey, which we shipped in bulk, and are not responsible for the envelopes in which they were mailed, but we will take precautions to guard against a repetition of such misuse of any similar publications in the future. As Dr. Williams lives in New Jersey, the large demand for the article from that state did not surprise us. The Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association is a reputable body, and I believe that their action was due to sheer thoughtlessness.

We maintain a clearing house of information, and when an article of scientific value appears, we order reprints of it, and furnish them to our correspondents for their distribution. Our feeling is that whether an article is copyrighted or not, the publishers are fairly entitled to the advantage of reprinting it. Of course, a magazine is soon out of date, but the reprint of a particular article is current for some time.

HUGH F. FOX.

[Secretary, United States Brewers' Association]
New York.

[The main point of Dr. Williams' article in *THE SURVEY* for April 18 was as to the method of instruction. He held, in brief, that some text-books on temperance are untruthful and many are unscientific; that such instruction will tend to make pupils skeptical and will thus defeat its own purpose which,

in his own words, is to "lessen the steadily rising tide of alcoholism and pernicious cigarette smoking in this country."

As to methods of teaching, readers of *THE SURVEY* may differ. As to the appropriateness of publishing a criticism of teaching methods in *THE SURVEY*'s Education Department, there can be but one opinion, whether the subject be alcohol, sex hygiene or shop work.

The difficulties of handling any aspect of the temperance question are well illustrated by the whole incident.

On the one hand was the unfair use of the reprints. As furnished to Hugh F. Fox, secretary of the United States Brewers' Association, and by him supplied to the Merchants' and Manufacturers' Association of New Jersey, these contained the article in full and nothing else. The latter organization, whose name conceals its relation to liquor interests, mailed them out in envelopes which not only lacked its own name but bore an unauthorized imprint which gave the impression that *THE SURVEY* had mailed them. Such use of *THE SURVEY*'s name was contemptible.

On the other hand, friends of the temperance cause profess to have found in this article proof that *THE SURVEY* is "a secret ally of the whiskey business" and that Dr. Williams is a tool of the brewers. The ardor of their conviction burns brightly through some of the letters received.

Dr. Williams, it may be fair to state at this point, has a long record of activity in behalf of scientific temperance teaching.

In the columns above, Mrs. Davis states the official position of the W. C. T. U. In *THE SURVEY* for May 23, six writers expressed their views pro and con. Space forbids the publication of further letters received from Jessie J. Brainerd, Washington, D. C.; Catherine P. Wheat, Los Angeles; Margaret B. Platt, Seattle; John E. Parmly, Newark; Lucia Faxon Addition, Portland, Ore.; the Rev. C. A. McKay, Ottawa, Ill.; James V. Chalmers, New York; Julian Zelchenko, Boston; Ansley B. Blades, Sunbury, O.; the Rev. A. M. Williams, Columbus, Ga.; John Reed, Boulder, Col.—Ed.]

SOCIAL WORKERS AND ALCOHOL

TO THE EDITOR: It may interest Mr. Hunt to know that Harvard University hopes to follow its western brothers by introducing a course on alcohol next year. What is needed is that the experiments that have been made in the laboratories of Germany should be made in the laboratories of our universities. President Emeritus Eliot, telling in a recent statement why he has become an anti-alcohol convert, says (among other reasons):

"Later, I had the opportunity of studying the German investigations on the mental effects of very limited doses of alcohol, doses which most people have always supposed to be completely innocuous. The German investigations seemed to me to prove that even twenty-four hours after taking a small dose of

alcohol the time-reaction in the human being is unfavorably affected. Now the quickness of the time-reaction is important to every mechanic; to every artisan, and particularly to every person who is engaged in a dangerous occupation, like driving an automobile, for instance, or managing a circular saw, or, indeed, in the tending of any powerful machine or hot furnace."

It is interesting to note editorials in the press recently on Secretary Daniels' order of "no alcohol" in the navy. The newspapers seem to feel that heavy intoxicants should go, of course, but that interference with beer is outrageous. In other words, the American people have yet to realize the efficiency loss resulting from moderate use of alcohol. This teaching should come out of the laboratories of our universities. Harvard hopes some day, I am told, to have the apparatus for making "time-reaction" tests with very small quantities of alcohol, less than that contained in a quart of 4 per cent beer, but the apparatus for these tests is rather expensive.

ELIZABETH TILTON.

[Chairman Alcohol
Education Committee.]
Cambridge, Mass.

LABOUR IN THE TRANSVAAL

TO THE EDITOR: Your issue of February 14 contains an article entitled Labour Conditions in Transvaal Mining Fields to which you give great prominence. I cannot quite make out whether the writer, W. S. Rainsford, has ever been in South Africa or not, but if he has he displays a woeful ignorance of present day conditions. I would not have taken the trouble of replying to him were it not for the fact that I know *THE SURVEY* has a large circulation and its articles, so far as I have been able to judge, have always been written in a fair and temperate spirit.

Mr. Rainsford conveys the impression that we are living here under a dual oligarchy, viz., that of the unscrupulous mining magnate and that of the ignorant Boer. It is quite true that a Boer government is at present in power, but its record is perhaps as good as that of any other government. It does not please everyone, but it is the government put into power by the majority of the people of the South African union under a constitution which is probably more democratic than any other in the world. With regard to the magnates, they may have been a power at one time, which I doubt very much, but today our House of Assembly contains only four men (out of 126) who have anything whatever to do with mining. There are two of them on each side of the House. I do not love the Boer very much, but it is only fair to say that here in the Transvaal it was a Boer government that made education free and compulsory, and today no boy or girl can leave school until they have passed "Standard V" or are fifteen years of age.

But I take the strongest exception as a large employer of labour myself to some of Mr. Rainsford's assertions. He

¹See *THE SURVEY*, April 25, 1914, page 103.

says that labour has been dealt with "shortsightedly, brutally." This is a big topic in itself, but the answer is contained in the so-called economic commission's report which has just been published. We claim to be just as humane here as you are in America, and as I know at first hand the industrial conditions of your great country, my very strong impression is that we are much more humane than your average employer.

Then he goes on to say that the white man cares little for the native, and follows this up by some wild statements in amplification. Now it is quite true that some white men do not take much trouble about the native, but most of us are keenly interested in his welfare and advancement, if only from purely selfish motives, for he is the foundation of our entire economic structure.

Mr. Rainsford asserts that China and India were called upon to feed our hungry stamp mills. It is true that for rather more than four years we had Chinamen here, to our own and their mutual benefit, but it is now a long time since all were repatriated. The Indians have never worked on the mines of the Transvaal, but a large number are engaged in husbandry in Natal.

Mr. Rainsford makes a point about the magnates' preference for the "indentured labouring man." As a matter of fact this preference is not confined to the magnates but is universal. It is the custom of the country, even for house or garden work, to indenture a native for a period. It is the only method the native understands, but otherwise he is as free as you or I. On the mines he seldom if ever works longer than a year, but the average period is more like five months. The native is exactly in the same position as I and most members of my staff. We make an agreement to work for a certain period for certain remuneration, but we do not feel any the worse for having done this.

I take, however, the strongest exception to the following: "I have met many of these men (the magnates). I have known some of them. Generally speaking they don't impress you favourably." Exactly the same thing could be said of parsons and railway conductors, but the imputation is that the magnates as a class are a worthless lot. Probably some of them are, but I happen to know most of them, some intimately, and taking them through and through they are keenly interested in social welfare, not at all abnormally concerned with the making of money, and most of them do their share of unpaid public work—that kind of work to which no particular kudos is attached. But as a matter of fact there are very few magnates. Some have died—Rhodes, Werhner, Beit, names to conjure with, men who left millions of pounds, not dollars, for education and other public causes. Quite a few have returned to their native America, where I know they are as much respected today as they were here by all sections of the community.

Reference is made in the article to the strike and the more recent deportations. The miners did not come out on strike. It was our railwaymen, or rather

a few of them, and a few miners came out in sympathy. What the trouble was all about it is difficult to say, for both are the highest paid men of their class in the world. I do not say they had not grievances—who has not?—but unfortunately the two organizations were captured by revolutionaries or syndicalists, now deported, and the men followed them blindly.

The strike received absolutely no support from any section of the community, and though I do not like deportation without trial I must confess that the strong action taken by our government averted anarchy and untold misery, and possibly the loss of a great many human lives. Broadly speaking, there are many things in our economic condition which many here do not like, but I have had the opportunity of studying industrial conditions at first hand in many parts of the world and I do not think that on the whole we have much to feel ashamed about, excepting the terrible toll on human life which miners' phthisis takes. Even that, however, is being bettered, but it will take many years before we can feel the full benefit of the remedial measures which are now being carried out with great thoroughness.

WILLIAM CULLEN.

Modderfontein, Transvaal.

TO THE EDITOR: Mr. Cullen's letter, I think, answers itself. If, as he says, the exportation of the labor leaders without trial was necessary to avert "anarchy and untold misery," then surely the government of the South African union, which Mr. Cullen boasts is the "most democratic in the world" would seem to rest on a precarious foundation.

Mr. Cullen declares that his chief objection to my article is based on my unfair treatment of the mining magnates. I named no man, Mr. Cullen gives names of men well known to history by now, and says they are names "to conjure with." That is his opinion. He has a right to it.

For my part I believe as I said in my article, that the men he names had a chief part in bringing on a bloody and unnecessary war. This is not my opinion only—it is a matter of record. To do so they plotted, planned and raided and lied—these men whose names are names to conjure with. The money they left when they died to philanthropic objects is beside the question.

Politically, the government of South Africa may be democratic; industrially, as Mr. Cullen himself implies, it is oligarchic or feudalistic in the extreme. There never can be peace, between capital and labor—until to our industrial as well as to our political affairs we apply democratic principles. Democracy is ridding itself of the oligarch in politics; in time he must be banished from the field of industry as well.

W. S. RAINSFORD.

New York.

HALVING THE TAX RATE

TO THE EDITOR: It is a privilege to engage in a controversy with so fair-minded a man as Professor Seligman, because one may be sure that the end

sought under such circumstances will be the truth of the matter rather than any mere technical victory. His article on Halving the Tax Rate on Buildings in THE SURVEY for March 7 should have a very reassuring effect upon those who oppose the Herrick-Schaap bill. If they accept his conclusions there is clearly nothing for them to be alarmed about. Professor Seligman believes:

a. The proposed change will not reduce rents;

b. The proposed change will increase congestion;

c. The proposed change will exempt the rich.

If Professor Seligman could only induce his own side of the controversy to accept his beliefs there would be complete unanimity. It is because his friends believe, as a matter of fact, that none of these consequences would result that we have had such numerous delegations opposed to the bill.

I pointed out in my previous communication (March 7 issue) that the supporters of the Herrick-Schaap bill are not fomenting a revolution. They are proposing an experiment. An opportunity to try this experiment must first be submitted to the public and, unless adopted by a majority vote, the experiment will not be made. If after a trial it should be found to work disadvantageously to the public interest, it will be easy to return to the existing status.

There is a regrettable tendency in a general discussion of the question, and it is not quite absent from Professor Seligman's paper, to ascribe to the public a sordid and selfish view of public questions and hence to deprecate the submission to a plebiscite of such questions as this. My own impression is that on the whole the people have decided questions submitted to them with a general regard for the principles of morality. We need go back no further than 1896 to see how the electorate treated specious proposition offering apparently individual advantages. The hope of some day being property owners, burns in the breasts of a great majority of our citizens. They believe in a square deal for others who own property that they may have it when their time comes, if for no higher reason.

But I do believe that the great mass are guided in passing upon public questions by their sense of justice. They are often mistaken, but it is only when appeals are made to special interests that orators make the argument of personal advantage.

Again, it is urged that such subtle influences may flow from the adoption of this measure that it needs deep study for its comprehension and hence is not suited to public action. But, as a matter of fact, is it difficult for the ordinary man to determine whether we should tax one class of property, whose value is due in a quite exceptional way to the growth of population and public improvement, more heavily than another class of property, which owes its existence entirely to individual human enterprise, capital and labor?

In view of the fact that the daily press is almost a unit in opposing the measure, it should be tolerably certain that the public should be well informed as to the demerits of the proposition. If, in spite of this consideration, a favorable decision is rendered, no believer in democratic government can find fault.

Some of the arguments advanced by Professor Seligman deserve to be examined seriatim. He contends that there is in some so-called land value a measure of improvement value in cases of lots which have to be brought down or up to grade. No one questions this fact, or doubts that there might be for a period long enough to reimburse the owner, an allowance made in taxes for the money so expended. A lot having rock on it or having a marshy bottom is in the position of land "at the margin." It will take a long time after adjacent property has risen in value before such a lot will have any value whatever. Hence it will bear a small proportion of taxes or of the cost of local improvements. It is only when the cost of adjacent property has risen to a height which justifies building on the lot, and the removal of the rock on it, that it will have any real value. It therefore appears that owners of such property do receive consideration which offsets any real disadvantage under which they may labor.

I am unable to see Professor Seligman's point that there is any fundamental distinction between the demand for houses and the demand for any other products of human labor. If the general welfare is increased the opposite of what occurs during hard times should manifest itself. Under the latter condition, there is an obvious shrinkage of demand due to people contracting their room—space—sometimes going to the extent of two families occupying space previously regarded as only enough for one family. If there should be an improvement in industrial conditions due to the untaxing of a very important industry—the building business—is it not fair to expect that the reverse process will occur and that there will be an expansion of demand?

Professor Seligman is at odds with most housing reformers in regarding congestion per acre as more obnoxious and undesirable than congestion per room. Of course neither condition is desirable, but if we must choose let us have increased density per acre.

In my last article I pointed out the fallacy of believing that the lower rate on buildings would increase the height or size of buildings and I do not think it necessary to canvass that question further at this time.

Professor Seligman seems to think that the slump in building in Vancouver tells against the proposal. As a matter of fact it merely proves that even the exemption of buildings will not stimulate building beyond the point of adequate supply. If it did, there would be grave objection to the policy. Would it not have been well had he pointed out that a corresponding diminution of building operations had occurred throughout the West? Really well-informed single-taxers have not urged

Vancouver as an example of the benefits to be derived from their plan, because they knew that much too low a percentage of land value was being taken in taxes to affect the wild speculation there in evidence. But they have believed and do believe that the exemption of buildings was a step in the right direction and nothing has occurred to disabuse them of that belief.

Professor Seligman believes that new houses built in the suburbs are erected by owners who hope to recoup themselves by an increase in the value of their land. This has not been my experience and I think it enough to point out that the New York building and loan associations are a unit in favor of the Herrick-Schaap bill. Surely such a body ought to know what are the desires of the small house owners. Indeed, if one builds for a home, rise in land values may put taxes up to an uncomfortable height and force one to move on.

Can Professor Seligman seriously contend that a plan which proposes to materially reduce the tax on small suburban homes will impair the security for the loans on such homes? If the land value is reduced by such a tax, is it not reasonably clear that the intending home-builder can get his site for less and hence that he will not have to borrow so much?

I find myself at odds with Professor Seligman as to the effect of the proposed legislation on the homes of the rich. Let him adduce some typical cases. My own experience is that the homes of our very wealthy people are worth less than the sites on which they stand. Professor Seligman takes it for granted that the opposite is the case. A casual inspection of the assessments rolls indicates that north of fifty-ninth street in the best residence section of Fifth avenue, the land values represent more than two-thirds of the value of land and buildings. Where land is worth over \$150,000 for a lot 25 by 100 feet the land must ordinarily be worth more than the house.

If the rich would be favored it is to their great honor that they have not shown the slightest favor to the measure. Even the owners of great buildings, like the Woolworth, have been so blind to their own interest (if it be to their interest) that they have not aided the Herrick-Schaap bill in any way. Is it to be believed that they act with so much more public spirit than the multitude, or is it that their owners feel that in some fashion the proposed legislation is not really in their interest? Their action on this proposal is more eloquent than Professor Seligman's words.

Professor Seligman favors a proposal to levy an increment tax but he does not indicate at what point of value such a tax should begin. I am quite sure that he realizes that capitalized land value is a pure mental figment and that land value is like our grain crops which grow from year to year. There is no point at which one may say: "This much is future increment and that much past increment." If it is not taken as it arises, just as cream rises on the

milk, it is lost forever. The future increment tax abroad tends to stagnate the transfer of land and not to promote it.

Professor Seligman does not understand why a man who has invested in land should be in danger of having a part of his property taken away from him. But is not this an indictment of all taxation rather than merely of the proposed measure? General property taxes cast a shadow upon all ownership of property of whatever kind. State after state in the exercise of the police power has ruthlessly destroyed property in the name of the public welfare. Private appropriation of publicly created increment has rarely aroused a protest nor does it seem unjust to most of us because we are used to it, but public appropriation of future publicly created increment seems a horrible injustice because it is a new and strange proposition.

It is quite unnecessary to hold that there are no vested rights in land to maintain the latter theory. Individual possession and occupancy are necessary to full use and utilization. The owner or user is entitled to the full enjoyment of the full fruits of his labor. But this constitutes no claim to values created by other efforts than his own labor or other expenditure than of his own capital.

JOHN J. MURPHY.

[Commissioner, Tenement House Department.]
New York.

MR. PORTER'S CRITICISMS

TO THE EDITOR: I have, from time to time, read H. F. J. Porter's numerous letters to the press, on the fire hazard problem, and what the Factory Investigating Commission has failed to do to solve it.

The gist of these letters seem to be, first, that Mr. Porter is a highly accomplished fire hazard expert, and second, that the Factory Commission has failed to do the work for which it was appointed, namely to secure the enactment of laws that would bring about safety in factories, in case of fire. The second, is so obviously unfair and unreasonable, that I never felt it worth while to reply to any of Mr. Porter's periodical contributions to the press on the subject.

But when THE SURVEY, as it does in its issue of April 11, gives a prominent place to an article based on Mr. Porter's criticism of the work of the Factory Commission, it is high time to show what little merit there is to this criticism or attack, however it may be characterized.

It is obviously impossible in a letter to specify in detail just what the Factory Commission has done toward solving the fire hazard problem in factories. That is fully set forth in the second report of the commission.

Mr. Porter makes the astounding statement that "the commission has actually legalized the very conditions which it was created to relieve and correct."

It would be well therefore to refer

briefly to the conditions that resulted in or contributed to loss of life in the Triangle Waist Company fire, and what measures have been taken as a result of the Factory Commission's recommendations to remedy them.

The fire was said to have been caused by a lighted cigarette—smoking in factories has been prohibited.

The lighted cigarette was said to have been thrown in a heap of cuttings—fireproof receptacles for waste material and cuttings are now required, and such waste material has to be removed from the floors of the work-room and from the building itself, at frequent intervals.

The fire spread with amazing rapidity through the work-room, because of the quantity of inflammable materials that were kept on hand—an automatic sprinkler is now required. Chief Kenlon and other experts testified that if there had been an automatic sprinkler system in the building, there would not have been a single loss of life. Since the fire, such a system has been installed in the building.

Valuable time was lost because many of the employees did not know that a fire had taken place—a fire alarm signal system is now required that will notify the occupants of the building when and where a fire occurs.

The employees were not familiar with the exits provided and there was panic and confusion, when the cry of fire was heard—fire drills have been made mandatory and exits are required to be marked.

The tables and machines were placed so closely together that it was difficult for employees to reach the exits—adequate provision has been made for the proper spacing of machines and machinery and for adequate aisles leading to exits.

The doors opened inwardly and thus obstructed egress—all doors must now be constructed so as to open outwardly.

A locked door contributed largely to the loss of life—that, of course, was prohibited before the fire, but as the result of the commission's recommendation, provision has been made for more frequent and effective inspection of factories.

The fire escapes were useless, because escape by them was cut off by the flames which burst out of the windows—windows opening on the course of fire escapes are required to be fireproof.

The fire escapes ended in a cul-de-sac, from which there was no escape—a fireproof passage-way from the foot of the fire escapes is now required.

The loss of life was due largely to overcrowding. There were about 275 people employed on the eighth floor, 300 people on the ninth floor, and 60 people on the tenth floor. The people killed and injured were largely employed on the ninth floor, where the congestion was greatest. If the law, limiting the number of occupants, that was passed as the result of the Factory Commission's recommendation had been in effect at the time of the fire, no more than 60 persons could have been employed on each floor, under the conditions then existing. The Industrial Board has power to adopt even more stringent

requirements as to occupancy wherever, in its opinion, the safety of the employees requires. How absurd, therefore, it is to say that the commission has legalized the dangerous conditions that it was created to correct.

I have a high regard for Mr. Porter. I know that he is a well meaning man, but let Mr. Porter and others like him, not waste their time in attacking the laws that have been passed. The laws are all right. Let them devote their energies to securing an intelligent and effective enforcement of these laws and they will be doing something of value to the community.

BERNARD L. SHIENTAG.

[Asst. Counsel, State Factory Investigating Commission.]
New York.

To the Editor: Mr. Shientag instead of answering my specific criticism that the present laws legalize the congested stairway exit conditions which existed at the time of the Triangle fire and which it was created to relieve merely characterizes it as absurd. Let us see.

The delegation of eminent architects, attorneys and other representative citizens who went to Albany to ask for the appointment of the Factory Investigating Commission told the governor and others at the hearing that owing to the inadequacy of the stairway exits in the loft and other crowded factory buildings the employees averaging more than 100 per floor could not escape from them in case of fire, and that they had only two alternatives, viz: "to burn or jump." They stated that these buildings were unemptiable even with a fire drill for one of the latter which would operate in a real fire could not be installed.

Such civic organizations as the Fifth Avenue Association, the Safety Committee, the City Club and the Citizens' Union concurred.

Now what does Mr. Shientag say his commission has done in the matter?

First, it has prohibited smoking; second, it has required receptacles for waste cuttings, and, third, that these cuttings be removed daily; fourth, that an automatic sprinkler system be installed; and, fifth, also a fire alarm, as well as, sixth, a fire drill; seventh, that the exits be marked; eighth, that doors open outwardly; ninth, that machines be better arranged so as to provide wider aisles; tenth, that more frequent inspections be provided to prevent locked doors; eleventh, that fire escapes be fireproof; and, twelfth, a fireproof passage-way be provided from the foot of the fire escape.

Not one of these requirements has any bearing upon an increase in stairway exit capacity.

The first four are directed towards fixing up conditions in the individual shop with the idea of lessening the tendency towards a fire getting started.

The next six are directed towards getting away if a fire should get started, but although they make it easier to reach the stairway the latter cannot take care of the people when they reach there even in a fire drill, on account of its inadequacy.

BETTER BABIES

AND THEIR CARE

By ANNA STEESE
RICHARDSON

*Nat'l Chairman Dep't of Hygiene,
Congress of Mothers and Parent-Teacher Assn.*

In this book Mrs. Richardson gives the simple instructions and advice which have enabled mothers to transform "delicate" babies into children scoring 90 to 100 per cent, perfect under the rigid examination of physicians.

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The effectiveness of all of these requirements depends upon the frequency of the inspection called for under the tenth and we all know that the 50,000 factories in this state cannot be frequently visited by 125 inspectors. The result is that there is still smoking. There are still clippings lying around and they are not frequently removed. Doors are still locked, and even the proprietors of the Triangle Waist Company have been fined for this offence. Fires are occurring right along.

The last two requirements permit an increase of floor occupancy equivalent to the stair capacity of the improved escape and if the fourth requirement is complied with, the floor occupancy may be still further increased 50 per cent notwithstanding the fact that sprinkler systems have a record of 5 per cent of failures and if one of those exits should be cut off by a fire, the others would be hopelessly congested.

Although Chief Kenlon did testify that if there had been a sprinkler system in the Asch Building there would have been no lives lost, that was merely his opinion, and Chief Croker and other experts differed from him. If he is to be quoted as an authority it should be stated that at the same time he testified that when a fire breaks out the employees "do not wait for sprinklers to act or anything; they start to go at once." There is no doubt, therefore, on this same authority that sprinklers do not increase the exit facilities and that if the occupancy is to be increased on their account the exit facilities should be increased to accommodate it.

Mr. Shientag says that "if the [present] law limiting the number of occupants had been in effect at the time of the Triangle fire no more than 60 persons could have been employed on each floor [of the Asch Building] under the conditions then existing." I am not interested in what would have happened three years ago if the present law had been in effect then. All that is speculation. What I am interested in is how the present law is operating now. We do not have to speculate about that, for we have facts here on which to base our statements. Take the present Asch Building, since Mr. Shientag wants to use that as an example. At the time of the Triangle fire 650 people were occupying it. The present law has operated to the full in it and the owner has complied with all the eleven requirements mentioned above, but has not in-

creased his stairway exit facilities and each of the nine floors above the ground has a legal and permitted occupancy of 140 people.

Will Mr. Shientag please inform me how these 1260 people would get out in case of fire by means of the two 36-inch wide stairways with as bad winders in them as there ever were anywhere, and one outside fire escape?

This is an example of the legal congestion of exit facilities I mentioned in detail in THE SURVEY interview which Mr. Shientag refers to as absurd, but which I have described in further detail in a letter direct to the Factory Investigating Commission.

It is a pity the commission did not seize and put forward with all the strength at its command the division wall recommendation I brought to its attention as a remedy for this situation instead of treating it in a half-hearted way, as they were influenced to do by the interests who thought they might be affected. I am saving my clients thousands of dollars in rentable area by injecting it into their present and future structures.

The *Engineering News*, acknowledged as a technical authority in this country, has referred to my recommendation for division walls as "*by far the most practicable and meritorious suggestion ever made for safeguarding the lives of employees in the upper stories of factory buildings.*"

As I have frequently pointed out, fire drills although now compulsory by law in these structures cannot work in case of fire. By utilizing the division wall feature fire drills are unnecessary and the occupants of a building, no matter how high, can reach safety in case of a fire within a minute.

If the commission had taken up this idea and done with it what the Labor Department, the Industrial Board, the Fire Department and the Fire Prevention Bureau are all now trying to do in spite of these defective labor laws, New York state and city would have been far in the van of legislation affecting the danger to life from fire in our crowded buildings.

H. F. J. PORTER

New York.

SAID OF THE SURVEY

TO THE EDITOR: I read THE SURVEY as regularly and carefully as I read the "advance sheets" of the law reports.

The law is today receiving and assimilating—rapidly but none the less certainly—an infusion of humanitarianism and changed social viewpoint.

The lawyer or judge who reads merely the law reports can hardly get an adequate perspective as to what is fundamentally taking place in the law. To understand what forces are at work and what tendencies are clamoring for concrete and constructive expression in law, he should read at least THE SURVEY.

WILLIAM L. RANSOM.

[Justice, City Court of the City of New York.]

New York.

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WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 12

Contents

June 20, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

A SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL SURVEY OF JERUSALEM	315
OUT OF THE WEST CIVIC WISDOM FOR THE EAST	315
MIDWIVES AND BLINDNESS IN ENGLAND	315
FLOOD AND FAMINE ENGINEERS OFF FOR CHINA	316
UNIVERSITY LABORATORY OF PUBLIC ACCOUNTING	316
CAPITAL PUNISHMENT IN THEORY AND DEED	317
A BURGLAR FOUR YEARS OLD IN THE MEMPHIS JUVENILE COURT, By Florence Kelley	318

POWER, a Poem	Joseph Warren Beach	317
-------------------------	---------------------	-----

INDUSTRY

THE LONGSHOREMAN'S CASE AND DEPARTMENT STORE CON- DITIONS	John A. Fitch	320
A TRAINING SCHOOL FOR WOMEN ORGANIZERS		322
NEW YORK HITS AT COMPULSORY "MUTUAL BENEFIT"		322

CIVICS

MAKING THE WHOLE CITY BEAUTIFUL		323
WASHINGTON MEMORIAL CIVIC HALL		324
A SETBACK FOR PHILADELPHIA HOUSING INSPECTION		324
THE PUBLIC LIBRARY AND THE TOWN HISTORY EXHIBIT	Mabel Rainsford Haines	325

EDUCATION

AN "APARTMENT" SCHOOL FOR MENTALLY DEFICIENT BOYS	Ada M. Fitts	326
SCHOOL CHILDREN AND SEX IDEALISM	Lucy Sprague Mitchell	327
TRAINING MECHANICS TO TEACH IN WISCONSIN		328

PERSONALS

COMMUNICATIONS		329
--------------------------	--	-----

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES		332
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Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents.

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The GIST of IT—

THE wise men of Gotham confess the civic progress of the West and the Irish form of government. Page 315.

"PHOSSY JAW," the match workers' disease, has been outlawed now in every part of America, the Association for Labor Legislation officiating. The United States passed a phosphorus match prohibition law in 1912. Shortly after, Mexico issued an administrative order against it. And last week the Canadian Parliament wiped the continent clean.

JERUSALEM, the promised land, is to be surveyed by a group of distinguished American Jews with Rabbi Wise at their head. Page 315.

RED CROSS engineers are off to cage the Chinese tiger—in other words, to help the government plan for preventing floods instead of relieving famine. Page 316.

THOUGH it has one of the best-equipped juvenile courts in the country, Memphis brands a pickaninny of four-and-a-half years as a "burglar" and has no institution for his care. Page 318.

JOSEPH LEE'S appreciation of Dr. Putnam, who "was for a generation the backbone of social work in Boston." Page 329.

LONGSHOREMEN and department store girls were heard by the Industrial Relations Commission last week. Page 320.

UNIQUE among the new schools—or among any schools—is the training course for women organizers, established by the Woman's Trade Union League. Page 322.

THE London treaty on Safety of Life at Sea has been reported out in the Senate with qualifications which leave the United States free to pass the La Follette bill. The House substitute for the La Follette bill has been agreed upon in committee but its provisions have not yet been made public. Page 316.

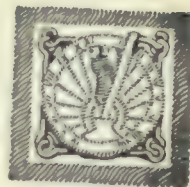
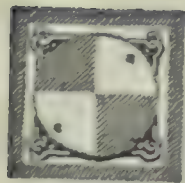
OUT-OF-DOORS instruction, play and rest periods are important parts of the school work in the Boston plan of "centers" for backward and special children. Page 326.

HERETOFORE we have carefully cut sex out of everything taught to children. Now we are putting it in—in big headlines. To find the happy mean of neither avoiding it or hunting for it would clear up some of the difficulty of teaching it in public schools. Page 327.

ONLY a magician's wand—or a lively civic spirit—could work the transformation of cool, green beauty that came to Riverside, Cal., through a tree-planting campaign and a general sprucing up of vacant lots and neglected corners. Page 323.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



A SOCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL SURVEY OF JERUSALEM

A SOCIAL SURVEY is to be made of Jerusalem this summer, the outcome of efforts of Rabbi Stephen S. Wise of the Free Synagogue, New York, who has been planning for several years a study of social and industrial conditions among the Jews of Palestine.

With the co-operation of the American Ambassador to Constantinople, Adolph Lewisoohn and Nathan Straus the plans finally culminated in the selection of a committee to choose the investigators to carry on the study.

This committee consisted of Adolph Lewisoohn, chairman, Ambassador Morgenthau, Nathan Straus, Lee K. Frankel, Louis D. Brandeis and Dr. Wise. They have just made announcement of the appointment of a commission of three members, each an expert in his own field, to undertake the work of making "an intensive social survey of Jewish conditions within and without Jerusalem."

Prof. Milton J. Rosenau, who holds the chair of preventive medicine and hygiene at Harvard, will have charge of the medical division of the survey. Boris D. Bogen, superintendent of the United Jewish Charities of Cincinnati and prominent in the Conference of Jewish Charities, will give his energy to a study of the Jewish charities of Palestine. Meyer Bloomfield, director of the Vocational Bureau of Boston, will look into industry and its organization with special reference to the possibility of vocational guidance.

The commission will begin their work in the early fall. Upon completion of the study, when the investigators return to America, a report of their findings will be published.

In this connection it is interesting to note the growth of the survey movement. The standards and spirit of the work done in the Pittsburgh survey of 1908 popularized the survey idea and since then over twenty cities have submitted to searching investigations.

In 1912 the Russell Sage Foundation, recognizing the need of organized effort to cope with the increasing call for

social surveys, created a department to handle this work under the direction of Shelby M. Harrison of the Pittsburgh survey staff.

This department has made some noteworthy surveys. The past year comprehensive surveys have been made of Topeka, Kan., and Springfield, Ill., and plans are now under way for five-year studies of Baltimore and Cleveland, the first to eclipse the Pittsburgh survey in scope.

Thus it will be seen that this survey of the old Jerusalem by the Jews of the new world gives the social survey its first international and perhaps most conspicuous venture.

OUT OF THE WEST CIVIC WISDOM FOR THE EAST

IN AN APT and forcible address to the City Club of Chicago Mayor Mitchel of New York, facetiously but none the less correctly, marked the occasion as the first tour of a New York mayor with members of his cabinet to seek wisdom in the West for use in the East.

The school systems, the recreational developments and the civil service methods, were said to have been especially suggestive. Efficiency in public service he thought depended upon conditions of work satisfactory to the public employes, and this in turn depended upon doing them exact justice. To this end assurance of security and opportunity in the public service must be given them. Conference between the heads of departments and their subordinates should be invited and co-operation suggested.

The most important prompting of this western tour was Mayor Mitchel's proposal to organize an interchange of views and experiences derived from the conduct of municipal affairs both by city officials serving the large cities and such groups of private citizens as constitute the city clubs of New York and Chicago. Henry Bruere brought down the house by pointing up the fact that every New York official present except himself was an Irishman, with the alleged adage that "to govern one's self is God-like, but to govern others is Hibernian."

MIDWIVES AND BLINDNESS IN ENGLAND

CONVINCED that a serious relation existed between *ophthalmia neonatorum* and the competence of midwives, the New York Committee on Prevention of Blindness decided to study the subject closely, and to ascertain what laws were in force in various countries for training and licensing midwives and controlling their work. Of the fifteen countries whose legislation in the matter was studied, England was found to follow the most satisfactory system.

The results of this important investigation have just been published by the committee. Miss Van Blarcom, secretary of the committee, leads up to the important legislation of 1902 by a brief sketch of earlier days—days when midwives were licensed "by virtue of the Power Ordinary and Episcopal" of the bishops, taught how to "christen children in time of necessity according to the canons of the church," and enjoined not to "use or exercise any witchcrafts, charms, sorcerie, invocations or prayers other than suche as be allowable and may stand the lawes and ordinances of the Catholike Church."

Miss Van Blarcom continues:

"In view of the mild conceit prevailing at the present time over twentieth century enlightenment, it is particularly interesting to find that though the public at large is today almost unmoved by the ignorance and negligence of midwives, there was much dissatisfaction among the women in England during the 16th century because of the incompetence of this group of practitioners. There was even then frank recognition of the fact that education was seriously needed."

That the marked decrease in death of infants and in cases of puerperal sepsis and accidents in the past nine years is wholly due to the midwives' act cannot, of course, be claimed. But Miss Van Blarcom was assured by the English authorities that the act has certainly been an important factor in raising obstetrical



Donahy in Cleveland Plain Dealer

SAFETY AT SEA

The Senate Committee on Foreign Relations on Wednesday of last week authorized a favorable report on the treaty of London (the International Convention on Safety of Life at Sea) with qualifications reserving to the United States the right "to impose upon all vessels in the waters of the United States such higher standards of safety and such provisions for the health and comfort of passengers and immigrants as the United States shall enact for vessels of the United States." This leaves the United States free to pass the LaFollette seamen's bill as it came from the Senate.

On Thursday a delegation of seamen from different parts of the country saw the President who expressed himself in sympathy and promised to assist. Friday the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries agreed to report out a seamen's bill as a substitute for the LaFollette seamen's bill, and to ask for a rule for its consideration. Its provisions are not known, as THE SURVEY goes to press.

"If a good bill cannot be obtained now," writes Andrew Furuseth, president of the International Seamen's Union, "after the testimony furnished by the Titanic, the Volturno, and Oklahoma, the Monroe, the Columbian, the Empress of Ireland, and now the New York, the plagues of Egypt themselves could not move things. The last collision would have been more disastrous than the Empress of Ireland or as much so, if the New York had been struck about amidships instead of near the bow. That another thousand people were not drowned was the one remarkable part of the accident.

"We seamen have taken the position that disasters will increase in proportion as skill departs. The progress of events surely seems to prove us right."

work in England to a higher grade of efficiency, and also that by its enforcement obstetrical patients received medical care of a higher grade more frequently than in the old days.

A similar report on midwives in America has been made by the same committee, and the New York State Board of Health has asked it to prepare recommendations for regulating the practice of midwifery.

The committee's recommendations are especially strong as to the midwife's personal cleanliness and sterilization of her instruments. Full provision is made for after-care, a midwife's visits continuing as long as necessary. These recommendations were submitted on May 19, and are now under consideration by the State Board of Health.

FLOOD AND FAMINE ENGINEERS OFF FOR CHINA

THE BOARD OF engineers which is to make an intensive study of the Chinese "flood and famine" region, and to report on the possibility of conservancy, sailed from Vancouver June 10.

This area of 30,000 square miles, comprising one of the richest and most populous parts of a great alluvial plain, has been ravaged by floods and consequent famines for 2,500 years. The steps by which the American Red Cross induced the Chinese government to agree to spend \$20,000,000 on flood prevention were told in THE SURVEY of May 2.

The chief engineer on the board is

Col. William L. Sibert, U. S. army officer, who has been in charge of the construction of the Gatun locks and other parts of the Panama Canal. The other members are Arthur D. Davis, chief engineer of the United States Reclamation Service, and Prof. Daniel W. Mead, professor of hydraulic engineering in the University of Wisconsin. Charles D. Jameson, who made the preliminary survey of the "flood and famine" region for the Red Cross, accompanied the board as general adviser. Several assistant engineers, a stenographer and a disbursing officer, make a party of seventeen.

The board will reach the flood district in time, it is expected, to observe the summer floods this year and return by November 1.

All details of the arrangements for placing the Chinese bonds and awarding contracts for the work will wait upon the report of the board.

Mr. Jameson's preliminary report emphasized the necessity of finding suitable outlets for the Huai and other rivers, deepening channels and building regulating works. If floods in this district can be stopped, said Mr. Jameson, suffering, starving and degeneration will be eliminated from the lives of millions of Chinamen now fast becoming beggars and robbers.

UNIVERSITY LABORATORY OF PUBLIC ACCOUNTING

THE DEPARTMENT of accounting of the New York University School of Commerce, Accounts and Finance, announces that beginning October 1 it will conduct a course of field work in public accounting. The practitioners will be post graduate students in the school. The patients will be the various charitable institutions of New York city. The work will in no way interfere with the field of certified public accountants since the institutions to benefit by the scheme are ordinarily unable to avail themselves of expert services.

Students in the department of accounting have been handicapped by lack of practical experience which would facilitate the securing of positions with certified public accountants. At the same time many social agencies in the city have been unable, on account of the expense involved, to obtain efficient auditing of books. By correlating these two deficiencies John P. Wildman, head of the department of accounting, saw his opportunity to establish the first laboratory for public accounting connected with a university.

The plan is in accord with Chancellor Brown's ideal, already exemplified by the establishment of Government House, to make New York University a school where men and women may not only draw knowledge from books but from first hand experience.

IS there any difference between believing in capital punishment and being willing to execute a man with one's own hands? Presumably a majority of people in most of our states believe that the death penalty is a wise instrument of justice. Else why do they tolerate it? Yet how many of them would spring the trap or turn on the electricity? If they had the imagination to see that that is what they are really doing as citizens, in perpetrating the death penalty, would the death penalty stand on our statute books?

This question is the central idea in a new one-act play written by John D. Barry, a San Francisco newspaper man, and friend of Fremont Older. The play is intended to supply what our imaginations lack. Mr. Barry first embodied his idea in a short story. As first dramatized a hanging was actually produced on the stage and in that form the play ran for two months in San Francisco.

In bringing it to New York, where it was given a private performance at Hammerstein's Victoria last month, Mr. Barry changed the hanging to an electrocution. He also altered the ending, so that now the condemned man is not killed. This gives the warden a chance to make a short curtain speech against capital punishment.

When the curtain goes up Murray, a prison "trusty" in stripes, enters. He goes slowly to the electric chair and examines it. Then he examines the switchboard. He is standing back of the chair, yawning, as Gillespie, the executioner, enters.

After Gillespie and the trusty test the apparatus, the doctor comes in, followed shortly by a young newspaper reporter, Sheriff Harper and the brother of the woman of whose death the condemned man has been found guilty. Presently the reporter, who is anxious to get his "story" in promptly asks how long the electrocution will take.

DOCTOR—Oh, he'll be pronounced dead and you can leave the room within five minutes.

SMYTHE [Reporter]—Five minutes? I thought they died right off.

DOCTOR—So they do when it gets 'em at the right time.

SMYTHE—When is the right time?

Capital Punishment in Theory and Deed

DOCTOR—Oh, when the breath's going out.
SMYTHE—And suppose it doesn't get them?

DOCTOR—They get another shock.

SMYTHE—So they have to be electrocuted twice?

DOCTOR—They don't feel the second jolt.

GILLESPIE—We'll give Wilson enough. We're not going to take any chances.

SMYTHE—How much will you give him?

GILLESPIE—Well, we usually give about 1,800 volts. This time we'll give 2,200.

SMYTHE—How long do you keep it on?

GILLESPIE—Oh, a few seconds. Depends on the doctor.

SMYTHE—How do they take it?

GILLESPIE—Well, some of 'em take it very quiet; others almost jump out of the harness. One of the seven fellers we shot off one morning here broke the straps and went up nearly three feet. But when he come down all the jump was out of him.

After some further preparations Wilson is brought in, seated in the chair and the warden gives Gillespie the signal to turn on the current. But Gillespie's nerve deserts him, and he refuses to act.

WARDEN (to Murray)—Come over and do this job.

MURRAY—Me, Warden?

WARDEN—Yes, there's something the matter with Gillespie.

MURRAY—I can't do it, Warden.

WARDEN—Why not?

MURRAY—It's not my business, Warden. I can't shoot off a man like that. You ain't got no right to ask me to do it.

WARDEN—Will one of you men come over and do it. (No answer.) There's two hundred and fifty dollars for the man that'll do it. (No answer.) Say, Murray, don't you want to make two hundred and fifty dollars?

MURRAY—Not that way, sir.

WARDEN—Well, somebody's got to do it.

MURRAY—Why don't you do it yourself, sir?

WARDEN (looks at Wilson. He seems to be about to go forward. He hesitates. He turns to the crowd)—Is Sheriff Harper here?

HARPER—Here I am, sir.

WARDEN—You arrested Wilson, didn't you?

HARPER—I did, sir.

WARDEN—Will you do this?

HARPER—No, sir. I'm the Sheriff of Hendricks County. I ain't no executioner.

WARDEN—It'll mean two hundred and fifty dollars, Harper.

HARPER—I wouldn't do it for a million. Here's the brother of the woman that was murdered. He's got it in for that feller. Perhaps he'll do it.

WARDEN—Which is he?

FINNEY—Here, sir.

WARDEN—Will you do this?

FINNEY—No, sir.

WARDEN—I thought you wanted him killed.

FINNEY—So I do. But I can't kill a man in cold blood—not even him. That's your business. That's the business of the State.

WARDEN—Is there any one that'll do it? (Long pause... A man steps out of the crowd.)

SPECTATOR—I will.

WARDEN—Have you got anything against this man?

SPECTATOR—Anything personal, do you mean?

WARDEN—Yes.

SPECTATOR—No.

WARDEN—Have you any reason for wanting him killed?

SPECTATOR—He committed a murder, that's all. I think all murderers ought to be killed when they've had a fair trial and been convicted. I'm for the law and I don't want your money either.

WARDEN—Who are you?

SPECTATOR—What difference does that make? I'm a voter in this State. I've voted at every election for the last twenty years. As a citizen I stand for the business, and I can't see that there's any difference between standing for it and doing it.

WARDEN—Go ahead.

(As he puts hand on handle of Switchboard, a cry is heard outside.)

SPECTATOR—Well!

WARDEN—Stop (He goes to the window.)

VOICE (outside)—The sentence has been commuted to imprisonment for life.

(A man rushes to the chair and unstraps the man. The man shakes hands with the warden.)

WARDEN—Wilson, a new spirit has come into the world. It has saved your life. We are learning it is better, not to destroy the good and the bad together in a human being, but to cure what is bad and to save and strengthen what is good. Now you have a chance to make a man of yourself. While you are here you will be well treated. Perhaps, after years, when you have shown that you are fit to go back, you will be given a chance.

POWER

JOSEPH WARREN BEACH

MOVELESS he stands against the iron railing,
With all the world about him in commotion.
The mighty water races on beneath him
To storm the falls. From the unnumbered chimneys
Flutters the smoke in long wind-shredded pennons.
The switching-engines, blowing clouds of steam,
Tear back and forth, while over its granite arches
Thunders the night express, steady as fate,
With pomp of banners and proud illumination.
On every hand is power visible,

And yonder where the mills and power-houses
Are lighting up their tier on tier of windows
Intenser it moves in spinning shaft and wheel,
Or lurks disguised in sleek and humming turbines.
Yet in that quiet figure by the railing,
Frail as a wisp between the sky and water,
Labors the sovereign force of all the planet.
Master of all the powers of earth and air,
He well may gaze upon his harnessed river
And stand unmoved amidst the hurly-burly



FOR COLORED CHILDREN

Memphis houses its Juvenile Court in two buildings in different parts of the city—one each for colored and white children. The colored court is in an old house, badly equipped, its sewer connection in the back yard. But Julia Hook, the colored probation officer in charge, keeps it clean as a whistle, with plants in pots here and there. Mrs. Hook has been a paid probation officer for three years. Before that, beginning as far back as 1876, she did volunteer work for children.

A BURGLAR FOUR YEARS OLD IN THE MEMPHIS JUVENILE COURT—BY FLORENCE KELLEY

AMONG THE STRIKING and suggestive experiences afforded by the city of Memphis, during the National Conference of Charities and Correction, none compared with encountering a burglar four and a half years old, passionately hugging a Teddy bear. His record in the Juvenile Court docket reads:

May 8, Gainer —, 10 Tin Cup Alley, 4 1/2, burglary, larceny, prowling, 2:50 a. m., police, probation to Sanderlin.

Being interpreted, this brief entry means that a little boy, four and a half years old, loitering one afternoon in front of a shoe store, saw a pair of shoes which he so coveted that, between two and three o'clock the next morning, he returned, smashed the show window, crawled in through the broken glass, and was taking the little shoes when a policeman arrested him. His name is in the docket of the police court, and any future offense will stand against him as a second offense.

Gainer has no mother, no father, no home, no teacher. He is colored, and the city of Memphis—which gives its white juvenile offenders six teachers, and establishes their Juvenile Court in a beautiful building once a school house—affords no teacher for colored delinquent children. Its colored Juvenile Court is a separate building, physically

dilapidated but kept as clean as hands can make it by the unwearied effort of Mrs. Julia Hook, the probation officer for Negro children.

Gainer is under probation to a man to whom, according to the probation officers for Negro children, nine boys have been assigned. None of them has been received, or cared for by him. Gainer

remained at the Juvenile Court, uncalled for on the day I left Memphis. He is strong and active, a heavy burden for the slight little woman in charge. When her duties call her away from the first floor of the shabby six-room wooden cottage which shelters Negro boys and girls pending disposition of their cases, Gainer is perforce under lock and key in the basement room which, with bars and lock, looks painfully like a cell.

In the Juvenile Court for colored children no judge was sitting, but a policeman assigned to service as a probation officer. The juvenile court is a branch of the police court. One judge is in charge of all its work, including that of the white and colored Juvenile Court. It is physically impossible for him to perform all three tasks, and many children are, therefore, dealt with by this substitute for the judge.

Two girls were before the policeman, awaiting disposal. They were left as probationers in the possession of their mothers, whose incapacity for dealing with them was shown by their presence in court and the girls' own statements.

This is a travesty of juvenile court practice. The only probation officers for colored children, paid in their service, are the matron and her husband, whose hands are overfull with the care of the boys and girls detained day and night in the Juvenile Court Building. There is no municipal or county industrial or farm school, or private philanthropic or educational provision for Gainer.

I visited the beautiful place bought many years ago by Negro subscribers, for a home for Negro children and old people. A substantial frame house and a charming little stone church stand at the top of the hill, from which the property stretches away, embracing 25 acres of fields and woods. But it is devoted exclusively to the care of nine aged men



NO. 10 TIN CUP ALLEY

The house where Gainer lived—one of a dilapidated row of shanties on an unpaved street. His mother is dead, his father "unknown."

and women, of whom one appeared to be dying of old age. They are former servants of white families. Several of them, almost or quite blind, were tottering about the piazzas and grounds.

To my puzzled question why all this space, and this lovely country beauty, were kept for nine aged people, while the four-year-old burglar remains unclaimed in the Juvenile Court and other children were given on probation in my presence to the care of dissolute people for want of a suitable institution, I received no intelligible answer.

In the annual report of the Colored Federated Charities—a department of the Associated Charities of Memphis—the institution is described as the Colored Orphans Association and Old Folks Home. The report sets forth that: "The conditions of entrance to the Home have now been fixed; the Home requires that the applicant be past 60 years of age or that she be otherwise handicapped; that the applicant pay an admission fee of twenty-five dollars, and that if they carry a life insurance policy that same be made over to the Home. The character of the Home permits the maintenance of a shelter for Negro orphan children, but at present the limited finances of the Federation make this impossible."

For the conference visitor, the haunting question will not down: Why does Memphis, why does Tennessee, discriminate thus between its white and colored delinquent children? Why is it left to the Colored Federated Charities to do the work of the city and the state? And the task being so left, why do the Associated Charities of Memphis permit their colored department to leave the work undone?

In sharp contrast with the passive state of the Federated Charities in its failure to carry out the intent of the founders of the Colored Orphans' Home,



FOR WHITE CHILDREN

To the white Juvenile Court, the city has just turned over a disused public school building. It houses the court, separate detention rooms for delinquent and dependent children, special school rooms for backward and truant children, a large gymnasium, a model cottage and manual training rooms. Memphis has in this building one of the best equipped juvenile courts and detention homes in the country. Until now the white Juvenile Court has been housed in a dingy and inadequate building.

is the strenuous effort of the Memphis colored women's clubs to buy a suitable building in excellent surroundings for the Negro Juvenile Court. A first payment has been made, the house is in part furnished, frequent meetings are held, and much energy manifest.

But why are these Negro women of very moderate means and many heavy burdens left by the city to buy a court building, while the white children have

recently been moved into admirable quarters provided at the cost of the city?

As I think of the four-year-old burglar deprived by neglect of the community of all education and all prospect of moral guidance, I am filled with apprehension of the future citizen whom the city of Memphis is preparing for our common country. Moreover, the little burglar is only one of a mass of children whose fate is akin to his own.



MANUAL TRAINING AND HOUSEKEEPING

In the basement of the white Juvenile Court, the boys use a well-equipped shop. A small building at the rear has been made into a model cottage where the girls practice cooking and household management. This was established by the chief probation officer, Mrs. Wert, who imported the idea from the model flat at Chicago Commons.

INDUSTRY

THE LONGSHOREMAN'S CASE AND DEPARTMENT STORE CONDITIONS—By JOHN A. FITCH

IF STRONGER evidence were needed of the difficulty of finding out the truth of an industrial situation through public hearings than was presented last week at the inquiry into department store conditions conducted by the Federal Industrial Relations Commission, it is not easy to conceive what it might be. Each spectator and each commissioner might have his private opinion as to the credibility of the various witnesses who appeared, but each might conceivably be of a different opinion. The last testimony given in the three-day hearing on department stores was a denial by the witness of the testimony given previously by another witness. And that was fairly typical of the situation.

Two major subjects were under investigation last week by the commission—department stores and dock work, more commonly spoken of as longshorework. The latter was by far the more illuminating and satisfactory. The investigation was in the hands of Charles B. Barnes, who has made a thorough study of longshorework in New York city and has recently made a report of his investigation to the Russell Sage Foundation. The testimony was given by longshoremen, by superintendents of docks, and by social workers.

Apparently no census has been taken of longshoremen in Greater New York, but the number was variously estimated by the witnesses from 35,000 to 40,000. They have a union which is not recognized although the rate of wages is commonly referred to as the union rate. This is thirty-three cents an hour for day work, fifty cents for night work and sixty cents for work on Sunday. The regular work day is ten hours, and if a man were employed regularly six days a week he would earn \$19.80.

On account of the extremely casual nature of the work, however, it was admitted by everyone that longshoremen do not earn anywhere near that sum. The men themselves and their union representatives declared that throughout the year they earn an average of about \$10 a week. Some of the representatives of the steamship companies declared that they make as high as \$15 a week, and others thought the average would be about \$12.

It was brought out in the testimony, however, that the officers making the higher estimate reached their conclusions by dividing the pay roll by the number of jobs, entirely overlooking the fact, as was brought out by the commission, that men are constantly being laid off and other men taken on, so that in any given length of time there would be more longshoremen employed than the

Probing the Causes of Unrest

VI

The sixth of a series of interpretations of the hearing before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission by a staff representative of The Survey.



number of jobs as shown by the pay roll.

John F. Riley, general organizer of the New York Longshoremen's Union, testified that in the Chelsea section of New York, which runs from Twenty-third street to Fourteenth street on the North River, about 5,000 longshoremen are constantly on hand. It is within this section that some of the largest foreign steamship lines dock, such as the White Star and the Cunard. Mr. Riley declared that to do the work required in loading and unloading ships 2,500 men were needed and that in consequence practically 2,500 more were unemployed most of the time. In spite of this amazing over-supply of labor, Riley testified that men are often required to work enormous stretches of overtime in order to get ships loaded and unloaded. They sometimes work all day and all night. Twenty hours is not at all infrequent and men sometimes work as long as twenty-eight hours without rest.

Perhaps the foundation of most of the hardship attendant upon longshorework is connected with the system of hiring. According to the testimony given, the time of taking men on depends entirely upon when the ships dock. The men report at a pier where a ship is expected at 7 a. m. It may be that the ship has been delayed. If so they are not taken on, but are told to wait around and be on hand when the ship does dock. This may be in an hour, it may be in two hours or it may be in the afternoon. Whatever the situation, it is incumbent upon the men to be in the neighborhood when the work is ready for them. They are hired only for such time as work is actually done.

As a ship approaches dock, the men "shape"—that is, they gather in the form of a great horseshoe in front of

the pier. The foreman goes out among them and picks out his men. There are always more men in a shape than are needed. So after waiting for hours for a chance to work hundreds of men may be turned aside after all without receiving employment.

According to Riley and other witnesses the men have to be on hand practically all the time, even seven days a week, in order to get perhaps 200 days' work in a year, and they have to be ready to subject themselves to enormous stretches of overtime.

It was the universal testimony that Pier 60, belonging to the White Star Line, is the best in the city both in facilities for work and in treatment accorded the men. Nevertheless, it appeared that there are no facilities of any description on Pier 60 for the convenience of the men. There are no places for a man to hang his coat. There are no lavatories excepting a faucet here and there, and there are no towels. There is no hot water and the sum total of provision for the care of men who are injured consists in a medicine cabinet placed on the pier by the Longshoremen's Union.

When a man is injured in the hold of a ship—and everyone declared that such injuries are common—the "ambulance" is called for. The "ambulance" is a fruit box in which the man is laid to be hoisted out of the hold. He is then laid, sometimes on a truck and sometimes on the floor of the pier, to await the coming of the hospital ambulance.

Patrick Powers, who has been a longshoreman since 1873, told about injuries he had received.

"What did they do for you?" asked a member of the commission.

"Put me into the ambulance," said Powers, "histed me to the deck, took me time and let me go home." He received no compensation.

Anna K. Graham told of the establishment in Twenty-second street of the Longshoremen's Rest. The three-story building was secured by the Church Temperance Society and thrown open to longshoremen. Lavatories, game rooms and reading rooms were installed and the men were given to understand that they would be welcome while waiting for a "shape." The building accommodates about 600 men and it is the only place from Twenty-second street to the Battery where longshoremen may go to spend their time excepting the saloons. They have eagerly come to this building, and Miss Graham is of the opinion that if such rests were established up and down the waterfront far less money would go into the saloon and far more into the home. That has been the experience with the 600 men who are able to enjoy the accommodations at Twenty-second street.

Two witnesses testified of the methods employed at Liverpool. Louise Peters, a social worker who has investigated conditions there, told how men are taken on at regular hours in the day. The times for hiring men are 7 a. m. and 1 p. m. If a man goes to the docks at 7 a. m. and is not hired he is not required to hang around in the hope of securing employment, but he goes at once to what is known as the clearing-house which has been established under the English system of Labor Exchanges.

There is a central clearing house and six minor clearing houses. At any of these a man may report and if there is an opportunity for work before the noon hour for hiring he will receive word of it there. It is not necessary for him to visit all the docks in turn as men do in New York, for after the hiring hour no more men will be taken on unless some foreman has made a mistake and has not employed a sufficiently large force of men. In that case the foreman telephones to the clearinghouse and a man is sent to him.

Timothy Carroll was able to tell about this system too, not because he had studied it, but because he had worked under it. For five years he has been a longshoreman in Liverpool, and for the last two years he has been in New York. "It's Chinese labor in New York as compared with Liverpool," he said.

In Liverpool if a man is taken on he must be paid for a half day's work whether the work continues that long or not. In New York men are hired for an hour, laid off, told to wait an hour, during which they receive no pay, and then may be taken on after another hour. Then there is too much bullying in New York, Carroll said. "The foreman doesn't treat you like a man. From all that I can see you're treated like a dog."

"This is a personal question and you needn't answer it unless you want to," said Chairman Walsh, "but why don't you go back to London?"

"Well, I'll tell you," said Carroll with a grin, "I had some money when I came over here and I don't want to go home broke."

Perhaps the most surprising thing about all the testimony regarding longshoremen was the fact that not only were these charges corroborated by the representatives of the steamship lines who appeared, but some of them even attempted to justify them. F. W. Hersey of the Bush Terminal, Brooklyn, declared that the responsibility lay upon the community and upon the state, that the steamship companies were in no way to blame and could not be expected to remedy conditions.

In the department store inquiry, testimony was given by Gertrude Beeks, director of welfare work of the National Civic Federation, by managers of the leading department stores, and by representatives of the Retail Clerks' Union. The testimony, as indicated above, was vitiated to a large extent by the fact that it consisted so largely of charges and denials. Union organizers and former employees of department stores testified to violations of law, and low wages. The store managers, on the

other hand, presented testimony that led one of the New York papers—which, singularly enough, chose to accept the statements of the managers instead of those of the employees—to say, "It's some luck to be a saleswoman" in some of the leading stores of New York.

Miss Beeks, speaking of the investigation conducted by the National Civic Federation, declared that instead of finding conditions particularly bad, "unsuspected fine points" were discovered. "Indeed," she said, "the casual observer might think that nothing remained to be done." Nevertheless she had a list of seven or more conditions which she declared constituted the chief conditions in need of correction. This list included the long work day, slow promotion, system of fining and docking, no dismissal notice to the rank and file, lack of fire preventives, lack of rest rooms for women, and no general plan for vacations with pay.

There was considerable testimony which tended to substantiate these criticisms. Mrs. Jeanette Smith, a pleasant-faced woman of mature years, went on the stand and declared that she had worked at Wanamaker's for seventeen years. She received \$8 a week at the beginning, and when she left the store on December 24, 1913, she was receiving \$10 a week. Five minutes before closing time on that day, she says that she was approached by an official of the store and told that her services were no longer required. She said that during the course of her seventeen years' service, she had been late at the store twice. She appealed to the employment manager, but could not see him. She then wrote to him and received a reply that he could not "create" a position for her.

Other employees who had had similar experience of sudden dismissal testified, and there were many statements of low wages, overtime work, and the violation of the fifty-four hour law for women.

Benjamin Gitlow, president of the Retail Clerks' Union, mentioned a spy system which he said is in operation in most of the stores and which tends to draw employees into dishonest practices. He declared that the detectives in the stores have to make good and they entice employees into wrong-doing in order to make a record.

As to the efficiency of store employees, he declared that the most amazing thing is the high degree of efficiency prevailing in view of the low wages paid. "In no other occupation," he declared, "will you find people of so high a caliber working for such low wages."

Managers and other officials from Wanamaker's, McCreery's, Gimbel's, Bloomingdale's, Namm's in Brooklyn, and Altman's testified as to conditions in their stores. Leslie Graff, manager of Altman's testified that none of the saleswomen in that store received less than \$9 a week. The president of McCreery's said that, including commissions, the average wage paid to saleswomen in his store was as high as \$13.50 a week. At Bloomingdale's, on the other hand, a representative of the store stated that there were 208 out of 368 saleswomen employed who get below \$8;

and Benjamin H. Namm testified that out of 416 saleswomen, 146 get less than \$8 a week and 238 receive less than \$9.

The most interesting testimony had to do with the attitude of the department stores toward unionism. It is well-known that the organizers of the Retail Clerks' Union have been harassed in a number of ways in their attempt to hold meetings in the street outside of the stores, when the employees are leaving. Several dismissed employees testified that they had been discharged for belonging to unions. All the store officials who appeared, however, declared that they were not opposed to unionism. But on cross-examination most of them admitted that they were indifferent to the organization of unions only when unions conducted themselves "properly."

Preston D. Lynn, manager of John Wanamaker stores, said that he was not opposed to unionism so long as propaganda work was not carried on within the store. An employee, however, who has recently been dismissed, declared that he was told that his services were no longer required because he had been giving information about the store to the union. The store had no objection to his belonging to the union, he was told, but he must not give any information. "That," said the witness, "is like telling me that I can go to church, but must not pray."

Percy Straus of Macy & Co., said that when he came out of college he believed in unions and he believes in them, theoretically, still, but that as a practical matter, he does not favor them.

Leslie Graff was questioned to a considerable extent about the Retail Dry Goods Association, of which he was secretary for seven years. The association keeps a complete list of employees of different members, Mr. Graff testified. Whenever an employee leaves the employ of any of its members, his name is sent to the headquarters of the Dry Goods Association, together with his record and the reason for his leaving the service. If he is discharged, the reason for that is given. Then, when the employee seeks a position in any other store in the association, headquarters are called up, and the record is immediately secured for the benefit of the store where the application is made. It is not a black list, Mr. Graff insisted; and he said that no entry would be made on any of the cards that an employee had been discharged on account of belonging to the unions. If, however, the employee were a "disturber" or a "disorganizer," the facts would be duly entered.

TO DEFEND WORKINGMEN

The International Defense Workers' Conference has been recently organized in New York city to secure funds and publicity for the defense of workers. "We shall use our power," states the platform, "to save from illegal conviction agitators whom the powers of capital are to railroad to prison on a false charge, also to secure acquittal for those actually guilty of transgressing the law in the interest of the emancipation of the working class."

A TRAINING SCHOOL FOR WOMEN ORGANIZERS

WITH THE COMING of its first two pupils, one from Kansas City and the other from Baltimore, the Training School for Organizers, recently established in Chicago by the National Women's Trade Union League, has begun work in earnest. These two girls, both by a coincidence connected with the brewing industry, one in the bottling of beer and the other in the making of corks for such bottles, have come to receive a three months' training in the work of organizing of girls and women. Both these young women have had practical experience in the labor movement, as leaders in their respective trades, and now seek training which will make that experience more valuable.

The training is made possible for the Kansas City girl through the Industrial Council of that city granting her a leave of absence on full pay and to the Baltimore girl by a scholarship from the Woman's Trade Union League of her city.

Every week brings to the office of the league requests for women organizers to be sent into the field, from California to Pennsylvania. It was to cope with this situation that the biennial convention of the league, held at St. Louis last June, authorized the establishment of a National Training School for Organizers.

To quote the words of the president in her report to the convention: "There are two facts which stand out above all others in the present industrial movement in America: The first is the ever increasing number of women entering every trade, and the second is the successful social uprisings of the workers in the sweated industries. These two facts point to the need of the hour: training for and in organization among women and girls.

"In all these strikes, women and girls have been in the majority, and unless we equip ourselves for definite training in organization work we will not be able to hold what has been gained through suffering and hardship and imprisonment during the strikes. All of us know that the task after a strike is the constructive work of organization, and it is idle to think that this work can be done without organizers. No group of people can hold what they have won in the way of fairer conditions except by their courage, initiative and vigilance and their trained capacity to stand together."

The work of the school has been divided into field and classroom work. The field work, which is done under the direction of the presidents and organizers of the local leagues, consists of participation in whatever work of organization is under way. The pupils assist in the distribution of cards calling meetings, and take part in the meetings themselves. They are given practice and instruction in the taking and adjusting grievances, and in presenting them to employers.

Perhaps the most interesting division of the work is the class in public speaking. This class is under the direction of Professor Nelson of the University of Chicago, and other working girls to the number of thirty were admitted. The school

offers instruction in the history of the labor and woman movements, both in the United States and in Europe; drill in written and spoken English, and a course in economics. The students are also put in touch with current protective legislation for women, with the means of keeping in touch with it, and with the methods of obtaining and holding such legislation. Lessons in bookkeeping and accounting are also given, as well as instruction in the keeping of minutes, writing of reports, etc. Evening lectures and round table discussions are held once a week. Correspondence courses in those subjects in which it is deemed possible will be undertaken.

NEW YORK HITS AT COMPULSORY "MUTUAL BENEFIT"

IF THE White bill, recently passed by the New York Legislature, accomplishes the purpose of its backers, department stores will no longer be able to compel their employees to contribute to compulsory "mutual benefit associations," so called, maintained by the stores.

The bill was introduced in the Senate on March 19, and is an amendment in the form of an additional section to the state labor laws. The prohibitory paragraph reads as follows:

"A corporation engaged in the business of operating a mercantile establishment shall not by deduction from salary, compensation or wages, by direct payment or otherwise, compel any employee in such mercantile establishment to contribute to a benefit or insurance fund maintained or managed for the employees of such establishment by such corporation, or by other corporation or person; and every contract or agreement whereby such contribution is exacted shall be absolutely void."

Any corporation violating the act is liable to a penalty of \$100, recoverable by the person aggrieved, and any director, officer or agent who compels an employee to make a contribution in violation of the law is declared to be guilty of a misdemeanor.

The history of legislation in regard to hours of work would seem to show that the only effective laws of the sort are those which provide that the employer shall neither require *nor permit* the employee to work more than the legal number of hours. It will be noted that the White bill, which is drawn in similar form, does not enjoin the employer from *permitting* employees to pay any moneys to a fund which is controlled by the store, or to which the store has access.

The State Factory Investigating Commission and the Retail Dry Goods Clerks' Association were active in securing the passage of the bill, which followed closely on the heels of the disclosures regarding the Henry Siegel store benefit associations and the loss of thousands of dollars by the store clerks. All three of the Siegel stores which failed this winter used funds belonging to the benefit associations without giving security. Consequently the

employees in the stores lost all their savings with little if any chance of redress.

FOR BETTER FACTORY INSPECTION

The New York State Labor Department has made a change in the cards to be filled out by factory and mercantile inspectors which should not only result in releasing 50 per cent more time for actual field work, but should weed out in short order the inspector who is not familiar with his job.

The old system required a statement upon every point of the law, whether violated or not, made out on a large card. From this a condensed summary was made on a second card and both forms forwarded to the labor department's office. Where there was a violation of the child labor law, it sometimes meant that two extra cards had to be filled out. The inspectors claimed that it took them about three hours to write up the results of four hours' work.

The new form practically requires a report of violation only, which may be entered directly on the card to be forwarded to the central office, without duplication and which presupposes a thorough knowledge of the labor law.

To cover any advantage there may be in specifying all points of the law for the purpose of a check list, a reference card carried in the inspector's book is supplied.

The change is directly in line with a recommendation made in the second report of the State Factory Investigating Commission.

FROWNS ON PIECE WORK

Judge Jacob Trieber, of the United States District Court, has ruled that the payment of wages on the day-labor plan is preferable, and has also decided that it is proper for the receivers of the Missouri and North Arkansas Railroad to treat with the men as a shop federation. These views were expressed at a hearing in Little Rock, Ark., at which the receivers for the railroad urged the introduction of the piece work plan, which was protested against by the workers.

The receivers expressed a willingness to treat with the various craft organizations, but were unwilling to recognize the shop federation. In both these instances the men were upheld by the court.

MASSACHUSETTS 48-HOUR BILL DEFEATED

The Massachusetts Legislature has killed a bill to provide a forty-eight hour week for women workers in that state. The bill was presented on petition of the Massachusetts state branch of the American Federation of Labor, but its advocates were unable to secure the thirty votes necessary for a roll-call.

During 1914, the District of Columbia has taken its place beside the state of Washington in limiting the working hours of women to forty-eight a week.

CIVICS

MAKING THE WHOLE CITY BEAUTIFUL

CITIZENS of Riverside, Cal., believe that American cities ought to be made more attractive in their entirety, not merely in spots, as is so frequently done. They became convinced that through general tree planting much could be done to beautify all parts of the city—the less prominent streets where the poorer citizens dwell as well as the avenues of the well-to-do.

City government took charge of all street tree planting and care, and under the supervision of a tree warden over 15,000 trees have been planted during the first few years of this special effort. Eight or nine other California cities have followed suit.



AVENUE OF PALMS AND PEPPER TREES—WHAT EARLY PLANTING ACCOMPLISHED FOR ONE RIVERSIDE STREET

A STREET BEFORE THE TREE PLANTING CAMPAIGN AND HOW IT LOOKED AFTERWARD

Tree planting led to other efforts toward beautifying streets. Parking between sidewalk and road was improved and this in turn has stimulated the development and care of lawns.

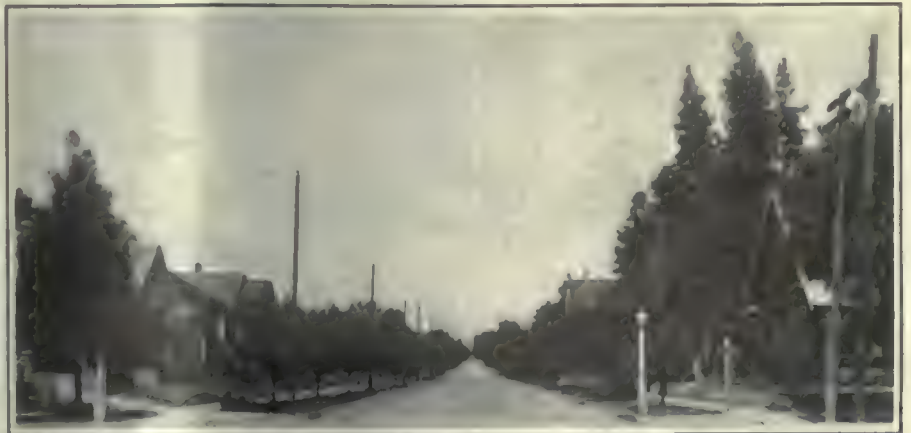
The Chamber of Commerce and two leading women's clubs established a joint committee for civic improvement. Unkempt places and vacant lots were shown to the people at large through the newspapers and stereopticon views at a large mass meeting. Public sentiment made effective its demand for cleanliness and order.

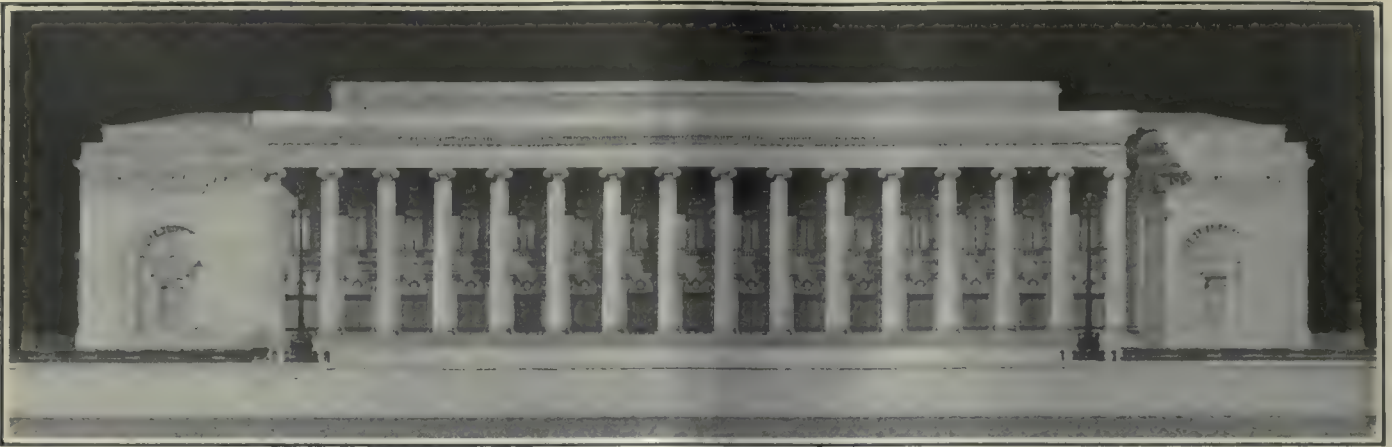
Flowers were few in large sections, mainly inhabited by working people. Five thousand rose-bushes were secured and distributed to about a thousand such homes. The children were especially interested in securing and planting these bushes. The committee has also dis-

tributed 10,000 chrysanthemum plants.

Commercial, civic and social organizations have co-operated heartily, and

the interest of high school boys and girls was secured through prizes for essays on civic improvement.





NATIONAL CIVIC HALL—PEACE MEMORIAL TO WASHINGTON

Design by Tracy and Swartwout, New York. Chosen by a jury of award consisting of Philip Sawyer, Charles A. Platt, and Walter Cook, from designs and plans submitted by thirteen leading architects in competition.

WASHINGTON MEMORIAL CIVIC HALL

A NATIONAL civic hall as a peace memorial to Washington is planned by the George Washington Memorial Association. A site valued at half a million dollars was set apart by Congress a year ago. It is on the Mall next to the new national museum building.

The association has set out to raise \$2,500,000. The plans for the building are to be approved by the Commission on Fine Arts and the building and its endowment is to be under the administration of the Board of Regents of the Smithsonian Institute. Construction is not to be undertaken until \$1,000,000 is raised. It is reported that \$500,000 has already been pledged, of which \$148,000 is in hand.

Among other features the building is to have an auditorium seating 6,000, and smaller halls with committee rooms adjacent, to accommodate world congresses of a scientific, educational or public welfare nature. It will also provide, rent free, offices for organizations and societies of national scope along patriotic, educational, scientific or public welfare lines, provided such organizations contribute adequately toward the cost of the

building and its endowment.

Thirty-five governors have promised co-operation and a campaign has been inaugurated to secure proportionate contributions from the various states. The president of the association is Mrs. Henry F. Dimock of Boston and Washington, and the general secretary is George Milbank Hersey, 44 Bromfield Street, Boston, Mass.

SETBACK FOR PHILADELPHIA HOUSING INSPECTION

LAST JULY, nearly a year ago, the governor of Pennsylvania signed a housing law for first-class cities. This law discontinued the three divisions of drainage, nuisance and tenement house inspection in the Philadelphia Bureau of Health, and established in place of them one division entitled, the Division of Housing and Sanitation.

On January 1, 1914, the acting director of health notified the heads of the three old divisions that their offices no longer existed, and in place of them appointed a chief of the new division. At the same time he continued the services of some sixty inspectors of the three old divisions, assigning them to duties in the new division.

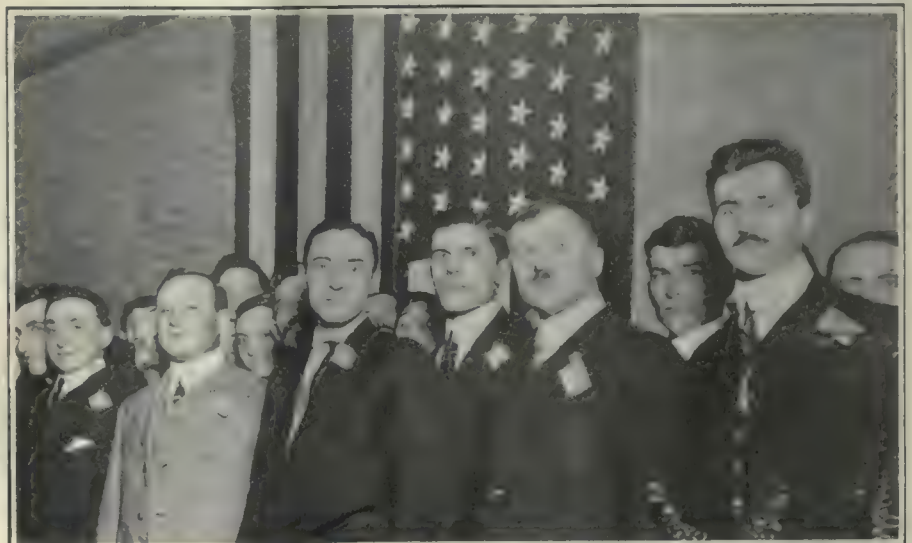
At once the City Councils, which have throughout been controlled by the opponents of the Blankenburg reform administration, decided not to supply funds for the Division of Housing and Sanitation. Instead, they made the customary appropriation for the three old divisions, which the acting director had declared defunct. The dispute was taken into the courts and the action of the administration was sustained in the lower court, but an appeal was taken to the Supreme Court. Meanwhile the heads of the three old divisions awaited the outcome at leisure, while the head and other employes of the new division awaited the outcome at work. The city, however, paid none of the salaries in question.

Finally, after nearly six months' waiting, the Supreme Court decided that the old divisions were still in existence. Thereupon three desks were reopened and one was closed, and salary checks for the three were drawn on the city treasury. The court in reaching this decision held that no appropriation having been made for the salaries of employes in the Division of Housing and Sanitation there was no fund upon which warrants could be drawn but that ap-

IN LINE FOR CITIZENSHIP

Rochester is the latest city to undertake the training of aliens for citizenship. Evening classes are held "to teach coming Americans to speak, read and write the English language; to give practical information; to prepare for intelligent and patriotic citizenship; to make the foreign-born familiar with our laws, customs and home ideals, our great Americans and the fundamental facts of our history."

The men shown here have just taken out their first papers of citizenship and each has been presented with a small American flag by President John Warrant Castleman of the Board of Education and Charles E. Finch who is in charge of the work in English and citizenship.



Photograph by Courtesy of Rochester Herald

appropriations to the old division were valid. The court also decided that the law creating the new division was defective in that it did not provide when it should go into effect, how the Division of Sanitation and Housing should be organized and by whom, or who should determine the number of inspectors to be appointed and the salaries to be paid them. The inference, according to the court, is that the City Councils must take the initiative. As they did not act, there was no organization of the Division of Housing and Sanitation.

The purpose of the law was to consolidate three branches of the city government whose work overlapped and to reorganize them on a more efficient basis. The Philadelphia Housing Commission, which was largely instrumental in drafting and securing the enactment of the law, is attempting to institute proceedings through the district attorney's office to compel councils to appropriate the money for the new division. The basis for its suit is the opinion delivered by Frank P. Prichard and John G. Johnson, leaders of the Philadelphia bar, that the law in question imposes upon councils the specific duty of maintaining the division and that the performance of this duty can be legally compelled. The secretary of the Housing Commission, Bernard J. Newman, says that the Supreme Court went out of its way to hand down an opinion as to the status of the law which had the result of throwing out of court proceedings brought by advocates of the law.

THE PUBLIC LIBRARY AND THE TOWN HISTORY EXHIBIT—By Mabel Rainford Haines, Librarian Free Public Library, Summit, N. J.

A RARE opportunity for public service by town libraries is to be found in local history exhibitions. Building up such an exhibit will bring into close relationship the various community forces and will, in re-creating past associations, awaken new loyalty and responsibility. It will emphasize the importance of preserving and absorbing all that is good from out the old order, and of developing what is best in the new.

Most towns grow by periods. Let us take for example, a certain New Jersey town or group of three towns, for which a successful history exhibit was recently held in the library. There were the periods of early Indian history, white settlement, and Revolution. Quiet growth and simple home living followed. With the building of the railroad, came new activity and expansion. Then came the civil war, followed by a second period of quiet growth and assimilation. The establishment of a silk mill, the coming of the foreign laborer and the settlement of Armenians, Syrians and Italians in colonies, herald the arrival of the immigrant problem. The exhibit should correlate these periods and serve purposes historical, social and civic.

History exhibits also offer opportunity for exchange of institutional interests and co-operation. Friendship between institutions is an essential for co-operative achievement. Nowhere is this more

necessary than in the suburban town where factions and petty jealousies or personal exploitation have so many and various destructive possibilities.

The difference in suburban and metropolitan outlook is amusingly illustrated by the following true story. In getting up a subscription for fairy books for some poor Syrian children, a young tutor appealed to her two small pupils for contributions from their personal allowances. They were French children and very carefully brought up. With a sigh each drew from her little purse the precious weekly quarter. "We would much rather give fairy stories to those Syrian children if they hadn't stolen our watermelons," they declared.

In a small town each man's right hand neighbor knows exactly what his left hand neighbor does. In a large city there are just as many if not more metaphorical melons stolen but we do not know the thief.

The town exhibit offers an effective channel for town betterment.

THE PRIME MINISTRY IN AMERICA

Such is the way in which civic secretaryship as public service is characterized by Edward J. Ward, social center adviser at the University of Wisconsin. Recognizing that the great present need in social center development is leadership, a conference has been called by the Wisconsin state superintendent of schools to meet at Madison, July 2-3.

A preliminary conference will be held June 19 and 20 at which Margaret Woodrow Wilson, Dr. William H. Allen, Zona Gale and others interested in social center development are expected to be present.

CORNELL CITIZENSHIP COURSE

The course on citizenship established at Cornell on the initiative of a group of alumni and alumnae, described in THE SURVEY for March 21, is to be repeated next year. There are also plans to make it permanent. Prof. Walter F. Willcox, who was in charge of the course this year, recently sent to Presi-



dent Schurman a report indicating the stimulating and broadening influence which the course had upon the undergraduates in attendance upon it. The total registration was 120. Many of the students told of social work which they had undertaken in their home towns, suggested by the various lectures.

TRAVELING CITY PLANNING EXHIBITION

Above is shown one panel in the exhibition which is now visiting various cities throughout the country, under the auspices of the American City Bureau of New York. It has already been in New York city, Jersey City, San Francisco, Los Angeles and other places.

There are 152 panels, showing what city planning means, the site, communication, health and sanitation, guarding against disaster, public convenience, recreation, education, encouragement of industry, suburban development, public control of private activity, city planning procedure, financial aspects of city planning.

EDUCATION



SKETCHING CLASS IN HISTORIC COPP'S HILL BURYING GROUND, BOSTON—THE ONLY PLAY-GROUND THESE CHILDREN HAVE

A N "APARTMENT" SCHOOL FOR MENTALLY DEFICIENT BOYS—BY ADA M. FITTS

OUT IN THE North End of Boston an apartment originally arranged in six rooms with a laundry in the basement has undergone some novel remodeling. By removing partitions, building shelves around the walls, introducing benches and a few similar touches it has been converted into—not a sweatshop, but a school for some of Boston's mentally deficient boys.

Boston was one of the first American cities to provide special classes for mentally defective children, two being formed in 1899. The city now has thirty classes with nearly 500 children in attendance. Great care is taken to select only improvable cases. Unimprovable ones are gradually being placed in the state schools for feeble-minded at Waverly and Wrentham.

In Boston, as in many other cities, the special class has usually occupied a room in an elementary school building and has cared for the mentally deficient children of the immediate neighborhood. In 1912 an attempt was made to work out the so-called "center" plan.

Under the leadership of Helen E. Mead such a center was established in an apartment house in a district in the North End having a school membership of over 2,000 boys. Twenty-five children were selected and two teachers provided.

The equipment of this center differs from that of the usual schoolroom. Instead of desks and chairs ordinary kitchen tables and chairs are used. These tables have been cut down, the drawers removed and boards nailed in

SUPERVISOR OF SPECIAL CLASSES, BOSTON

their places thus converting them into serviceable desks. All this work was done by the boys with the assistance of pupil teachers. The table serves as a desk, a lunch table, a couch and as it is unpainted, as a demonstration for cleanliness, for the boys scrub it.

The kitchen has been fitted up by the boys with shelves around the room. On these shelves are 25 wash basins and underneath towels and face cloths. There are individual cups, combs, brushes, tooth brushes, nail brushes, soap and looking glasses. Each child has a number and all the things he uses are marked. Time has proved that the boys like to be clean and a marked effect on behavior has resulted.

A lunch is served daily for two cents and free to the boys who sweep and wash the halls and sanitariums. The lunch consists of a sandwich made of

crackers or homemade bread spread with peanut butter, fruit of some kind, nuts, raisins, and occasionally a lump of sugar. The drink is a cup of cocoa made with malted milk. Many of the children come to school without breakfast. It is not strange that at half past nine they are more interested in a sandwich than a book.

The work after morning lunch is largely individual. The purpose is to teach these boys to do a few things well: writing their names, measuring, counting, spelling or word study, reading, drawing, modelling, telling time, oral language interspersed with physical exercises. Eleven o'clock brings a short period of play out of doors, after which the school work is continued till noon.

A large number of these children eat on the street so it is no hardship for them to re-enter school about one o'clock. They do manual work until 1:30, then wash their hands and go to the class room to rest. What seems to the careless observer laziness in these children is in reality fatigue, the effect of late hours, overcrowded sleeping quarters and poor ventilation. Often half of the children sleep at this rest period. Those who do not are taught to close their eyes while the teacher reads or tells a story, but for all there is almost complete relaxation.

After the rest period two boys from fourteen to sixteen years of age come from the neighboring North Bennet Street Industrial School to act as pupil teachers, a position which they consider an honor. They do excellent work without compensation and are much interested in the progress of their pupils. A general oversight is kept by the teachers but so little is needed that they can carry on basketry, weaving, caning, modelling and brass work in an adjoining room. Later comes the cleaning of the manual training room, putting rooms in order and recess. From 3.00 to 3.30, four days in a week, oral work, sense training, observation lessons out-of-doors or gardening are carried on. On Wednesday afternoon the last half hour is used for a bath at the Municipal Bath House.

There are obvious advantages in this "center" plan. In a crowded district the mentally deficient may be classified and those of a lower grade of development may be given the form of instruction best adapted to their needs while the more improvable types may make more rapid advancement. The older may be separated from the younger and sexes may be separated in the older groups. The teachers may specialize in the subjects they are best fitted to teach, one taking all the manual training, another the games and physical training, and so

THE STORY OF MY LIFE

Written by a mentally deficient girl of fourteen trying to do third grade primary work in a Boston school

I am a girl who would like to have more brans then I have got because a branns is a very good then to have to work by and to see by and to hear by. Some pepoles have a very good brans and some pepoles have very sleepy brans indeed but I would like a smart brans. I would not like to have the brans that I have got any longer.

on. Thus through constant co-operation they may work out their problem for the good of all.

As the special class children reach the age for leaving school the need of "follow-up work" becomes urgent. Franklin B. Dyer, superintendent of schools says: "The need is for an institution that will provide this oversight, or an officer who will watch the career of each graduate and act as adviser, who will consult with employers, co-operate with court officials and institutions and continue the guidance and control begun by the teachers. This follow-up work will eventually be one of the great means of preventing pauperism, vagrancy, crime and racial degeneracy. Two such officers have been recently appointed in New York city."

The "story of my life" printed in another column is one of the strongest appeals that can be made to the educators of the country to secure justice for feeble-minded and normal children alike.



MEASURING A TREE—OUT OF DOORS INSTRUCTION AND PLAY PERIODS ARE FEATURES OF THE SCHOOL WORK

SCHOOL CHILDREN AND SEX IDEALISM—BY LUCY SPRAGUE MITCHELL

FORMERLY DEAN OF WOMEN, UNIVERSITY OF CALIFORNIA

THE DISCUSSION about sex, with its usual accompaniment of hysteria, has found its way from the stage, the novel, the Sunday supplement and the medical journal into the public school. There it has met determined opposition on the part of many teachers and parents. Part of this opposition is directed against the subject itself; part against the method of teaching. A clear understanding of the basic points around which the opposition centers may clarify the problem and suggest a solution.

A considerable group oppose sex education on the widest of all grounds—that the subject itself is unsuited to a child's comprehension. These feel that any reference to the subject tends to arouse undesirable curiosity. They contend, moreover, that only objective knowledge can be taught and that sex knowledge does not necessarily induce the proper attitude of mind, nor strengthen the moral fiber, as is evidenced by the fact that medical students, though better informed, are not more moral than others. The conscientious parents who take this view really believe as well as hope that their reticence on the subject means corresponding ignorance and lack of interest on the part of their children. "Playing with fire" is the catch-word of this group.

A second large group of earnest thinkers are less sweeping in their condemnation. While they believe that some sex instruction should be given children to safeguard their health and to help them achieve certain ideals, they feel that such instruction is the exclusive prerogative of parents. This group, which is composed both of parents afraid for their children and teachers afraid for themselves, pass by as hopeless the children who have no parents or inadequate ones. Even if the school could give sex education successfully, they would consider such teaching inappropriate and an "invasion of the home."

The third group—the most liberal and the smallest—wish the school "to do something," but cannot agree among themselves as to just what that "something" should be. What instruction should be given? How? When and by whom? Around these questions the storm centers. The value of "objective information"—which may mean anything, from symbolic analogy drawn from flowers, to a complete course in sex anatomy, physiology and even embryology—is balanced against "subjective instruction"—which may include anything from personal hygiene to a presentation of the social results of sexual immorality or an attempt to arouse an ethical response in the child. The naturalness of a "biological approach" is discussed as opposed to an ethical or social approach. The difficulties of class-room work, with the varying standards of sophistication due to conditions of the home, the street, the nationality or the temperament of each child, are weighed against the impracticability and expense of individual work. The desirability of making sure that a child's first information be clear is balanced against the danger of arousing premature interests and excitements. The limitations of the ordinary grade teacher, because of lack of training, personality and time are set over against the temporary, superficial influence of a "special teacher" and the limelight which her presence must throw on the subject.

These objections and scores of others almost equally upsetting will never be satisfactorily answered, I believe, while they are stated in the present form. It is not enough to say that every bad result which can be foreseen from taking action can be matched, if not surpassed, by the bad results of doing nothing. Back of all these objections there lie certain common mistrusts. The first mistrust concerns the subject; the second, the method of teaching.

I believe most of the mistrust of the subject would disappear if we could stop thinking of sex as "a subject" and regard it as an aspect of a hundred subjects. We know that history includes sex, we know it is woven into the tissue of literature and art, we know that anatomy extends below the waist we know that biology and sociology and psychology all need sex to interpret some of their most significant aspects. And yet when we talk about sex, we pluck it out from its surroundings, isolate it, throw the limelight on it, and then wonder that it is difficult to explain to children. In this artificial way, it *should* be difficult to teach to children and should never be taught to them by the school nor by any other agency or person. I rejoice in the community's healthy suspicion of sex as a separate subject.

So, too, with the mistrust of the method of teaching. What we want for the child is sex ideals. No one is satisfied with giving him information, though many feel that sound ideals must be based upon honest information. Now, ideals we all feel cannot be taught, standards cannot be formed, attitudes cannot be achieved through the present classroom. To form ideals one must take account of at least two things, first, the child's point of view—the way he evaluates matters, the things he cares for and why, the way his mind works,—in technical language, child psychology; second, knowledge of the chief forces which are at work to modify or mould the child's natural outlook. The nationality, the religion, the neighborhood, the family conditions, including the social, moral and economic standards, all determine the channels which a child's mind will take. In other words, the home must be known by one who would attempt to foster ideals.

There is rapidly-growing uneasiness because the present-day school takes into account neither of these essentials for standard forming. Child psychology and knowledge of the home are patently absent from the average school-room. To some this seems desirable, to many unavoidable. Those who hold that the school's function is merely the clear exposition of facts have some slight justification for wishing to exclude sex instruction. Still, they forget the value of an honest attitude toward facts. But there are some—not many, I fear—who feel that the school's inadequacy in the matter of sex instruction is but an example (so glaring and pitiful that it has at last been seen even by the school itself) of a fundamental defect in most of our school teaching. These acknowledge that the present methods of teaching would not succeed when applied to problems of sex. But instead of abandoning the subject they would alter the method.

When these rather grandiloquent sounding criticisms are applied to the specific problem of sex instruction, what is the concrete result? It is impossible to say in detail without actually trying, but it is possible to suggest the first steps.

To begin with, the curriculum should be surveyed from beginning to end with a view to seeing not where information about sex could be inserted but where it

has been cut out to the detriment of the subject taught. Sex should not be hunted for, but it should not be avoided when it occurs. As much instruction should be given as each subject, by its nature, demands in order to be intelligible to the child. If this were done, I think it would be evident that almost everything we give to children has had sex cut out of it, no matter how greatly this surgery may have injured the subject. History has become motiveless, poetry passionless, art prudish, anatomy fragmentary, civics and ethics pedantic and psychology and sociology and economics have been avoided or so transformed that their anaemic figures are hardly recognized as human.

Now the inevitable tendency of this is to make all book-learning meaningless to the child. He learns neither to enjoy nor interpret the life around him. But the evil results do not stop here. They might if the child were what the school seems to assume him to be—a mere receptacle for facts. Even if he were it would be a tragedy to give him only facts with the breath of human passion squeezed out of them. But as he is a sensitive living creature, full of intricate impulses and desires of his own and played upon by his surroundings to a high degree, something more than boredom happens. He sees around him "grown-ups" who have inexplicable standards founded upon apparently arbitrary principles. He senses hidden emotion lying behind these standards. Dimly he feels they are hidden because of some surreptitious shame. He scorns both the emotions and the cowards who will not look them in the face.

Then perhaps he feels a disturbing emotion in himself. Certainly he feels a healthy curiosity about other people's emotions and the physical manifestations of them. He notices how all information is given to him expurgated. He fills in the asterisks himself—sometimes with the help of a discerning but rare mother—usually with the help of his street play-fellow. And so he enters into his heritage and assumes the responsibility of begetting children of his own.

The school is not to blame for all this, and the school should not attempt to remedy it all. Parents, teachers, neighbors, writers—everyone who touches life touches sex and is in so far responsible for the common attitude. The community as a whole must teach sex idealism by facing the sex question whenever it arises—frankly and positively. It arises inevitably within every child. It may come in a hundred ways, for sex affects a hundred parts of our lives. And since it can not be avoided it must be met, however and whenever it arises, and by teachers as well as by others.

To the school falls the charge of the child during the period of the awakening of sex consciousness. If the child has an adequate home where life is faced reverently and honestly it is the duty of the school not to counteract the home's influence by prudery and not to give the impression that sex is either unworthy or unimportant; if the child has an inadequate home—then the school must try definitely to counteract or supplement these inadequacies. Whatever the child's home, it is the school's duty to see that

the subjects taught are given not in a twisted or mutilated form, but in the way that will seem to the child as complete and significant as possible.

To do this it is obvious that the school must know the child as a human individual, must comprehend what emotions a child is likely to have, what curiosities and interpretations are to be looked for. And it is equally obvious that it must reckon with the child's home in the broadest sense both that it may properly interpret the child and that it may adequately supply the particular child's individual needs. If this is deemed impossible or impractical, then real education is impossible or impractical. If it is true that there is no royal road to learning, it is equally true that there is no wholesale road to learning. If education is to include more than the giving of information, if it is to embrace character-forming, standard building, it must be individualized. And if among the ideals to be striven for are sex ideals, then in justice to the subjects taught, in justice to the children and in justice to the community, educators must do their share in showing children how sex is interwoven through all of life.

The old questions—what sex instruction should be given, how, when and by whom—seem quite different when sex is regarded in this interwoven way. Give whatever sex instruction the subjects taught to children naturally include, choosing the suitable subjects on general, not on sex, grounds; give it frankly, positively, in the way the child will best comprehend it, whenever the occasion arises and with whomsoever it arises; approach it from every angle, science, art and ethics. Objective physical facts of sex will fall into their place with other physical facts, sex diseases will be associated with other diseases, sex hygiene will connect itself with general hygiene, ethical standards of sex will be linked with other ethical standards. The pathological, the abnormal will hardly arise as there is little in the normal child's life or education which would suggest it—little that demands an explanation of this negative side to make his world intelligible.

So the school, as one of the large factors in the child's world, must join in the consistent and united effort of all who love children to show them the reasonableness and the beauty and the sanctity of the sex ideals upon which our civilization rests.

TRAINING MECHANICS TO TEACH IN WISCONSIN

THE UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN, appreciating the demand for special industrial and trade teachers to serve in both day and night continuation schools has, for three years past, given courses in Milwaukee and in Madison for mechanics who are interested in teaching. Evidence of the demand for professionally trained mechanics to teach in industrial schools has lately led the regents of the university to create fifteen industrial scholarships.

Each scholarship carries with it a special honorarium of \$40, and the holders of these scholarships are to be organized as a mechanics institute. The

purpose of the institute will be to give intensive practice in special lines of shopwork and drawing and, connected therewith, to give a detailed consideration of organization and teaching problems met in industrial schools.

During the institute this spring three courses were offered; two three-hour courses, daily, one in shop work and the other in drafting and free-hand perspective. In each, emphasis was placed on the development of courses of study and the appropriate method of administering them. A one-hour course was given in which the problems of organization and maintenance of industrial school work will be discussed and in which demonstrations will be outlined.

The fifteen men appointed to industrial scholarships have been selected from nine cities in Wisconsin. They represent twelve trades.

No one responsible for the organization of the institute believes that one month is time enough to train men professionally for teaching. It is believed, however, that at least two ends may be accomplished in two months' time: first, the men will gain some power to organize material in their own fields of endeavor, and will be given specific instruction and practice in handling classes; second, they will be given some appreciation of the requirements of the teaching problem for particular types of schools, and should, consequently, be able either to decide to give more time to preparation for teaching, even though they may be appointed to teaching positions at the end of the period of instruction at the university, or give up the idea of teaching altogether.

A second institute will be conducted during the college year 1914-15.

TRADE SCHOOLS IN PHILADELPHIA

With the appointment of John C. Frazee as director of the recently created Bureau of Vocational Education and Guidance of the Philadelphia Board of Education, and the formation of an Executive Committee on Vocational Education representing Philadelphia organizations interested in vocational education, the prospect is that the establishment of trade schools in that city will move rapidly from now on.

The State Department of Education in Pennsylvania has established agricultural vocational schools in several counties and one industrial vocational school is now in operation as an experiment. As a result of a study of industries made by Millard B. King and a study of thirty-four trades made by the Consumers' League of Eastern Pennsylvania, one of the members of the new executive committee, it is thought that a trade school for girls will be opened next fall and one for boys shortly thereafter.

FAIRHOPE SUMMER SCHOOL

Under the auspices of the Fairhope League and directed by Marietta L. Johnson, principal of the School of Organic Education at Fairhope, Ala., a second summer school will be conducted this summer at Greenwich, Conn. The term of six weeks will begin July 6.

Personals

BY request of many Boston friends, THE SURVEY reprints here in full the obituary notice, from the *Boston Medical and Surgical Journal*, of Dr. Charles Pickering Putnam, president of the Boston Associated Charities and a leader in many social and medical movements:

"DR. CHARLES PICKERING PUTNAM, who died on April 23 last in his seventieth year, was born in Boston September 15, 1844. He was the son of Charles Gideon Putnam, M.D., and Elizabeth Cabot Jackson, both of Boston, and grandson of Dr. James Jackson. He graduated from Harvard College in 1865 and from the Harvard Medical School in 1869; continued his medical studies for a time in Germany, and began the practice of his profession in Boston in 1871. Since that time he had carried on a general practice, though for many years he made a specialty of pediatrics and did some excellent pioneer work in orthopedics. He was a lecturer at the Harvard Medical School on diseases of children from 1873-75 and a clinical instructor on that subject 1875-79. He served the Boston Dispensary as district physician from 1871-1873 and as orthopedic surgeon 1873-76. In 1898 he was elected president of the American Pediatric Society.

"Dr. Putnam had been since the beginning of his practice of medicine a leader in charitable and social work,—almost from the beginning the most important leader of such work in Boston, the first to take hold and the last to let go of each new and important enterprise.

"Dr. Putnam was one of the founders, in 1873, of the little-known but extremely important Boston Society for the Relief of Destitute Mothers and Infants, which was a pioneer in establishing the policy of keeping mother and child together, and was president of the society from 1904 until his death. In 1875 he became physician to the Massachusetts Infant Asylum, and from 1898 to 1910 he was also president of the board of trustees. The ordinary death-rate in such institutions was at that time something over ninety per cent. a year. The Massachusetts Infant Asylum had already brought the rate down to less than a quarter of that figure when Dr. Putnam became connected with it, and he by his skill and devotion again reduced it by two-thirds or more. He was one of those who in 1879 took part in the movement for establishing the Associated Charities, the second charity organization society in this country; and he was always one of the sustaining members of that society in the real, not the conventional, sense, working in many capacities, as president of a conference, as director, as chairman of many committees, including the present important one on inebriety, and, since 1907, as president.

"From 1892 to 1897 Dr. Putnam took a leading part in the very important movement for the reorganization of the Boston Institutions for the care of prisoners, of the poor, and of poor, neglected, and delinquent children, being on the special committee appointed by Mayor Matthews in 1892, chairman of the board of visitors of 1893-94, chairman of the standing committee on pauper institutions of the advisory board appointed by Mayor Quincy in 1896, a steady fighter for the reorganization bill of 1897. When the new system of separate unpaid boards of trustees was established he was appointed a member of the Board of Children's Institutions, and was its chairman from 1902 to 1911, performing in that capacity a great and harassing, though invisible and unappreciated, service to his fellow-citizens.

"Dr. Putnam was among the earliest supporters of Dr. James R. Chadwick in founding the Boston Medical Library, of which he was an original member in 1875, an incorporator in 1877, and which he served upon important committees until his death. He helped to organize and carry on the Directory of Nurses. He was active in the campaign against tuberculosis and a director of the Mental Hygiene Association. He was one of the first to take up broad social questions from the legislative end, was the first experienced charity worker to enlist in the Massachusetts Civic League, and helped secure the establishment of the State Board of Insanity, the taking over of the Boston Insane Hospital by the state, medical inspection in the public schools of Massachusetts, playgrounds, better probation service, the juvenile court, better laws dealing with tramps, with drunkards, and many others.

"In short, Dr. Putnam was for a generation the backbone of social work in Boston. We have all looked to him to do the hard things—to take up the new line at which the timid balked and which the unimaginative could not see, sustaining the old from which the glamor had worn off, stiffening up the weak places, making the hard decisions. He was here, as in all things, a man to accept responsibility, take the burden on himself and carry it,—a patient and successful physician to the community as well as to the child.

"Dr. Putnam's most distinctive characteristic was the power of enlistment. In each of the many services he undertook it seemed to those he served and to his fellow workers as if that must be the only thing he had to do. There are in every enterprise the helpful men, the wise, the brilliant men, the steady workers. And then there are the essential men, those without whom the thing will not be done. In an extraordinary number of instances Dr. Putnam was among these last. Whatever happened, however badly things might go, whoever

else became lukewarm or discouraged, his associates knew that he, at least, would see the thing through, that he had enlisted for the war, intended doing as much be it more or less, as might be necessary. The time at his disposal seemed always to be infinite, and he had no observable bias as to hours. There is no evidence, known at least outside his immediate family, that he ever ate or slept, and three in the morning was apparently the same to him as three in the afternoon.

"Dr. Putnam was a remarkably resourceful man and would reconstruct his patients' world, physically as well as morally, by his calm assumption that anything needed could be done, and in hundreds of cases by doing the most impossible parts himself. Slower minds thought him slow at laying the first brick, whereas he had completed the whole structure in imagination, and was hesitating what kind of chimney-pot to use.

"Dr. Putnam had a fairy godmother quality, as many of us know. I remember on my first visit to his much-loved shanty in the Adirondacks I came to believe that if, when walking up a mountain, you happened to want anything, from a piece of maple sugar to a volume of Shakespeare or a box of paints, you had only to look under the nearest stump and you would find that Dr. Putnam had anticipated exactly that need at that particular spot.

"To many of those who saw him, Dr. Putnam's impersonation of the policeman at the charity workers' ball a year or two ago (I personally took him for a real cop), and of the very 'disturbed' patient who brought down the house upon the same occasion, was a revelation of an unsuspected quality. His sense of humor, indeed, lived always just beneath the surface. I once saw him 'cure' a small child's hands by putting on them a couple of envelopes as mittens.

"And the best was the power behind it all in the great kind heart, that would see and know only the best, and, with a quality like the sun, could see only light wherever it was turned."

THE Chicago Woman's City Club has been fortunate in securing Harriet E. Vittum as civic director to succeed Amelia Sears, whose services it surrendered to the county's new department of public welfare.

Miss Vittum's resourceful personality, varied experience and training as nurse, head resident of Northwestern University Settlement and president of the Woman's City Club qualify her for her new and exacting opportunity. She retains her settlement head residentship, with increased assistance, and is assisted at the City Club by Mary E. Collins. Miss Collins' technical experience in editing educational publications and her long residence at Chicago Commons fit her both for editing the club's bulletin and for assistance in its general work.

Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen's accession to the presidency of the Woman's City Club rounds out a rarely efficient executive group.

MABEL C. HALLOCK, who had been stenographer to the vice-president of the Provident Loan Society of New York for eight years, and before that had been for six years with the Charity Organization Society, died on June 4 of pneumonia, one of several complications resulting from an attack of scarlet fever. She had been ill only a week.

JULIA SCHOENFELD, for three years a secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association of America, has been appointed head worker of the Irene Kaufman Settlement, Pittsburgh, Pa. Miss Schoenfeld does not come to the Irene Kaufman Settlement as a stranger. Fourteen years ago when it was called the Columbian Council Settlement, she was the first head resident.

It was during the period of her settlement work that Miss Schoenfeld became interested in recreation for working girls, a subject on which she is a recognized authority. Her investigation of public dance halls in New York city undertaken in 1908 while she was secretary of the Committee on the Amusement Resources of Working Girls, was the basis for the model New York city ordinance regulating dance halls. Later as secretary of the Playground and Recreation Association she conducted dance hall investigations in Boston,



JULIA SCHOENFELD
Head Worker, Irene Kaufman Settlement.

Mass., St. Joseph, Mo., Johnstown, Pa., Pittsburgh and other cities.

Miss Schoenfeld takes up her duties at the Irene Kaufman Settlement, September 1. In connection with the regular settlement activities she is planning to organize a public forum similar to the People's Institute in New York city.

ments, of permitting children to go to work as soon as they have passed the minimum requirements, and not providing sufficient recreational centers in the crowded districts, then not four criminals, but thousands of innocent souls would be yearly saved to their dear ones. Our minds must be turned toward preventive work, to behold the dangers which face our weak neighbor whose only sin is the "crime of poverty."

After reading the masterly article on the gunmen in *THE SURVEY* of April 4, by Winthrop D. Lane, we realize that they were unfortunate victims of Society which did so little to prevent their falling into evil hands. Our plain duty is to prevent such future happenings. The new heart will turn our vision toward making it safer for boys, and for girls, to live and play on the East Side, yes, in every crowded district throughout the land. A heart full of mercy, but governed by vision, is our great need.

RUDOLPH I. COFFEE.

[Tree of Life Synagogue.]
Pittsburgh.

THE COUNTRY SCHOOL

TO THE EDITOR: June is here and with it commencement. Among the young graduates planning work for next fall may I make a plea for the country school? Only a few miles from our larger cities are hundreds of isolated towns whose young people are eager and hungry for many things coming to their city brother and sister. Good native stock that would well repay time spent on it.

We all know the devotion most of us felt for some attractive teacher when we were young and how growth comes by personal influence—through admiration and love to imitation. Think then of the influence a teacher—a trained social worker—could have on a whole community.

She could visit her pupils and from them go into other homes naturally and intimately—helping in all matters of everyday living. She could give advice as to vocational training—in matters of hygiene—in manners as well as morals—the school building could be used as a recreation center. How many country villages need lessons in simple human friendliness and kindness. Through isolated and narrow lives people have let jealousy and slights cause troubles, which could be helped by the influence of one person with a broader vision. In many villages there is little community spirit—it is each man for himself—the church draws in a handful of the more religious people leaving all the rest of the community almost uninfluenced. If there are two churches they really divide the community. In the few cases where any social work is attempted the church does not seem to think it necessary to ask advice of experts who have gained their knowledge by experience.

We think of the wholesomeness of country life—forgetting there are many hardly normal children growing up in families where home conditions are painfully poor.

It seems as if the school teacher could

Communications

THE WISCONSIN EUGENIC LAW?

TO THE EDITOR: The reactionary author of a press dispatch is chuckling at the absurdity of the Wisconsin law requiring a certificate of physical fitness for marriage. It seems that a woman posing as a man secured a satisfactory certificate from a doctor in Milwaukee enabling her to marry a *second* wife!

One might inquire of the brilliant newspaper critic if the former marriage was not absurd because it occurred too long ago to be "news"? Or is the Wisconsin law absurd because it does not require married couples to have children, instead of attempting simply to prevent undesirable children? If the blood test, applied by the doctor to this woman, is adequate to show the absence of venereal taint, is the law still absurd because it does not compel her to love, honor and obey her feminine mate? Are the old laws preferable that take no account of social welfare?

Is every law to be accounted absurd that does not satisfy the newspaper man's fantastic idea of what law should be? The newspapers invented Dr. Osler's weird ideas for him. It is not remarkable that the same inspired source should distort the purpose of eugenic laws. The encouraging by-product of this alleged Wisconsin fiasco is that the eugenic law in this instance does all

that eugenic laws ever ought to do—it registers society's protest; it does not attempt to determine breeding.

CHARLES ZEUBLIN.

Winchester, Mass.

THE NEW HEART

TO THE EDITOR: The prophet Ezekiel, in one of his finest utterances, spoke of removing the heart of stone from his people and substituting a heart of flesh. Were he on earth today, he would remove the heart of flesh, governed by sympathy and tenderness, and place instead a heart ruled also by vision and insight.

We need something more than a soul stung into action at the thought of four gunmen recently electrocuted. Our country requires ministers with prophetic vision to see the natural consequences of conduct before our children become criminals.

Seldom was a more determined fight waged to save human life than on behalf of the gunmen. Clergymen of various denominations were most anxious to obtain a reprieve. Their labors did honor to their sympathetic hearts. If only a fraction of that energy could be crystallized into action, guided by vision, what great blessings would result! Could we but visualize the logical outcome of dwelling in unsanitary tenements,

help in all these matters—provided she was trained to work with all the forces for the good of the community—bringing to it more energy—ambition and life through the friendliness of working together.

It has been said a young woman would have to be something of a missionary to take up this work, but do not many of our young people dream dreams and see visions? And are there not attractions to such a life—the beauty of the country, the healthy life for those to whom a city is too strenuous, the long vacations.

It's true salaries are low and boarding places difficult to find but the growing tendency for consolidating village schools is increasing salaries and in such cases two teachers could live together and so get around the loneliness that would be a great drawback. They might keep house together, for rented furnished houses including firewood can be had for a few dollars a month—even a riding horse might come in.

Perhaps one could not have many guests but surely those one did have could be given a variety of interesting and happy experiences.

J. B. COLT.

Concord, Mass.

A GIFT OF A NICKLE

TO THE EDITOR: It was my pleasure to serve as one of the team captains in a seven-day campaign for the purpose of raising \$100,000 for the local Y. W. C. A. During one of the noon-hour meetings when the reports were turned in, one of the young ladies serving on one of the teams reported the following story:

While going through the center of the city she was approached by a youngster, dressed very shabbily, who said that he wanted to make a contribution to the campaign. He fished down into his trousers and got out a nickel and a penny, apparently the only convertible assets he had in the world. He looked at the nickel, he looked at the penny, and then he looked up at the very fatigued worker and said, "Youse ladies look awful tired; you must be workin' awful hard for this." Then, with a second look at the coins, he put the penny back in his pocket and contributed the nickel to the campaign fund.

The individual subscriptions in this campaign ranged from \$10,000 to the five-cent piece given by the youngster, and I assure you when the story of his gift was told, there was just as much applause and enthusiasm as there was at the announcement of a large gift.

On the last day of the campaign the nickel was auctioned off and sold at a very substantial price, for it was a most interesting souvenir and surely a "widow's mite."

ROBERT E. MILLER.

Lancaster, Pa.

WIDOWS' PENSIONS

TO THE EDITOR: The well-known generosity of THE SURVEY, in printing every possible view of a subject, leads me to try and express myself frankly as to the reasons which lead me and others like me, to favor state aid for

all dependent mothers with minor children rather than some form of private charity.

The reason that should lead all others is, to my mind, that the state should take some formulative stand in the matter. Surely the matter of the prevention of poverty should be of utmost interest to the state, and not one to be pushed aside as unprofitable.

Private charity has never been able to do adequate preventative work. It leaves the children of the self-respecting widow hungry. Now, without proper food and clothing for the child, we know it does not become employable at the working age. "Most of the high hopes based upon their coming of age," says Dr. Devine in Widow's Needs in the April 4 SURVEY, "result in disillusionment as they arrive at an age when their inherent lack of energy, of ambition, of responsibility become apparent." Private charity has never been able to rightly treat this disease of stunted childhood. Though scientists have written treatises on the connection between lack of nutrition and degeneracy, nothing truly curative has been done.

Dr. Devine says: "We have seen that the charitable societies come in contact with from three to ten per cent of the widows in New York city who have small children dependent upon them. What might be said is that this small percentage includes nearly all of the least efficient, the least capable, the degenerate, the unfit."

In Boston we have, perhaps, as good a system of organized charity as any in the country. Yet, again and again I have found Dr. Devine's statement to be true. Charity does not take up a case until it is destitute, until it is inefficient, until it has degenerated below the extreme poverty line. And the children of these people have never had a chance.

Dr. Devine, to my mind, puts the whole matter in a nutshell when he says: "Tuberculosis, typhoid, fatal industrial injuries, insufficient pay, economic insufficiency, the physical strain of overwork, the exploitation of the vices and weaknesses of men and women for commercial profit, are all subjects with which social workers in the charitable societies are deeply concerned, but for which the remedies lie in other and more powerful hands. . . . "They can only lift up their voices in eloquent testimony."

We must look for the "other and more powerful hands," wherever they may be. If not in the church, and not in philanthropy, why not in the state? The times are bringing forth men who, like a wise physician, search out the hidden poisons in our body politic. One thing we know: we must begin with the child, since it is too late for his grandfather. And twenty states have recognized this fact.

Here in Massachusetts I have seen grey, wizened little faces, and hollow mother-faces, lined with grief, round up, lose their perpetual tear-stains and become hopeful under the new state regime. Cases that under the old hap-

azard dispensation, living from hand to mouth in uncertainty of the morrow never learned to save, and almost lost interest in life, have begun to take courage. Under the old rule, if you saved, aid was taken away. Here one can normally plan for one's children, even with the smallish rate which is all the state can pay.

God knows what a difference it has made in Massachusetts already, and what ten years will bring about in prevention of sickness, and crime and stunted childhood—God only knows that, too. But we can guess. The state does things better, for it has a principle of conservation to go by, it has the "other and more powerful hands," and it does things quicker, and better, and all the time, and not just once in a while.

The remedy for poverty, it seems to me, does not lie in "more trained workers with higher salaries" but in a more general knowledge of poverty-preventing measures, and public opinion to back up the campaign begun by all the United States. To this literature, the press and the stage have lent their powerful hands.

CLARA CAHILL PARK.

[Member Massachusetts Commission to Study the Question of the Support of Widowed Mothers with Minor Dependent Children.]

Wollaston, Mass.

THE POOR IN SPIRIT

TO THE EDITOR: One point we all seem to forget: the value of life can never be expressed in dollars and cents. The best things in life are actually as possible for the Siberian prisoner as for the millionaire, for no one has ever denied that the "fruits of the spirit: love, joy, peace, long-suffering, goodness, faith, meekness, temperance" flourish even better in adversity.

It is almost a platitude that the fullness of life can be possessed by every human being exactly in proportion to his capacity for holding it—and that such capacity is not necessarily increased or lessened by an income of a few dollars or thousands. But do we believe this?

If poverty and degradation of spirit were as painful and distressive as material poverty and degradation, how different would be our cry! For the root of most of the trouble is that we see our neighbor enjoying all that we long for and cannot have—or more deeply, perhaps, because we cannot give to our clamoring children what he can give to his—regardless of whether or not it is best for them.

We know that poverty and degradation of spirit are found far oftener among the idle rich than among the hard-working poor—but whoever heard of begging for laws to distribute equally—love, peace, faith, hope and temperance—the only things really worth living for?

Even the rich man's cup cannot be filled more than overflowing—and the size of his cup does not depend upon his money or his earthly goods.

M. L.

A REJECTED LETTER

TO THE EDITOR: A recent editorial in the Boston *Herald* defending "young Mr. Rockefeller's" position opened the eyes of its readers to the fact that, on one side at least, the issues are undoubtedly made up. As the *Herald* refused to publish a critical letter in reply, I am prompted to send this where I can get a hearing.

The article apparently demanded for the employer, as a natural right, that he should be able to select for his workmen (and to black-list all others) only those who believe in the present "régime of private property" and who believe that its present opportunities to gather enormous accumulations are legitimate, in spite of the facts that they rob labor of the full social value of its product and inevitably tend to create a "parasite" class. It did not even suggest any toleration for such workingmen as entertain different views, however peacefully they desire to promote them.

There was no peace-offering for those who, with votes in their hands and rising public opinion behind them, are toiling in darkness for a bare living while a few of their associates, their brethren, men of the same flesh and blood, flaunt before their eyes costly motors, palatial housing and magnificent attire and publish in the fulsome "society" broadsides of a democratic press every detail of lives of such luxury as have seldom been lived before our days and have at least been hidden in aristocratic or regal privacy. Is it singular that the unrest is greatest where the bitter sarcasm of Dr. Eliot's "joy of labor" is realized by the mine-worker as he contrasts his joy with that of the Monte Cristos of the mine-owning families?

The editorial advocated a battle in Colorado to maintain the right of self-preservation to Mr. Rockefeller and of his manner of conducting business. If the battle comes to pass in fire and blood, for which bigoted capitalism will be largely responsible, it may indeed be fought to a finish, but the victory will be won over the evil powers incarnated in Mr. Rockefeller, a victory which the prayerful and thoughtful had hoped to bring about without the terrible cataclysm thus invoked.

There is no Bible Christian who believes in the Master's teachings concerning the menace of riches and who has looked forward to the promised millennium of human brotherhood by the new apostolate of social service, seeking to act in the spheres of conciliation and arbitration, who would not be taboo as an employe to the capitalist because, of course, such a one believes in the final overthrow of the "present régime." Until the Christian church lost her crown by her "establishment" her one panacea was expressed by the practice of her members who "had all things in common." Modern sociology, through love or fear, is rousing the world to a new expression of the abandoned attitude (all but the purblind capitalists and their hirelings) which prophesies that "the present régime" is doomed.

The saving chance for those who have boasted themselves in "the multitude of their riches" is to lead frankly and heroically in the forward movement, through restitution, atonement and enlightened leadership toward general and full co-operation, where larger powers and abilities may give direction, for moderate and openly apportioned compensation,—service in the fields of commerce and industry such as always has been thus given in science, the arts and in religion.

To attempt a forcible resistance is after all almost more silly than wicked. The clever cartoonist of the *Herald* should employ his pencil upon the leader writer as King Knute ordering the tide back, or as Mrs. Partington with her broom trying to sweep away the Atlantic Ocean.

ERVING WINSLOW.

Boston.

SAID OF THE SURVEY

TO THE EDITOR: Please find enclosed \$3, my subscription for current year. I want the management to know that I greatly appreciate the magazine. I am proud of its out-and-out position on sex problems and on industrial matters—only with this statement: at this stage of the problem we must be careful to give every interest its due.

J. HASTIE ODGERS.

[Minister Epworth M. E. Church.]

Chicago.

Calendar of Conferences

JUNE AND JULY CONFERENCES

ACADEMY OF MEDICINE, American. Atlantic City, N. J., June 19-22. Sec'y, Charles McIntire, Easton, Pa.

BLIND, Fourth Triennial International Conference on the. London, England, June 18-24. Sec'y, Henry Stainsby, 206 Great Portland St., London, W.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Colorado State Board of. Boulder, Colo., June 28-July 4. Sec'y, William Thomas, State Capitol, Denver, Colo.

CIVIC SECRETARYSHIP AS PUBLIC SERVICE,

First Conference on. Capitol Building, Madison, Wis., July 2-3. Information may be secured by addressing C. P. Cary, state superintendent, Madison, Wis.

EDUCATION ASSOCIATION, National, St. Paul, Minn., July 4-11. Sec'y, D. W. Springer, Ann Arbor, Mich.

HOME ECONOMICS ASSOCIATION, American. Western Reserve University, Cleveland, O., June 30-July 3. Sec'y, Isabel Ely Lord, Pratt Institute, Brooklyn, N. Y.

REMEDIAL LOAN ASSOCIATIONS, National Federation of. Philadelphia, Pa., July

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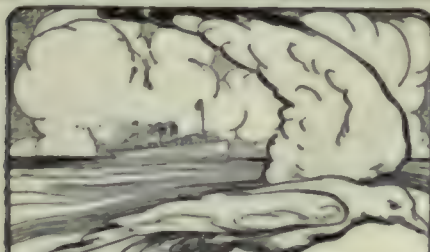
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9-11. Sec'y, J. T. Exnicios, 902 F. Street,
N. W., Washington, D. C.

RURAL LIFE CONFERENCE. Iowa State Col-
lege, Ames, Ia., July 7-19. Further in-
formation may be secured by addressing
Dean Charles F. Curtiss, Ames, Ia.

SCHOOL FOR LEADERSHIP IN COUNTRY LIFE,
Fourth Conference of. New York State
College of Agriculture, Cornell Univers-
ity, June 23-July 3. Information may be
secured by addressing the secretary, Col-
lege of Agriculture, Cornell University,
Ithaca, N. Y.

TUBERCULOSIS, Canadian Association for
the Prevention of. Fourteenth Annual
Convention. Halifax, Nova Scotia, July
13-14. Sec'y, George D. Porter, Bank
Street Chambers, Ottawa, Can.

LATER MEETINGS

INTERNATIONAL

CHILDREN'S WELFARE, International Con-
gress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914.
President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstratt 106,
Amsterdam, Holland.

CHRISTIAN CITIZENSHIP CONFERENCE, Third
World's. First week in July, 1916. Sec'y,
Rev. T. D. Edgar, Wilkinsburg, Pa.

DISEASES OF OCCUPATION, Third Inter-
national Congress on. Vienna, September,
1914. Sec'y, Dr. Alice Hamilton, Hull
House, Chicago.

EUGENICS CONGRESS, International. New
York City. About September 30, 1915.

HOME EDUCATION, Fourth International
Congress on. Philadelphia, Pa. Septem-
ber 22-30. Gen. Sec'y, Mrs. J. Scott
Anderson, Torresdale, Phila., Pa.

LABOR LEGISLATION, International Associa-
tion for. Berne, Switzerland, September
15-17. American Sec'y, John B. Andrews,
131 East 33d Street, New York.

PRISON CONGRESS, Quinquennial. London,
England, 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der
Aa, Groningen, Holland.

SOCIAL WORK AND SERVICE, International
Congress on. State, Municipal and Vol-
untary. University of London, South
Kensington, May 30-June 5, 1915. Acting
Sec'y, D. R. Sharpe, Denison House,
Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S. W.

TOWN PLANNING, Summer School of.
University of London, August 1-13, 1914.
Joint Sec'y, J. S. Rathbone, Fitzalan
house, Church End, Finchley, London, N.

UNEMPLOYMENT, International Association
on. Paris, September 18-19. American
Sec'y, John B. Andrews, 131 East 33d
Street, New York.

NATIONAL

AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCA-
TION OF AMERICAN BANKERS' ASSOCIA-
TION, Committee on. Fourth Annual
Conference. Chicago, September, 1914.
Sec'y, B. F. Harris, Champaign, Ill.

CATHOLIC CHARITIES, National Conference
of. Washington, D. C., September 20-23.
Sec'y, Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Cath-
olic University, Washington, D. C.

CONSUMERS' LEAGUE, National. Fifteenth
Annual Meeting. Washington, D. C.,
December 10-11, 1914. Gen. Sec'y, Mrs.
Florence Kelley, 106 E. 19th Street, New
York.

CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY, Ameri-
can Institute of. Washington, D. C.,
October 30-23. Sec'y, Henry Winthrop
Ballantine, University of Wisconsin,
Madison, Wis.

HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION, American. St. Paul,
Minn., August 25-28. Sec'y, Dr. H. A.
Boyce, Kingston General Hospital, King-
ston, Ontario.

HUMANE ASSOCIATION, American. Atlantic
City, N. J., October 5-8. Sec'y, Nathaniel
J. Walker, Albany, N. Y.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, National Society
for the Promotion of. Richmond, Va.,

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December, 1914. Sec'y, C. A. Prosser, 105 E. 22d Street, New York City.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY, National Council for. Chicago, October 20-22. Sec'y, W. H. Cameron, c/o Continental and Commercial National Bank, Chicago.

INFANT MORTALITY, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fifth Annual Meeting. Boston, Mass., November, 12-14, 1914. Exec. Sec'y, Miss Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

JEWISH WOMEN, Council of. Seventh Triennial. New Orleans, La., December, 1914. Exec. Sec'y, Miss Sadie American, 448 Central Park West, New York.

MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENT, American Society of. Boston, Mass., October 6-9. Sec'y, Charles C. Brown, Wulsin Building, Indianapolis, Ind.

MUNICIPAL LEAGUE, National. Baltimore, Md., November 17-21, 1914. Sec'y, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, North American Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.

PRISON ASSOCIATION, American. St. Paul, Minn., October 3-8. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION, American. Jacksonville, Fla. Last week in November, 1914. Sec'y, Prof. S. M. Gunn, 755 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

WORKERS FOR THE BLIND, American Association of. San Francisco, Cal., 1915. Sec'y, Charles F. F. Campbell, 911 Franklin Avenue, Columbus, O.

STATE AND LOCAL

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Canadian Conference of. Fifteenth Annual Meeting. Toronto, September 16-18. Gen. Sec'y, Arthur H. Burnett, City Hall, Toronto.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Iowa State Conference of. Fort Dodge, Ia., November 17-19. Sec'y, P. S. Pierce, State University, Iowa City, Ia.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Maryland State Conference of. Easton, Md., November, 1914. Sec'y, Wm. H. Davenport, 514 Carrett Bldg., Baltimore, Md.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, New York State Conference of. Utica, N. Y., November 17-19. Sec'y, R. W. Wallace, Box 17, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Pennsylvania State Conference of. Harrisburg, Pa., November 17-19. Sec'y, James Struthers Heberling, Redington, Pa.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Texas State Conference of. San Antonio, Texas, November, 1914. Sec'y, R. J. Newton, State House, Austin, Texas.

CHARITIES, Massachusetts State Conference of. Boston, Mass., November 10-12. Sec'y, Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont Street, Boston, Mass.

EXHIBITIONS

INTERNATIONAL

CIVIC EXHIBITION. Dublin, Ireland, Spring, 1914. Sec'y, Wm. A. McConnell, Linen Hall Bldg., Dublin.

GERMAN ARTISANS' EXPOSITION. Cologne, May-October, 1914.

HYGIENE, Exposition of. Stuttgart, Germany. Middle of May to end of October, 1914.

PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION. San Francisco, Cal., February 20-December 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Alvin E. Pope, San Francisco, Cal.

PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION, San Diego, Cal., January 1-December 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego, Cal.

URBAN EXPOSITION, International. Lyons, France, May 1-November 1, 1914. General Director, Dr. Jules Courmont, Hotel de Ville, Lyons, France.

INFORMATION DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but membership is not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply.

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CHILD HELPING—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence, printed matter and counsel relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS—National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth ave., New York, Charles F. Powlson, Gen. Sec'y, Anna Louise Strong, Director of Exhibits. Bulletins covering Results, Organization, Cost, Construction, etc., of Child Welfare Exhibits. Will assist cities in organization and direction. Exhibit material to loan.

CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE—American Assoc. for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request. Traveling Exhibit. Urges prenatal instruction; adequate obstetrical care; birth registration; maternal nursing; infant welfare consultations.

Health

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MENTAL HYGIENE—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City, Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

PUBLIC HEALTH—American Public Health Association. Pres., Wm. C. Woodward, Washington; Sec'y, S. M. Gunn, Boston. Founded for the purpose of advancing the cause of public health and prevention of disease. Five sections: Laboratory, Vital Statistics, Municipal Health Officers, Sanitary Engineering and Sociological. Official organ American Journal of Public Health, \$3.00 a year, published monthly. 3 months' subscription, 50 cents. Address 755 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

SEX HYGIENE—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies. Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

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LIFE EXTENSION INSTITUTE, Inc., E. E. Rittenhouse, Pres. Gives life extension service to subscribers. Service No. 1 \$3.00 a year; Service No. 2 \$5.00 a year. Consists of periodic health examinations, inspection service, and health bulletins on disease prevention. Head office 25 West 45th St., New York City. 'phone—Bryant 1997—1998.

NATIONAL HEALTH—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Exec. Sec., Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

TUBERCULOSIS—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

SOCIAL HYGIENE—The American Social Hygiene Association (Inc.), 105 W. 40th St., New York. Division Offices: Chicago, 1632 McCormick Building; San Francisco, Examiner Building. Full information on request. Individual and society membership. The Association is organized to promote sound sex education, the reduction of venereal diseases and the suppression of commercialized vice. Executives, James B. Reynolds, Counsel; William F. Snow, M.D., General Secretary.

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REMEDIAL LOANS—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 130 E. 22nd St., N. Y. Arthur H. Ham. Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

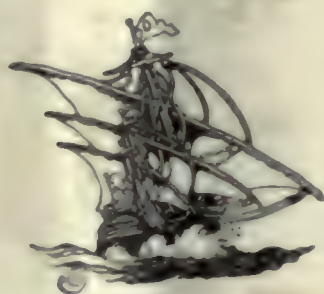
Recreation

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON RECREATION—A classified list of significant publications on recreation giving publisher, price, and printed description. Cities issuing reports on recreation administration are also included. Price 10 cents. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22nd Street, New York City.

RECREATION—Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y. Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

THE

SURVEY



PATERSON POINTS *of* VIEW

*The Industrial Relations Hearings on
the Silk Strike*

By JOHN A. FITCH

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PUBLICATION OFFICE
105 East 22d Street
New York

INCORPORATED

Robert W. deForest, President
Arthur P. Kellogg, Secretary Frank Tucker, Treasurer

WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 13

Contents

June 27, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

BUSINESS MEN IN THE ROLE OF PEDAGOGS	335
SMALL LOAN BANKS FOR BUSINESS, NOT PHILANTHROPY	335
FOR BETTER HEALTH SERVICE IN CONNECTICUT	336
WASHINGTON SCHOOLHOUSES FOR THE PEOPLE	337
APPLYING STANDARDS TO MOTION PICTURE FILMS, By Orrin G. Cocks	337
PROGRESS IN PRISON REFORM IN MASSACHUSETTS, By George Luther Cady	338

INDUSTRY

THE PATERSON SILK MILL STRIKE A YEAR AFTER	John A. Fitch	339
REDUCING LABOR COSTS BY SHORTENING THE WORK DAY	Harry Franklin Porter	341

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY Edited by Graham Taylor

THE UNEMPLOYED AND THE CHURCHES: A Reply	John A. Ryan	342
PRESBYTERIAN GENERAL ASSEMBLY AND SOCIAL QUESTIONS	Henry Seymour Brown	343

SOCIAL AGENCIES

DAYBREAK IN NEBRASKA STATE PRISON	George L. Cooper	344
---	------------------	-----

BOOK REVIEWS	345
------------------------	-----

COMMUNICATIONS	346
--------------------------	-----

Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents.

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The GIST of IT—

TANNENBAUM set back the clock, argues Father Ryan in reply to Dr. Holmes on the unemployed and the churches. Page 342.

A NEW broom twisted of progressive policies, an efficient warden and staff and better buildings, has swept clean the Nebraska state prison where murder and graft reigned two years ago. Page 344.

SOME big manufacturing plants have found that it costs less to make things with eight-hour workmen than with nine- or ten-hour men. Page 341.

SOCIAL service was vigorously defended and endorsed by the Presbyterian General Assembly, though Charles Stelzle's work among workingmen has lost the church the support of some wealthy contributors. Page 343.

REVIEWS of some recent books, including Mrs. Kelley's Modern Industry, Giovannitti's Arrows in the Gale, and Veiller's Model Housing Law. Pages 345-348.

LITTLE has been accomplished this year in the Massachusetts prison reform program, but the program itself is worth while. Page 338.

THE men who went into the Industrial Finance Corporation for philanthropic motives have retired, and the corporation has organized on a straight business basis, charging interest of 12 or 15 per cent on loans to workingmen. It will not, at any rate at the start, serve the borrowers of sums under \$50, who form a great army of the victims of loan sharks. Page 335.

THE national movie censors have revised their statement of standards and principles, particularly with regard to sex and crime. Page 338.

PATERSON, a year afterward, furnished the Industrial Relations Commission one of its most interesting hearings. Three sides—the I. W. W., the business men and the police—advocated going beyond the law to gain their ends. Page 339.

REPRESENTATIVES of 51 corporations met in Philadelphia to discuss their schools for employees and scheme up their relations to the public schools. Corporation schools are held to be the modern substitutes for the apprenticeship system. Page 335.

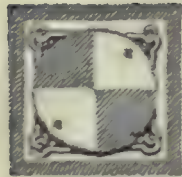
CONNECTICUT'S chaotic health work discussed by a group of authorities gathered at Greenwich. Page 337.

WASHINGTON is practically sure of social centers in its public schools though an act of Congress is necessary to authorize it. Page 337.

WITH safety at sea still befogged, comes news of the first collision in the air and the loss of the entire crews of both craft. The La Follette bill, the proposed Alexander substitute and the London treaty may drag on until protection can be included for the passengers in the heavens above.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



BUSINESS MEN IN THE ROLE OF PEDAGOGS

IF YOU HAD stepped into the spacious auditorium on the tenth floor of the home of the Curtis Publishing Company in Philadelphia week before last you might have thought it strange that such a place had been chosen for a conference of school teachers. You would soon have discovered, however, that here was a new type of school teacher, that both speakers and audience were for the greater part business men who had come together to discuss methods of educating their employees.

The National Association of Corporation Schools was holding its second annual convention. Its members, representing fifty-two business concerns, had put aside the technics of shop and store and were exchanging experiences in the training of salesmen, mechanics, office workers, accountants, draughtsmen and the like.

The constitution of this association declares that its object is to "aid corporations in the educational work of their employees." More than once during the four days' discussions it was made evident, however, that many members are anxious to go beyond that. They want to reach out and modify established educational institutions. Again and again speakers urged those present to go back to their own towns and use their influence to make the public school what business men think it ought to be.

Some of the criticisms business men have to make of the public school were elicited recently by the association. Fifty-one member corporations were asked whether, from their experience with new employes coming directly from school, they found public school training adequate. Of the thirty-four who answered, twenty-seven said no, five gave a qualified yes, and two an unqualified yes.

Asked to list the particulars in which such training is lacking, they replied: reading, writing, arithmetic, geography, spelling, punctuation, concentration, application, definite knowledge, accuracy, knowledge of commercial needs, ability

to converse properly, courtesy, articulation of speech, initiative, discipline, co-ordination of theoretical and practical, training in exact habits, ability to follow directions, general information, thoroughness, analytical and reasoning ability, and postal regulations.

E. St. Elmo Lewis, advertising manager of the Burroughs Adding Machine Company, voiced what appeared to be the prevailing opinion when he said that what business concerns want is youths who can be taught readily the peculiarities of the business they enter, but who do not have to be further trained in the essentials of a general education. There was no expectation at the convention that corporations can escape all educational burden with respect to their employes. It was taken for granted that the corporation school has come to stay, that it is as necessary an instrument to industrial efficiency today as the apprentice course was one hundred years ago.

Indeed, a corporation school, in the minds of those who attended the convention, is the logical descendent of the old apprentice course. The latter was a means afforded by industry itself for passing a young man or woman through all the operations of a trade. But the coming of big corporations and the subdivision of labor, it was declared, left no place to learn a trade.

Representatives of railroads, of manufacturing, of mercantile houses recounted their pedagogical experiences, discussing the value of classes for particular kinds of employes, such as salesmen and office workers, debating the question of compulsory courses, and outlining their class-room methods. The General Electric Company, Burroughs Adding Machine Company, Packard Motor Car Company, New York Edison Company, Curtis Publishing Company, Pennsylvania Railroad, Atchison, Topeka and Santa Fe Railway, and the Yale and Towne Lock Company are some of the corporations which have established the kind of schools the association is seeking to spread.

A resolution was adopted urging the members of the association to support the continuation school movement.

SMALL LOAN BANKS FOR BUSINESS, NOT PHILANTHROPY

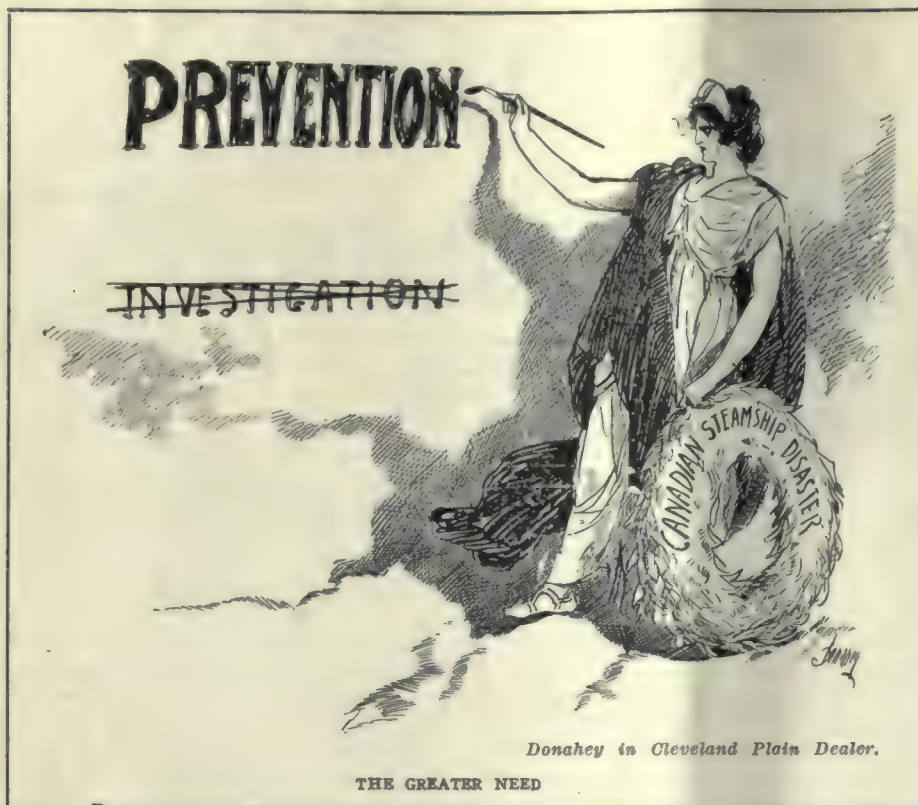
WHEN THE Industrial Finance Corporation was formally organized a fortnight ago, not only were important changes made in its board of directors and financial backers, but instead of being described as a union of business and philanthropy it was admitted to be a purely business venture. It was added, however, that it might have important "sociological results."

This corporation is chartered to conduct a chain of "Morris plan" banks in various cities of the United States for the purpose of loaning money to wage-earners and other persons of small means. The promoters claim that the only security demanded is sound character and look upon the "Morris plan" banks as effective weapons against the loan shark.

Elgin R. L. Gould, president of the City and Suburban Homes Company of New York, has withdrawn from the board of directors of the corporation and with him have gone most of the men who furnished money and moral support at his instance. Among those retiring are Andrew Carnegie, Julius Rosenwald, Vincent Astor, Nicholas Murray Butler, W. D. Sloane, Mrs. J. Borden Harriman, Oscar S. Straus, Theodore P. Shonts, Edwin S. Marston and L. S. Fuller.

When the formation of the corporation was first announced last February Mr. Gould represented himself as being interested in it chiefly because of its philanthropic nature as filling the field heretofore preempted by the loan sharks. It was understood that the men named above had the same interest in it. The corporation was designed to supersede on a larger scale the Fidelity Corporation of America, which, under the management of Arthur J. Morris, had organized and operated "Morris plan" companies in fourteen cities.

Mr. Gould is the only one of those retiring who has made a public statement of his reasons for so doing. After signing the charter, which he says he did hurriedly, Mr. Gould declares that he discovered that one vote had been given



alike to each share of common and of preferred stock. Since the shares of common stock greatly outnumbered those of preferred, this arrangement, he said, would give the control of the corporation to the Morris group of financiers, who, he declared, held a majority of the common stock. Fearing that such an arrangement would lead to the running of the enterprise as a purely business venture, Mr. Gould withdrew, even after the charter had been changed to give to holders of preferred stock the right to elect one-half of the board of directors and to holders of common stock the right to elect the other half.

Clark Williams, former New York state controller and state superintendent of banks, who was elected president of the corporation, made it a matter of virtue that the corporation is to be run frankly as a business enterprise. This, he said, is necessary to give it permanence and stability. At the same time he denied that the charter provision objected to by Mr. Gould would in any way detract from the social usefulness of the corporation as a weapon against loan sharks. He admitted that the corporation, whose banks will not make loans of less than fifty dollars, would not rob the loan sharks of those who want smaller sums, but he said that it was hoped to lower the minimum in time to twenty-five.

It is the policy of the "Morris plan" banks which will operate under it to discount loans in advance; that is, if a man borrows \$100, he actually receives \$94. He is required to purchase two shares of so-called class "C" stock of the corporation as a condition to re-

ceiving the \$94. The par value of this stock is \$50 per share. He is then called upon to pay weekly installments of two dollars each on the class "C" stock purchased. The use of the interest and of an increasing amount of the principal thus gives the corporation at the end of the year what amounts to an interest rate of 12 or 15 per cent. Each borrower is required to furnish two indorsers.

Critics of the plan have raised many questions regarding its workability. They say that detailed revenue and cost statements of the companies in operation have not been made generally public. They question the legality in some states of the stock sale device by which the legal interest is greatly increased. Without this increased return, they contend, the companies cannot pay interest on capital, operating expenses and losses. They question also whether the interest return is sufficiently large, even as worked out through this device, to make the investment a thoroughly safe one until the operating costs (including an adequate investigation of the character and financial responsibility of the borrowers and their endorsers) and losses are sufficiently determined through longer experience and exact accounting of operations.

In addition to Mr. Williams, the officers of the corporation are the following: Arthur J. Morris, Raymond Dupuy, and Stephen C. Millett, vice-presidents; Charles H. Sabin, treasurer; Joseph B. Gilder, secretary; and Herbert L. Satterlee, chairman legal advisory board. One million dollars' worth of preferred stock and \$500,000 of common have, it is said, been subscribed.

FOR BETTER HEALTH SERVICE IN CONNECTICUT

A STATE-WIDE conference on public health held at Greenwich, Conn., on June 9, brought together a notable group of health authorities.

New York state was represented by State Commissioner of Health Herman M. Biggs; by C. E. A. Winslow, director Division of Publicity and Education, New York State Health Department, and by Haven Emerson, deputy commissioner of health, New York city. Pennsylvania sent her chief medical inspector, B. F. Royer. Joseph H. Townsend, secretary of the State Board of Health, C. J. Bartlett and Yandell Henderson of the Medical School of Yale and John Phillips Street of the Agricultural Experiment Station were the Connecticut representatives. These men generously gave their services to the opening of a campaign to secure a model state health department for Connecticut in place of the present machine-ridden system of health administration.

The conference was conducted by the School of Politics of the Progressive Club of Greenwich, which in a weekly class has studied the various departments of local government during the past season. This work is essentially a part of the Progressive national service, of which Mrs. William E. D. Scott, is a field secretary, as well as chairman of the committee of the Greenwich Club.

The School of Politics has issued a Bulletin on the Public Health System of the State of Connecticut and from this it appears that the authority and responsibility of the Connecticut health system are so divided that only the willingness of officials to co-operate with each other can do any good. The one link connecting the different branches of the health service with each other and with the people they are supposed to serve is the governor of the state. On the one hand there is a State Board of Health appointed by the governor and vested with power to make investigations and publish reports. On the other hand, the actual enforcement of laws in Connecticut townships is done by some 400 town health officers appointed by eight county health officials. These county officers, who must be attorneys-at-law, report annually to the state board, but they are appointed and removed by the Superior Court and paid by the comptroller of the county.

The town health officer, says the law, must be some discreet person learned in medical and sanitary science. It does not state that he must be a practising or a graduate physician, or a local resident. He is absolutely dependent on the county official who can veto any measure and must approve every prosecution under the law. But the people of the town must pay the bills for this officer. The only voice that local resi-

dents have in the health service is expressed in the choice of town clerk who keeps vital statistics, and in the choice of the school committee.

Through the recent health conference the School of Politics expects to create a demand for an efficient state health board or commission and for expert town and county officials who shall be responsible both to a central authority and to the local citizens they serve. A non-partisan state committee on reorganization of the public health laws and a board of publicity and education are about to be appointed.

WASHINGTON SCHOOLHOUSES FOR THE PEOPLE

THE WIDER use of the school plant in the national capital is practically assured. The bill introduced in the Senate on February 2, by Senator Hollis, of New Hampshire, was passed on April 29, and introduced in the House, by request, on the following day by Representative Johnson, of Kentucky, chairman of the Committee on the District of Columbia.

The bill provides for the use of the public-school buildings and grounds by pupils of the public schools, other children, and adults for supplementary educational purposes, civic meetings for the free discussion of public questions, social centers, centers of recreation, playgrounds, and for free public library branches, as well during the school year as during vacation.

The bill rested with a sub-committee, of which Representative Claypool, of Ohio, was chairman, until June 25, when it was reported favorably to the whole District committee. It received unanimous support in the subcommittee.

When hearings on the bill are held in the full District committee, considerable interest will center in the appearance of Margaret Wilson in advocacy of the measure. This is perhaps the first time that a daughter of the President of the United States has appeared before a Congressional committee in support of legislation. Both President Wilson and his daughter are interested in the wider-use-of-the-school movement.

When the Monday Evening Club brought Edward J. Ward, adviser in civic and social center development, University of Wisconsin, to Washington last winter to tell of his experiences as a pioneer in the movement in Rochester, Miss Wilson spoke from the same platform. Addresses were also made by Senator Hollis, who introduced the bill in the Senate and by Representative Crosser, of Ohio. Besides Miss Wilson, others to appear at the hearings on the bill in the District committee are Mrs. Henry T. Rainey, wife of the Illinois congressman, John B. Colpoys, secretary of the Central Labor Union of Washington, and representatives of the Monday Evening Club.

APPLYING STANDARDS TO MOTION PICTURE FILMS —BY ORRIN G. COCKS

A revised pamphlet on the standards and policies of the National Board of Censorship of Motion Pictures may be had free of the board at 70 Fifth avenue, New York. It is here summarized by Mr. Cocks, who has recently become advisory secretary following volunteer service on the general and advisory committees of the board. For some years he was secretary of the Laity League for Social Service in New York city.

The actual criticism of pictures continues under the direction of W. D. McGuire, Jr. John Collier, general secretary and organizer of the board, retains his interest in a voluntary capacity.—Ed.]

CONTROL OVER motion pictures has recently aroused widespread public discussion. Official censorship has been established in four states and many cities and a bill is pending in Congress to create a federal motion picture commission for licensing films. Especial interest therefore attaches to a statement recently issued by the National Board of Censorship of Motion Pictures giving its present policy and standards of judgment.

The board is a voluntary self-governing organization working with the manufacturers and importers of motion pictures and in the interests of the public. It was formed by the People's Institute of New York. No member is engaged in any branch of the motion picture business. The thirty-three members of the general committee speak as skilled social workers, representing such agencies as the Y. M. C. A., Charity Organization Society, Children's Aid Association, the churches, settlements, women's clubs, Young Women's Christian Association and People's Institute.

The 105 members of the carefully selected censoring committee drawn from the most intelligent groups in New York volunteer their services. The board at present views from 150 to 185 film subjects a week covering 95 per cent of the industry. These pictures are daily seen by about 8,000,000 people in 18,000 motion picture houses in the United States. Last year 53 film subjects were condemned and parts were eliminated from 401.

The total cost of negatives and copies kept off the American market was more than \$582,000. The board sends out weekly a bulletin of all the pictures passed for the week with or without parts eliminated and those which have been condemned. These bulletins go to some 400 city authorities, social workers, local

censoring committees and interested individuals.

The board's statement of its policy and standards of judgment is an interesting attempt to crystallize in words the moral and psychological effect of this new form of recreation on the minds of people, to estimate public opinion and to criticize or exclude from the screen scenes which have dangerous effects.

Few people realize the scope and complexity of such criticism. Laws have always lagged behind public opinion and there has been startling disagreement on basic ethical principles. The members of the National Board recognize these obstacles and freely acknowledge that they are open to error. Their methods, however, are sound. They know the motion picture business. They have actual knowledge of the effects of the pictures on people of different classes and in different parts of the country. They seek advice from people skilled in a part or the whole of the field of life.

It realizes that pictures stimulating the senses require particular study from the point of view of the adolescent. It, therefore, has adopted standards "curtailing prolonged love scenes which are ardent beyond the strict requirements of the dramatic situation. It believes that it is one of the purposes of censorship to keep out of the mire the great experiences of humanity so that they may not be cheapened to the extent of losing their significance." The board restricts also very carefully the display of clothing and the person in ways to arouse the imagination and suggest immorality and indecency. It also enforces strictly the exclusion of those forms of close dancing which have the same sensuous appeal.

A bewildering variety of crimes against person and property requires careful treatment. "The portrayal of crime should not degenerate into pandering to a morbid appetite but should seek ends which are legitimate for the drama." The board insists that punishment naturally and fatally follows crime and that an adequate dramatic motive for committing a crime is always necessary to warrant picturing it. Gruesome and suggestive details are excluded.

Regarding violence the board states, "The actual deeds of violence need to be treated with the greatest discretion in motion pictures and the producer should remember that he is not writing a detailed exposition of the crime but is telling a dramatic story which most often does not need such detail but merely enough to make clear what has happened."

"The board critically examines films presenting various forms of sex lapses, for those effects on audiences which arouse rather than minimize passion,

which tend to perpetuate the double standard of morality, which reveal easy ways of gratifying desire and of making money in the 'trade' or which simply indicate the weakness of humanity or recite the dreary detail of the lives of 'prostitutes.' The board gives its support to those subjects and films which present facts in a sincere, dramatic way leading to repression or to the removal of causes of commercial or sub-rosa prostitution.

"There is a place on the screen of the motion picture theater for presentations which unquestionably indicate the causes, the dangers and the effects of sexual misconduct. Those subjects dealing with the social evil, will therefore be supported by the National Board of Censorship which arouse fear in the minds of both sexes, which develop a hatred on the part of the audience of this ancient evil, which stimulate efforts to rescue the prostitute, and which indicate sensible and workable methods of repression or suppression."

The board deals severely with films which picture maniacs, on the ground that they unduly harass the emotions of the normal person and seldom serve a real dramatic purpose. The insane character who is not a maniac is less liable to be eliminated from a picture, though if the presentation of such character be

unduly unwholesome or unpleasant, it is challenged.

The board recognizes the need of popular education as to extent and dangerous effects of habit-forming drugs and believes that motion pictures may be a medium for this purpose. But it is opposed to the portrayal of the alluring, the gruesome and suggestive, and will allow only those scenes which are dramatically necessary to point the moral. It also opposes those methods of using such drugs as would stimulate curiosity and experimentation. It will critically scan any suggestions of easy methods of obtaining such drugs.

It will support those subjects presented in a dignified, sincere and dramatic way which will enlighten and arouse the public to the enactment and enforcement of laws tending to the repression or prevention of illegal or immoral use or sale.

Though located in New York as being the headquarters of the motion picture industry for the distribution of film, the National Board does not accept as a basis of criticism the standards of the New York stage or of its complicated, liberal and abnormal life.

It seeks constantly the point of view of typical Americans and attempts to write this judgment into its standards.

PROGRESS IN PRISON REFORM IN MASSACHUSETTS— BY GEORGE LUTHER CADY

PASTOR, PILGRIM CONGREGATIONAL CHURCH, DORCHESTER

IT IS ALTOGETHER unlikely that the rest of the United States share in the hallucination general in Massachusetts that that state leads in all good reforms. Local residence even for a short while reveals the fact that such is the state of mind in and around the Hub. But this complacency received a severe jolt a few years ago when Governor Foss told what he thought of prison conditions in the state.

In the care of younger offenders Massachusetts is well abreast of the times, but in prisons for older criminals, it would be hard to find things more antiquated in the northern states at least. For three years the governor repeated his attack and at last accomplished the retirement of the chairman of the prison commission who had persistently blocked reform measures. Now the warden of the state prison is retiring so that light may have a chance to break through.

Frank L. Randall, a lawyer and former prison warden from Minnesota who has had long experience in handling prison reform problems, is the new chairman of the Prison Commission. He has outlined a splendid program and is working vigorously to put it into effect by endeavoring to put through the following measures:

A bill providing for indeterminate sentence. At present, contrary to widespread impression Massachusetts has no indeterminate sentence law. The court fixes a maximum and minimum sentence, and release is impossible until a prisoner has served at least $2\frac{1}{2}$ years of his sentence, nor is a prisoner eligible for parole until two-thirds of his minimum has expired.

A bill to allow the judge to appoint counsel for indigent defendants charged with felony. At present only those charged with a capital crime can have advantage of such counsel.

A bill providing that the courts may proceed to sentence a prisoner who has acknowledged his guilt without awaiting indictment by the grand jury.

A bill providing that a prisoner on parole from the state prison may voluntarily return thereto and at his written request be admitted and retained there. Under existing laws he may have no other place of refuge in case of sickness or misfortune. A paroled prisoner ought not to have to commit another crime in order to get needed protection from the state.

A bill granting to prisoners an allowance of a sum not exceeding \$4 a month to be paid from the treasury of the state. This will enable a prisoner to provide himself with a few of the things he needs or to help his family a little. It also affords prison authorities a disci-

plinary measure since it may be withdrawn for misconduct.

A bill putting all jails and houses of correction under the management of the Prison Commission, instead of under the fourteen county boards as at present.

The main purpose of this last measure is to utilize county jails for minor offenders only. The average county jail is bad because of conditions found there and also because it forms a link in the "county ring" system we are trying to break up. There are splendid exceptions to this average in Massachusetts as at Plymouth but it is an anomalous condition when a large share of the prisoners of the state are under no central authority.

The bill providing \$4 a month to prisoners is of splendid purpose but one can only wonder what our children will say fifty years hence when they read that only \$4 was asked for these men who either are or ought to be at work during regular working hours and ought to be equally productive with men on the outside. If we could get the public to see that if we changed our present "penal servitude" for proper rewards we would gain not only in discipline but we should be nearer what the future in all conscience will demand.

It is a grievous fact that, after some years of agitation and with the services of Mr. Randall, Massachusetts must yet close the year with little accomplished.

No fundamental principle of reform recommended by the commission has been recognized. An act providing for the appointment of women police officers has been secured, also one permitting county sheriffs to employ prisoners on highways and in redeeming waste land.

To take the place of most of the bills now before the Legislature, a bill is being drawn up providing for a special investigation of the whole problem of the state's prisons that a full and co-ordinate plan may be presented to the next general session of the Legislature. It is doubtful if the investigation will result in anything but the passing of just such acts as were recommended but it may open the eyes of the people to the shameful conditions in their state prisons.

The great need of prison reform in Massachusetts is in the direction of classification both of prisoners and prisons. The crowning effort should be the attainment of such a state farm as that at Witzwil in Switzerland. What would the people of Massachusetts say if one day they awoke to behold that their prison was paying the state 4 per cent on the investment instead of calling for \$179,000 annually for maintenance? More than that, what would they say when told that the prisoners were paid a daily wage besides? This latter, as an entering wedge is advantageous, and perhaps before a great while such a law may be enacted.

INDUSTRY

THE PATERSON SILK MILL STRIKE A YEAR AFTER— BY JOHN A. FITCH

THE HEARING was a community hearing—that of the Federal Industrial Relations Commission at Paterson last week. A full year after the strike, the local men who had borne the brunt of the conflict told, one after another, how it lay in their minds. And although a full year had passed since the strike was at white heat, and they gave their testimony quietly, like characters in a rehearsal, the commission got nearer to some of the tense issues entering into the social unrest than at any time since its hearings began. Issues were brought out which men had been willing to go to jail for—wholesale; or to send their fellows to jail for—wholesale. There were 2,238 arrests during the twenty-two weeks of the strike, Police Captain McBride told the commission. Three hundred cases went to the Grand Jury; more than 100 served jail sentences.

Two former strikers, members of the I. W. W., testified and two silk manufacturers, and after them two organizers of the United Textile Workers, an organization affiliated with the American Federation of Labor. There were two editors among the witnesses. One of them was arrested during the course of the strike and jailed for criticizing the police. The other has been a resident of Paterson less than three years, and edits a paper owned by a resident of New York. He attacked the outside leaders of the strike and said editorially that if there were no law in the community to drive them out, they ought to be driven out anyway. He was neither arrested nor jailed.

The counsel for the strikers told his story, and so did the prosecuting attorney. A police captain was on the stand for over two hours explaining the attitude of the police force. After him came a ribbon weaver who had participated in the strike, a Socialist, not a member of the I. W. W. He gave the commission his views as to the causes of the strike, and the conditions that led up to it. After him came a Catholic priest who, waving economic theories aside, endorsed the testimony of the Socialist. Then came two business men, another manufacturer and finally a reporter for a local paper.

The hearing was impressive both for issues on which everyone agreed and for issues on which they differed.

There were differences of opinion over what caused the strike. That the four-loom system had much to do with it was generally agreed. Former Mayor McBride said, however, that it was caused by low wages and bad conditions. The weavers who testified insisted that this last was the case, and Father Stein

Probing the Causes of Unrest

VII

The seventh of a series of interpretations of the hearing before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission by a staff representative of The Survey.



agreed with them. On the other hand the employers, the business men and the police were inclined to lay all the trouble on the "outside agitators."

The second names of the officials—prosecutor, mayor and policemen, of manufacturer and craft-unionist, were those of the older immigration. There was an undercurrent of feeling in what they said that if the newer immigration of Paterson—the Italians and Jews—were of a higher order, matters could have been more readily adjusted. The American Federation of Labor organizers declared that the Paterson workers are too unstable to be organized into conservative unions. They are too impatient, and when an organizer appears they want to strike first of all. A resident declared that the kind of immigrants who are now coming to this country are not capable of understanding American principles of liberty. They cannot understand the difference, he said, between liberty and license. On all sides there was a distinct though possibly somewhat unconscious attitude of superiority which stood out as much as elsewhere in the attitude of the police.

On one point employers and employees agreed. The former testified that they are handicapped by competition with Pennsylvania, where lower wages and longer hours prevail than in New Jersey. Until the Pennsylvania standard is raised, conditions cannot, they believe, be materially improved in Paterson. So serious did this matter appear to them that they were even ready to urge compulsory standardization through a federal board. Henry Doherty, Jr., a partner in the Doherty firm which operates the largest silk mill in Paterson, said that he and his father were both in favor of a government commission to

regulate wages and hours in the silk industry. On this question they stood squarely on the same platform with Louis Magnet, the Socialist, and, in effect with the I. W. W. leaders, whose remedy lay in organizing the workers everywhere and so establishing uniformity the country over.

Standing out above every other question as the hearing progressed was the subject of violation of law. Henry Marelli, counsel for the strikers, reviewed the history of the strike as it came to his attention in his professional capacity. More than 1,800 cases were handled by his firm from Recorders' Court to the Supreme Court of the state. He declared that it was a remarkable peaceful strike. So did Edward Zuercher, secretary of the I. W. W. local.

"There were 25,000 people on strike," he said. "If that number of clergymen were conducting a strike and were subject to the condition that we have faced there would have been as much or more violence." He severely arraigned the police for their activities.

Alexander Scott, who was editor of the Paterson *Issue*, a Socialist paper, told of getting out a special issue three days after the strike began, in which he criticized the police and accused them of taking orders from the silk manufacturers. For this he was arrested, and indicted for "hostility to government" under the statute enacted after the assassination of William McKinley. At the same time 5,000 copies of his paper were confiscated, without a warrant, by officers under the direction as he said of the chief of police.

That Scott was sentenced in the County Court to serve from one to fifteen years on the charge of hostility to government and that he was released when the Supreme Court reversed the decision of the lower court, is well known to *SURVEY* readers. An indictment against him for criminal libel against the police is still pending.

Marelli declared that the figures of arrest were significant in themselves of the attitude of the local government toward the strikers, since out of the 2,238 arrests made, but 300 indictments were found, and jail sentences were served by but 100 men. A number of the cases were appealed to higher courts, and thus far all but one of these appeals have been sustained. He explained further that on account of the hostility of the local papers, it became necessary to get an order from the court directing that jurors be impanelled from outside the county. Without outside juries, he said, acquittals were impossible.

Prosecutor Michael Dunn defended the authorities and cited instances of the stoning of houses and the placing of bombs. Police Captain McBride gave

similar testimony. Prominent citizens, including Father Stein, spoke of the actions of the police in terms of praise.

It is impossible here to weigh and analyze the testimony—to go back of it and examine the recorded evidence in order to determine just how violent were the strikers, and how violent the police. It is enough that it became clear that a new definition is needed of the word "violence." Adolph Lessig, a striker in 1913, and now an officer of the I. W. W., testified that he favored destruction of property if such action would help the workers in the struggle to improve their condition. His was a clear advocacy of violence. It was not a new position, but the one which more than anything else has called down upon the I. W. W. the condemnations of the law-abiding.

A new angle was given to the situation when John W. Ferguson and James M. Cooke, both prominent business men, both active in the civic life of the community, and directors of the Charity Organization Society, testified that they believed a year ago, and they believe now, that the I. W. W. leaders should

have been compelled to leave the city. Neither of them would have organized a mob to drive them out, but they held that the police should have done so, or should have met them at the train and compelled them to leave the city on the next outgoing train.

This testimony led to considerable cross-examination, in which Mr. Cooke was willing to admit that the police, in order to do this, would have to violate their oaths of office. But it is not a new thing, he argued, to violate an oath of office. The officials of the American colonies serving under the British crown violated their oaths of office when they took up arms against England. There are times when it becomes necessary to commit what he called a "technical violation of the law." Both made it clear that this should not be done unless the interests of the community clearly demanded some such extra-legal action. The interests of the community, they were convinced, did demand it in 1913. They believed that most of the trouble would have been avoided by such action.

With such testimony written into the record, the old division of the commu-

nity into the law-abiding and the lawless became sadly jumbled. Here were men on both sides who advocated breaking the law—each for his own reasons; each with his own sanctions. Lessig advocated breaking the laws of property rights when that best serves the interests of the workers. Ferguson and Cooke advocated breaking the laws of personal liberty when that best serves the interests of the community. All three were for employing force, if necessary, to accomplish their ends.

Here, then, perhaps as never before at a public hearing, was laid bare the present-day relation of the law to industrial stress. With such disparity between the holdings of petty courts and higher tribunals, and with such a clear-cut emergence of class views as to legal rights worth respecting, the Federal Commission has before it one of its greatest problems. The Paterson hearings were in a sense a challenge to the commission to put its largest resources, and those of a great profession, to work at such a constructive analysis as will help bring coherence to judicial decisions and clarity to public thought.

Testimony at Paterson Regarding Violence

ADOLPH LESSIG
I. W. W. Leader

Mr. Thompson: If in your opinion or if in the opinion of your organization a strike could be won by blowing up a mill, would it be the policy of your organization so far as it has announced its policy to do it or advocate it?

Mr. Lessig: Well, I believe that would just depend on that situation and I believe it would be dealt with at the time.

Mr. Thompson: Well, assuming that that would intimidate or in any other way bring about the settlement of the strike favorable to your people, would you then advocate it?

Mr. Lessig: Well, we probably would not hesitate to pursue that course then.

Mr. Thompson: Where you have a grievance and it has not been adjusted to your satisfaction, is it a part of the policy of your organization to do slow work and lessen production? Is it a part of your policy to make poorer goods, or try to destroy the goods in the making?

Mr. Lessig: Well, we do not make any hesitancy sometimes to say those things in order to gain our demands. We have been frank enough to admit it.

JOHN L. MATTHEWS
Editor Paterson Press

Mr. Thompson: Now, I will read you very briefly some extracts from articles that appeared in your paper and ask you whether you can recall or whether they probably did appear.

[Here follows a dispatch from Los Angeles describing methods employed in Los Angeles and San Diego to get rid of the I. W. W.]

Mr. Thompson: Now, Mr. Matthews, I ask you to state for the benefit of the Commission the reason for these articles and your views as to their necessity—the conditions which caused them to be punished?

Mr. Matthews: Well, we felt that the I. W. W. was a real menace to the community, a material menace, as afterward developed. This strike cost Paterson probably \$18,000,000. It is pretty hard to compute it, but I think that is a very conservative estimate. In reciting what took place in Los Angeles we were simply repeating a matter of record and we published it because we felt that it had a bearing on the situation here. Los Angeles and other cities had experiences with the I. W. W. They handled the situation in a way that seemed to be satisfactory to the people of those cities, and we felt that possibly the same kind of treatment here would be acceptable and legal, decent and orderly, and satisfactory to the people generally.

JOHN W. FERGUSON
Contractor

Chairman Walsh: Mr. Ferguson, apparently from what you have said here the feeling had become very intense here on both sides, had it not, as the strike progressed?

Mr. Ferguson: It was very strong. It was strong among those who were not directly interested in this trouble, but who were interested to maintain the good name and character of this city without having a disturbance and having the militia coming here, and all that sort of thing, which would only add to the notoriety which we had had in the past.

Chairman Walsh: And you probably, in any expressions you made, gave forth the sentiment of the innocent by-standers, as it were—the business men and so on?

Mr. Ferguson: I think so.

Chairman Walsh: And so deep-seated had the feeling become that you are willing to say that these outsiders should be dispersed or gotten away by means illegal or otherwise?

Mr. Ferguson: Well, I would hardly say illegal, because I believe that legal means are means taken by the authorities. That is what we were advocating. That is what I meant. It was not that I would personally form a vigilance committee and go out and misuse these people, but I believed that the city authorities should take means perhaps beyond the technical legal point to get rid of them. I thought that would be justified.

REDUCING LABOR COSTS BY SHORTENING THE WORK DAY—BY HARRY FRANKLIN PORTER,

LABOR CLAMORS for a shorter work-day; employers generally oppose it. The average manager thinks he sees an inescapable relation between shorter hours and higher costs. Off-hand, this view seems to be logical, but experience is fast proving that the reverse is quite as likely to be true. Paradoxical though it may seem, cost cutting and hour shortening frequently go together, even as do cost cutting and wage raising. All depends on the method of making the change.

Arbitrarily to shorten hours without providing for the more effective use of the reduced period will be more than likely to curtail production, hence swell costs in proportion. But to make quantity of output a condition of the shorter work period stimulates activity all along the line.

As a matter of fact, the problem, in the final analysis, is one purely of economics. The desideratum is a maximum of quality output per man each working day. So if man-efficiency is raised to the highest practical pitch, the hours of labor necessarily must be reduced to the point where the average man can maintain indefinitely the established level without injury to himself. Hence the basis for determining number of hours is strictly dependent on the character of use of each of them, and long hours, if they entail a low level of labor efficiency, are as inimical to the interests of the manufacturer as they are irksome to the workman. The manufacturer has only to see this—the vital relation between man-effectiveness and duration of the working period, and of his own accord he shortens hours to the point where he feels he is getting the best and fullest effort from each man every moment of the time. For he knows that the net result will be not less but more output, not higher but lower costs.

Here are the results in one instance—a Youngstown steel mill. Unusually long hours always have been, and to a considerable extent, still are customary in this industry, the nature of which requires continuous production. The superintendent of this plant, however, was convinced that two shifts of twelve hours each were not only inhuman but uneconomical. So firm in his belief was he that favorable results would follow the shortening of the hours to eight, with three shifts to the day, that the management finally consented, with much misgiving, to a trial. Wages were to remain the same. That is, the men were to receive the same pay for eight hours as previously they had received for twelve. In return, the men were to maintain the same production. This they did from the start and presently they began to show an increasing production. To make a long story short, the final result was an increase in the shift output of fifty per cent and in the daily output of one hundred and twenty-five per cent. That is, under the new arrangement the average production had been forty thousand pounds a shift, or eighty thousand pounds a day of

THE SURVEY published earlier this year three articles by manufacturers, discussing the change to an eight-hour shift in continuous industries (January 3 and May 23, 1914). Mr. Porter is a consultant in factory management and a contributing editor of *Factory*, and cites here several instances to show that a shorter work-day is practical as well as humane.—E.D.

twenty-four hours. With eight-hour shifts, this increased to sixty thousand pounds or a total from sun to sun of one hundred and eighty thousand pounds.

In Granite City, too, some of the steel plants have demonstrated, to the satisfaction of their officials, that in continuous processes three eight-hour as against two twelve-hour shifts pay. One plant found that the reduction in waste and inefficiency due to negligence and fatigue more than outweighed the twenty per cent addition to the payroll of the men affected. In another plant, the change to eight-hour shifts was accompanied by an increase of twenty-two per cent in the hourly rate of the men, but a decrease in the total earnings of twenty per cent. The management was dubious of the results. But when the proposal was put up to the men, it met with their enthusiastic and unanimous endorsement.

At first some of the officials were fearful lest the men take advantage of the extra hours to engage in money-making side pursuits, but this did not prove to be the case and there has been very little bad use made of the leisure. "Steel work is so strenuous," declared the president of one of the companies, "that any man who took to dissipation would be unable to keep up his efficiency even through the eight-hour shift. The fact that we do not have to discharge any of them on this account shows in itself that the time is not badly spent."

Congressman, now Secretary of Commerce, Redfield, in a speech before the House of Representatives, in 1911, told of an experiment that took place in the great shipbuilding yards of William Denny & Sons. This firm agreed with their men that they would try the eight-hour day for a year, at the end of which time, if the results showed no disadvantages to costs the eight-hour day would be retained. Otherwise the men agreed to go back to the nine-hour day. The result was the retention of the eight-hour day, because it was found to have paid.

All of which goes to show that there is an element in the question of reducing the hours of work which offhand does not appear. Farsighted managers are sensing this element and they are not waiting either for labor organizations or legislatures to compel them to action, but of their own accord they are declaring their independence of tradition and short-

ening the hours to the point where they have reason to believe they are getting the best results. Declared a Cleveland garment manufacturer, whose plant is in the forefront in matters of efficiency: "It is our aim always to be ahead both of the law and the demands of labor. Our hours are now less than the maximum prescribed by the State, and we intend shortly to reduce them still further. Why? Because we watch our people very closely and if we detect signs of over-exertion, we investigate the cause. Our organization is keyed up to the top pitch and we would not be able to maintain this level if we tolerated for a moment any conditions that detracted from their efficiency. So if we find our people can't hold the pace throughout the present number of hours, we shorten the period to the point where they can."

At the present time the number of hours worked weekly in this plant is fifty, as against a prescribed maximum for women of fifty-four, and the number contemplated is forty-eight. This by happy coincidence is the number recommended by Edward Cadbury, the English manufacturer who is so widely celebrated for his experiments in industrial efficiency.

In line also is the experience of a middle-western enameled ironware works. Like many processes in the steel industry, the operation of enameling must be practically continuous. In this particular plant the two twelve-hour shift plan long has been supplanted by the three eight-hour one.

Wages have not decreased; on the contrary, as the efficiency both of men and equipment have increased, wages steadily have risen until now it is by no means uncommon for an enameler to earn seventy-five dollars to ninety dollars a month. Output, too, has gone up. For example, under the 12-hour schedule, two men working together would enamel eight to ten bath tubs in a day; now the same men turn them out at the rate of two an hour or sixteen in eight hours. Nor are the men obliged to work continuously, but have fully one-third of the time for resting. Improvements in the appliances and methods of handling are planned which experiment has demonstrated will enable a pair of men to enamel twenty-four to thirty bath tubs in eight hours. But their rest time is cut into and the trials so far made indicate that in order to enable the men to hold the pace, it probably will be necessary to shorten the shifts still further to six hours each. Four tubs an hour, it is then expected, will prove a practical standard. As under the new plan a pair of enamellers keep two furnaces going—a preheating and a finishing chamber—this means a total of forty-eight tubs in twenty-four hours for each furnace as contrasted with sixteen to twenty under the original bi-shift plan. The total number of operatives will remain the same—that is, four to the single furnace in twenty-four hours.

It would be hard to find an instance which shows more plainly than this the vital connection between large production and low manufacturing costs, on the one hand, and on the other short hours and high wages.

CHURCH and COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

THE UNEMPLOYED AND THE CHURCHES: A REPLY —BY JOHN A. RYAN ST. PAUL SEMINARY, ST. PAUL, MINN.

THE SURVEY of April 25 contains a somewhat remarkable argument on this topic from the pen of the Rev. John Haynes Holmes. I should like to examine it from a different point of view.

Dr. Holmes intimates that Tannenbaum performed a useful service, inasmuch as his invasion of the churches has forced ninety million persons to think hard about the problem of unemployment.

Does mere thinking about a problem necessarily promote its solution? Suppose that the forces which have aroused the thinking convey false impressions, and suggest wrong conclusions. A prominent New York Socialist declared a few weeks ago (in a letter to the *Milwaukee Leader*) that all the educative and constructive efforts of his comrades in that city with regard to the unemployment problem had been neutralized by the performances of Tannenbaum and associates. The excesses of the latter had provoked very many persons to the conclusion that the majority of the unemployed were mere trouble-makers and anarchists. It is scarcely to be doubted that more public sympathy has been alienated than attracted. The "hard thinking" evoked by Tannenbaum's conduct has apparently received a wrong and anti-social direction.

Dr. Holmes maintains that the churches should be the refuge of all those who find or even think themselves in distress.

The churches always have taken this position. It is safe to say that on the very night when Tannenbaum's "army" invaded St. Alphonsus's, more than an equal number of men were sheltered at the expense of the churches of New York. The question is not whether the churches may properly be called upon to relieve this particular form of distress, but whether they may reasonably be required to answer favorably an appeal for assistance in the particular circumstances surrounding the I. W. W. invasion.

Dr. Holmes thinks that the churches should have so responded. He bases his opinion on the words of Christ: "Give to him that asketh of thee;" and on a quotation from the writings of Edward T. Devine.

Surely these words of Christ are not to be understood without qualification. If they are, they mean that the professional idler must not be rejected when he demands continuous support from the hard working father of a family. Evidently Christ had in mind the genuinely needy, not impostors.

The pertinent and decisive sentence from the words of Mr. Devine is: "If, however, they [the applicants for relief] are not mistaken about the fact [that their need is genuine], and have come to an appropriate place to ask for it, nothing should be taken for granted except the need which is revealed by the application." But Dr. Holmes thinks that this statement authorizes his own assertion that "the churches had no right to assume anything as true except the need for aid expressed by the application. . . ."

Mr. Devine speaks of the need that is "revealed;" Dr. Holmes makes it the need that is "expressed." In other words, he would have the churches accept as true the representations made by the applicants themselves, and forthwith assume that the alleged need is genuine. I do not believe that the most unreasoning enemy of scientific charity has ever made such a sweeping statement in favor of indiscriminate giving. Among professional "panhandlers" the clergy have the reputation of being the "easiest marks" to be found anywhere. Dr. Holmes would have them set a still higher standard of childlike faith and credulity.

In the particular case that we are discussing, the "expressed" and alleged need was not genuine, and it was put forth in notoriously bad faith. Tannenbaum and his followers could have obtained from the municipal lodging houses better sleeping accommodations than are within the gift of churches, softer beds than the pews of churches. One of the conditions laid down by Mr. Devine in the passage quoted by Dr. Holmes is that the applicants for relief should come to "an appropriate place." A church is decidedly not the appropriate place for five hundred men to sleep, when they can get better quarters elsewhere. And it would be decidedly unreasonable to suppose that any church in ordinary circumstances should pay for the lodging of that many men at a hotel, so long as the city is discharging its responsibility in the situation.

Dr. Holmes reproves the attitude of one hundred and eighty out of two hundred ministers who based their opposition to the I. W. W. performances on the ground that the men were organized, and demanded instead of requesting assistance.

Of course, the mere fact that the applicants came in a large and united group would not have been a sufficient reason for turning them away. On the other hand, Dr. Holmes' attempt to find a parallel between a refusal for such

a reason and the refusal of some employers to recognize labor organizations, is arbitrary, futile, and far-fetched. Possibly the first ground of refusal given by the ministers is really reducible to the second. Possibly they all meant that they would not respond favorably to demands and threats, when the proprieties of the situation required a respectful request. Undoubtedly they were right.

What good to society or to the applicants themselves could come from acceding to and encouraging such perverse conduct? If, indeed, the men were in real distress, had no other place to go for the night, their wants should have been relieved, no matter how insolent their bearing. So much is dictated by Christian charity. But the evidence in the case shows that Tannenbaum and his followers were in no such plight, that they could have been more effectually and more appropriately cared for elsewhere, and that their avowed aim was to harry and if possible discredit the churches, to "put the churches in bad." Again I ask, what service to the men themselves, to humanity, to society, to truth, or to sound thinking could have been rendered by weakly yielding to such perverse and dishonest conduct?

Dr. Holmes mentions as the climax of the clergy's offending, the fact that "the priests of St. Alphonsus's turned the men over to the police, and charged them with rioting and disorder."

And the priests were right. The pews of a church are not a proper place for sleeping on, when better provisions are available elsewhere. Nor is it reasonable to assume that the parishioners of St. Alphonsus (who are mainly of the working class) should pay for putting up five hundred men at a hotel or lodging house in these circumstances. When a large part of the invaders refused to leave the church, and to relieve the fright of the worshippers whom they had disturbed, the police very properly arrested them. Should the priests and the police have let them stay, or have merely coaxed them out, thus encouraging them to repeat their program of bad faith and disorder elsewhere?

As a result of the action taken by the police, the number of pestiferous I. W. W. disturbers has been reduced by at least one, and the invasion of churches has ceased. This is a clear gain, not only for public order, but for clear thinking and constructive efforts with regard to the problem of unemployment.

I am well aware that Tannenbaum and his associates denied in court the disorderly acts of which they were found guilty; but I am not so simple minded as to set a higher value on their

veracity in these circumstances than on that of the priests of St. Alphonsus and the police, especially when I recall that the accused leaders belong to an organization which openly rejects all the principles of what it calls "capitalist morality," including the prohibition of lying.

Dr. Holmes contends that the problem of unemployment is too big to be solved by the churches, and that it must be met by society, particularly by constructive methods of prevention.

In this he is certainly correct. It is not the business of the churches to provide specific measures for the solution of this or any other social problem. All that they can do, all that they should be asked to do, is to enunciate and advocate in concrete terms the principles of justice and charity upon which the solution must be based. To devise and set up effective remedial institutions is the proper task of civil society. Were the churches to shelter every unemployed "army" that applied to them they would at best merely relieve the distress of certain individuals; at the worst, and in fact, their action would confuse the situation, and delay the adoption of constructive measures. The churches must, indeed, "speak the social message and initiate the work of social reconstruction,"—but only by preaching and urging the appropriate principles of Christian justice and charity, by bringing home in specific language to society and to individuals their obligations to set up efficient institutions, not by attempting to do the work that belongs to other social agencies.

One of the most insidious obstacles to effective social reform is the presence and activity among us of revolutionary groups and movements. The I. W. W., with its open repudiation of the moral law, its advocacy of brute force, its violent methods, and its anarchistic aims, attracts and misleads many well meaning persons who might otherwise aid in bringing about rational and constructive measures of reform.

Organizations of this sort are not only a constant menace to public order and civilization, but are instrumental in casting discredit upon the whole social reform movement. For one person whose interest in social betterment is aroused by the spectacular and violent performances of these groups, it is safe to say that one hundred are provoked to the hasty conclusion that, after all, only perverse and anarchistic-minded men have any great fault to find with things as they are. The net result is that the social forces enlisted on the side of rational and feasible reform are notably less than they would have been had the I. W. W., and kindred agencies, refrained from muddling and muddying the situation.

Yet, not a few men and women of authority and influence who believe neither in the methods nor the aims of such organizations, do not hesitate to condone and even encourage their misguided activities. The theory of these influential persons seems to be that any group of men who strive for social betterment ought to be supported because they mean well! The assassins of Lin-

coln, Garfield and McKinley may have meant well; the indiscriminate givers to charity seekers mean well. It would seem that the principles of common sense which are accepted in the fields of politics and relief-giving have not yet been established in the domain of social reform.

The sum of the matter is that genuine and lasting social betterment can be accomplished only by rational methods and movements; that all other movements are definite hindrances, veritable red herrings drawn across the path of progress; that every sane reformer should make it a part of his program to endeavor by all legitimate means to eliminate these disconcerting and obstructive revolutionary agencies; that when the leaders of the latter make themselves liable to criminal prosecution, they should receive the full measure of legal punishment, not maudlin and irrational sympathy.

Sympathy is a fine quality, but only when subject to reason. It can be made an effective instrument of social betterment, but only as an ally of the colder processes of the intellect. It is not a safe substitute for careful analysis of facts, rigid distinction between appearance and reality, or reasoned judgments. After all, the universe is based on reason, not on emotion. I yield to no person in my detestation of the manifold social evils of our time, including that of unemployment, nor in my desire for constructive and permanent social solutions; but I expect to find these solutions along the road of reason and experience, not along the road of indignation, enthusiasm, or sympathy.

PRESBYTERIAN GENERAL ASSEMBLY AND SOCIAL QUESTIONS—BY HENRY SEYMOUR BROWN

PASTOR, LAKE VIEW PRESBYTERIAN CHURCH, CHICAGO

THE MOST enthusiastic applause given by the General Assembly of the Presbyterian Church, meeting in Chicago, was given to Edgar P. Hill's eloquent defense of the Home Board's Departments of Immigration, Social Service and Country Life.

Speaking of the criticism of Charles Stelzle's work as giving too much attention to union men and leaning too much to Socialism, thus making some weakly contributors withdraw their support, Dr. Hill said: "As for myself, I would rather lose a few thousand dollars given by a few supersensitive contributors, if thereby we might gain a few thousand men with good red blood in their veins." At this the assembly burst into applause.

Again there was applause when he said that the Department of Church and Country Life manifested a "stroke of

genius in approaching the subject from the economic side. The head of that department has created a literature on the subject which is highly prized the continent over. Recently when a representative of the Department of Church and Country Life visited McCormick Seminary and placed before the young men certain rural fields accurately investigated and surveyed, thirty-three of these young men volunteered for the work. One hundred Presbyteries have asked that this work go on. I wish there might be some decision of this body on this work." Here again the assembly broke into applause.

Dr. Hill waited, and then turning to the moderator said, "I think that is sufficient." This incident perhaps best interprets the spirit of this assembly and its action in unanimously adopting without debate the reorganization scheme of the Home Board as submitted by the committee.

In answer to a question from the floor, it was expressly stated by the chairman that the work of the Department of Church and Country Life would be continued under one of the four co-ordinate departments of the reorganized Home Board which would be known as the Department of Immigration and Social Service. It will deal with the special problems centering in the country and the city and will magnify the relations of the gospel to all the questions bearing upon social righteousness and moral and spiritual progress.

The assembly put itself on record as favoring a federal divorce law. This action was preferred to the suggestion of the Committee on Christian Life and Work that the assembly endeavor to bring about in every state the requirement of two years' residence before application, and one year's lapse after the decree before it shall take effect, and that any citizen moving into another state to secure a divorce or remarriage contrary to the law of his own state and then returning shall have his divorce or remarriage declared null and void.

[Continued on page 354.]

DUTIES OF PRESBYTERIANS EMPHASIZED BY THE ASSEMBLY

Every individual should feel responsible not only for those social wrongs to which he may be a contributing cause, but for those which, by his prayers and efforts, he could assist in abolishing.

The duty of Christian citizens to observe those principles of our religion which require that every man do his full share of the world's work; which oppose injustice and tyranny, even when these are entrenched in the usages of our civilization; which lead men to endeavor to maintain themselves in a self-respecting, God-fearing way, this self-maintenance being understood to include a fair return for labor, sufficient to support the man and his family, conditions of labor that are safe and healthy, opportunity to provide against illness and old age, and relief from labor one day in seven; which lead to movements to secure childhood against forced labor and woman against conditions degrading to womanhood.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

DAYBREAK IN NEBRASKA STATE PRISON—By GEORGE L. COOPER

THAT THE conscience of Nebraska citizens has been awakened since the event of five murders in its penal institution two years ago is unmistakably seen in the rapid strides for prison reform recently made in the state. Campaign promises were made in the fall of 1912, and with the convening of the Legislature there was a determined effort to make amends for the sins of former years, the responsibility for which did not rest upon any one pair of shoulders, but rather upon the citizens of the commonwealth itself.

The first rosy hue appeared on the horizon in the fall elections of 1912 when an amendment to the constitution was adopted, providing for a non-partisan board of control of state institutions. The members of this board were to be chosen by the governor for a term of six years and to receive a salary of \$3,000.

For warden of the state penitentiary the governor appointed W. T. Fenton, and for deputy warden, N. T. Harmon.

The greatest encouragement to prison reform in Nebraska was the generous appropriation by the Legislature of \$150,000 for a new reformatory. The farm and yards about the new building will consist of some 640 acres. With the new reformatory in operation, the biggest problem before the warden and the state board of control will be solved, that of classification. In the old structure with space at a premium, young, first-term prisoners have been forced to share the same cell with incorrigibles and even with degenerates. The site for the new reformatory has not yet been selected.

In addition to the large sums appropriated by the Legislature for buildings and repairs, an attempt was made to in a measure compensate for the five murders by appropriating \$5,000 for the death of an officer; \$5,000 for the wounding of a guard; \$7,500 for the death of a woman's husband, besides the many thousands of dollars for the militia and other expenses incurred by the death of six persons.

One of the most demoralizing influences of former years was prison traffic in drugs. Unscrupulous guards were the medium through which dope reached the inmates. Warden Fenton urged the inmates to turn over their money to his keeping. This uprooted the evil, for without money trading in drugs became unprofitable, and it served the double purpose of removing temptation from the guards as well as from the inmates. The guards chosen by the new warden have worked hand in hand with him to care for the drug victims.

A physician, receiving a salary of \$1,200, has charge of the pharmacy department and dispenses all drugs.

The better wages paid the guards secures experienced men. None of the guards receive less than the minimum wage of \$55, which formerly was as low as \$25. Credit must be given former Governor Aldrich for paving the way for increased salaries. He was instrumental in raising the wages of the guards to \$50 a month, and the deputy warden's salary from \$75 a month to \$1,250 a year. Under the new administration the salary of the warden was increased from \$1,500 to \$2,500.

One of the warden's right hand men in instituting his new policy was Deputy Warden N. T. Harmon, formerly prison chaplain, and preceding his appointment as chaplain, a minister of good standing in Nebraska.

An outstanding grievance under the old régime was the unwholesome cooking. Sworn statements as to the food were placed in the hands of Judge Lincoln Frost, to whom is due praise for investigating and bringing to light living conditions in the prison. Complaint was made that the food did not sustain the men for their work in the shops; that the prisoners were compelled to spend their own money for special cuts of meat. Consequently, a lively trade sprang up between the cooks and prisoners. A bill of fare was a thing unknown, the cook dishing up in stock form whatever came to his mind.

Following drastic changes in the

cooking, the kitchen equipment was improved. The old soup caldrons were replaced with ranges which permit of varied processes of cooking and eliminates monotony of diet. Barrels of insect killer were used and the kitchen thoroughly cleaned and painted.

The new dining hall and hospital building is of brick and cement. It covers 108 by 60 feet of land, rests on a high foundation and contains large windows which permit of plenty of light and air. Completed and equipped with modern kitchen and hospital conveniences it will cost \$45,000. Shower baths and laboratory will be on the second floor which will be devoted exclusively to the care and treatment of the sick. The lower floor will be used for the kitchen and dining hall.

Every able-bodied man about the institution is now employed at some kind of labor. In the summer months many men are employed on the farm. Last year a great deal of road work was done. Bricklayers, carpenters and other workmen were used in the construction of the dining hall. The institution furnishes \$12,000 worth of electricity for other state institutions. It is the only state institution that pays money into the general fund of the state, the amount totalling \$50,000 for two years. More labor for the men will be forthcoming with the erection of the new factory, for which an appropriation of \$30,000 is now ready.

Warden Fenton has made many minor changes about the institution. Shower baths take the place of the old iron tub, and inmates are permitted to use them once a week. Recreation on a broader scale has been provided. On Sunday afternoons prisoners take exercise in the yards, playing baseball and other games and soon a portion of each day will be set apart for recreation.

Night school has been established where 130 inmates gather in the classrooms for instruction in shorthand, typewriting, bookkeeping and all common school branches. A number of men are taking extension work from the University of Nebraska. They receive no credit for this work, unless after release, they enter the university as regular students. Some contemplate doing this. A member of the state board said in visiting the school: "The board of pardons will take into consideration the time and kind of work done by men who make application for pardons." Twenty-five hundred dollars has been provided for the school by the Legislature.

The warden challenged any committee of investigation recently to find a penal institution which is trying to do more for the inmates than Nebraska penitentiary.

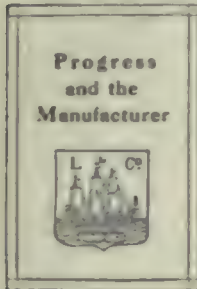


WARDEN W. T. FENTON
Who has brought new hope to Nebraska state prisoners.

BOOK REVIEWS

MODERN INDUSTRY

By Mrs. Florence Kelley. Longmans, Green & Co. 147 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.



"To most young minds the idea is fascinatingly new that the transformation of industry is today the life and death question of this Republic."

"The ultimate blasphemy is the proposal to fit children for industry as industry is."

"Acid tests of the industrial morality of

every public movement are the questions:

"Does it tend to restore to the people who work a share in the ownership and control of the tools of industry?"

"Does it contribute to the ability of any group of wage earners to fit themselves in mind, character and economic position to participate healthfully in the transition?"

"Whatever is calculated to enable us as a people, or any group among us, to make a step forward on the road to peaceful service away from the battlefield of greed is a contribution to the sum total of industrial morality, and whatsoever hinders a forward step is in itself actively evil, because it prolongs the existing evil."

It may seem shirking his job for a reviewer to try chiefly to make the book itself invite the reader. But this book does just that. It is a most succinct, specific and condensed indictment of present-day industry. It presents, all the more convincingly, because implicitly, the direction of true progress. The next steps are not debated for; they are shown as the practicable things already rooted in the better side of what is. In fact, they are next steps, not visions across a gulf.

Many readers will undoubtedly shy away from the ideas contained in my quotations from Mrs. Kelley. The urge I have for such readers is—that they cannot afford to let these questions go without their own personal attempt to think them out. No president, director, or general manager will have a real estimate of what his cost statements are likely to show in the ten years succeeding this year, unless he reads this book—reads it through and ponders it. He will disagree with some of it, as I do. That isn't the point; he needs it all.

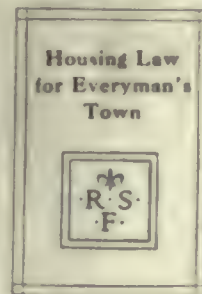
In a swift river the whirlpools and backsets, if conscious, might not be conscious of the direction of the river. Some of our best and some of our worst manufacturers today, equally do not realize that they are headed wrong.

They may not change their motions. I'm not sure that some of them should. But they ought all to get their bearings. And this book will help them to that—in one evening, without argument and with an honest tug, not only at the heart, but at the brain as well.

ROBERT G. VALENTINE.

MODEL HOUSING LAW

By Lawrence Veiller. Russell Sage Foundation Publication. Survey Associates, Inc. 352 pp. Price postpaid \$2.00.



Mr. Veiller's Model Housing Law has been awaited with eagerness by all interested in housing reform. In drafting this proposed model with its suggested adaptations to less developed communities Mr. Veiller has performed another service peculiarly grateful to persons all over the country who have come to recognize that the housing problem is not limited to the congested portions of northern cities but is found also in southern cities and in the towns of the West and Middle West. Laws that apply only to "tenements" or multiple dwellings have therefore been found inadequate, and there is a growing need for regulation of the single family house.

The proposed law consists of six articles: I. General Provisions. II. (a) Regulations of dwellings erected after the passage of the law with regard to light and ventilation, (b) Sanitation, and (c) Fire problems. III. Altered buildings. IV. Maintenance. V. Improvement. VI. Remedies.

Definitions are framed in the light of wide experience with housing control, and points likely to be overlooked are emphasized. Advance is suggested along many lines, such as larger control over buildings moved from one location to another, higher minima of floor space and of light and air than in earlier laws, windows large enough to light the entire room, ventilation for water closets and bathrooms. Newly accepted principles of ventilation are explained and the old minimum of cubic air space, raised to 600 for an adult and 400 for a child, is used as a bulwark behind which the health office, may hide in case of overcrowding. There are three provisions to which attention should be especially called:

1. That if the health officer demands it, the owner shall keep a representative on the premises (p. 189).

2. A device something like the "zone"

device is invented by which a proportion of dwellers on a block may keep the block residential, i. e. limited to private or to two-family dwellings (p. 59).

3. The requirement that the consent of the officer of health be obtained before lodgers may be received in any family (pp. 192-193).

The services rendered by Mr. Veiller are so distinguished that it may not be invidious to suggest that in his discussion of the lodger evil and in his opening statement regarding the nature of the housing problem, his treatment seems inadequate. The damage done by taking lodgers to the life of the family group and to the lodger cannot, of course, be exaggerated; but that evil grows out of inadequate community provision for a group to whom our industrial life is under great obligation, namely the unattached man or woman worker utilized in many of our great industrial plants. To treat the only housing provision now possible for these workers as analogous to prostitution is to misrepresent the situation.

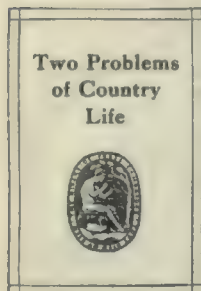
In this connection, too, one may point out the confusion in the opening discussion. Surely no one thinks that amending the law of taxation alone or that assuming more intelligent control over transportation facilities will cure the evils now included in the housing problem. But this treatment of the "lodger evil" shows how impossible it is, too, to rely exclusively on restrictive regulation. This, of course, Mr. Veiller is the first to admit but, in the judgment of the writer, he fails to make clear the fact that while restrictive regulation should have the first place in a program of housing reform, chiefly because, perhaps, it can be secured, it must in every instance be ultimately and should at the earliest possible moment be supplemented by such reform in taxation as tempts to prompt and fuller uses of land, such control over transportation facilities as will give the largest freedom in selecting a home and such supplementary provision for the housing of non-family groups of men and women as the industrial practices of the time indicate to be necessary.

In new communities, where the aim is the prevention rather than the abolition of those evils that Mr. Veiller includes in the term "slum," these items would be included in the initial program of prevention. These suggested limitations surprise the follower of Mr. Veiller who expects from him leadership in all questions bearing on this problem. They do not affect in the slightest the great value of the proposed model for the law which all admit is the necessary next step in innumerable communities in all parts of the country.

SOPHONISBA P. BRECKINRIDGE.

RURAL LIFE AND EDUCATION

By Ellwood P. Cubberly. Houghton, Mifflin Company. 367 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.63.



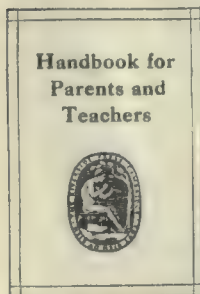
This book is a valuable addition to the rapidly increasing literature on American rural life and rural school conditions. The author emphasizes the fact that the rural school problem "is a social, even more than an educational problem," and cannot therefore, be seen clearly if studied apart from its historical and sociological setting. Accordingly, the book falls into two parts—the rural life problem and the rural school problem.

Part One outlines in six chapters the changes which have taken place in our rural life, the effects of these changes on rural life institutions, the needs of rural life today, etc., adhering pretty closely to the ground already covered by such other writers in the field as Warren H. Wilson, but giving many new details, charts, and statistics of greatest value. Part Two is a clear-cut statement of the needs of rural school organization and administration, with excellent chapters on the new curriculum, new teacher, and new type of supervision.

The book is equipped with numerous valuable charts, maps, illustrations and a good brief bibliography. Dr. Cubberly's book should be read by every rural life student and is especially well adapted as a textbook for high, normal, agricultural and other schools having training classes for rural teachers. H. W. FOGHT.

THE HYGIENE OF THE SCHOOL CHILD

By Lewis M. Terman. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 417 pp. Price \$1.65; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.78.



A number of good books have appeared recently on the need, organization, and methods of school hygiene and medical inspection chiefly from the standpoint of the school administrator and the school physician. This volume deals with the hygiene of the school child as distinguished from the hygiene of the school building or the environment of the school child; it is intended primarily for teachers and parents.

The first seven chapters treat of conservation of life and the conditions which are favorable and unfavorable to normal growth. The remaining fourteen chapters deal with the various physical and mental abnormalities encountered in school children. The prevalence and symptoms of each abnormality are described so clearly and fully that the teacher and the intelligent parent should be able to recognize them.

The author has wisely placed much

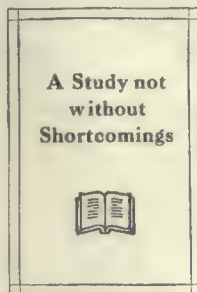
emphasis on the importance of ascertaining the causes of abnormal conditions and removing them whenever possible. A summary, conclusions, and a selected bibliography at the end of each chapter are invaluable features of this book.

Properly used, the study should prove exceedingly valuable in the hands of teachers and parents. By properly used, I mean that teachers and parents should not attempt to diagnose but simply learn to recognize the early symptoms of diseases and abnormal conditions requiring medical treatment.

The following statement on page 270, "The teacher can make the tests fully as well as can the physician who is not also an oculist," does not represent the opinion of the majority of oculists on the question of vision tests by school teachers. In the same paragraph with the above statement is found the following: "Dr. Frank Allport, Dr. R. C. Cabot, Dr. Myles Standish, Dr. Clarence Blake, and other oculists of the highest standing, have long contended that the ordinary routine examinations of the eyes should be undertaken by teachers and school nurses." Two of the "oculists of the highest standing" quoted here are not oculists, but eminent practitioners and teachers of other branches of medicine. Dr. Cabot practices internal medicine and Dr. Blake is an ear specialist. GEORGE L. MEYLAN.

VOCATIONAL GUIDANCE

By James Puffer. Rand, McNally & Co. 306 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.



The author attempts a comprehensive study of vocational guidance. From outlining the need for such guidance and the proper equipment and methods of those who are to give it, Mr. Puffer proceeds to a statement of the differences among occupations, and an analysis of home making, agriculture, the mechanic arts, salesmanship, office work, foremanship and the professions.

Though the preface declares that the book springs directly from personal experiences in the Lyman School for Boys, Boston, there is little in it that is original. It is indeed a curious tapestry of platitude, meaningless detail and questionable generalization, with occasional strands of some appreciation of the aims of vocational guidance, and tolerable grasp of its difficulties. One cannot feel sure, however, whether these strands have been supplied by the author himself or whether they have slipped in along with other borrowings from current thought.

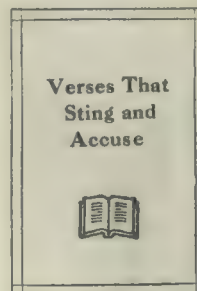
Mr. Puffer is too willing to have wholesale vocational guidance practiced now by the army of public school teachers. He does not sufficiently see that at present we know too little about industry, and that our deductions about children's aptitudes are too much like guesswork to justify such an undertaking.

Neither does he adequately emphasize frequent need for guidance into *further training* rather than into immediate work.

He is too lenient also in accepting industry on its own terms and making boys and girls to fit. A prime duty of the vocational guide may prove to be to help to change for the better the occupations which young people are to enter. WINTHROP D. LANE.

ARROWS IN THE GALE

By Arturo Giovannitti. Frederick C. Bursch. 108 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.



Arrows in the Gale is the suggestive title of a little volume of verse by Arturo Giovannitti, printed at the Hillacre Book-house in Riverside, Conn. These verses are indeed winged things, and barbed. Despite the adverse winds of indifference and hostility, some of them will lodge and rankle in human hearts. For the poet unmistakably meant to sting and wound; to let blood; in all the lyrics we hear the Baptist's cry, "Repent!"

Helen Keller, at the beginning of her enthusiastic introduction to Giovannitti's work, reminds us wisely that as a poet he is to be judged by his success in rendering his ideas in verse, "and not by his relations to Syndicalism or Socialism or any other movement in which he happens to be active. The laws of poetic beauty and power, not one's beliefs about the economic world, determine the excellence of his work."

But did any critic, however well meaning his intentions, ever succeed in judging a poet merely by "the laws of poetic beauty and power"? Certainly Shelley's contemporaries failed him there; and his present-day critics, although united in appreciation of his lyrical magic, still divide into hostile camps over his message; on the one side lauding indiscriminately his revolutionary utterances, particularly the youthful rant in *Queen Mab* which has the least claim to being called poetry; and on the other, damning with faint praise the intellectual acumen informing such great poems as *Prometheus Unbound*, because the author chose to call himself a disciple of Godwin.

If Shelley has not escaped the prejudices of the critics, how shall Giovannitti escape, in whom lyrical magic is almost wholly lacking, whose rhymed verse almost always sings with a twang? How shall the uninitiated, and those who criticise by formula, find the poet under the skin of this stark rebel? Yet the poet is there. Let us listen for him first in a love song; for all the world, including the most hide-bound of critics, agrees in loving the lover.

I know not what new spell was heaved about me by the mighty mouth that breathes all the fearful gales of life, But this I do remember, that my soul became a cage full of nightingales and

her hand opened the door and they flew away in the azure of thy heavens in a long thrill of song.

And this also I do remember, that my heart in which every scythe had reaped till it was nothing but a barren desolation, bloomed up suddenly in all thy apple blossoms, in all thy almond trees, in all the flowers of thy orchards and of thy gardens, O Spring. And I could not throw out of it its myriad flowers, for she had laid her hand on my heart and I dared not break open the gentle gate of her fingers.

We shall agree also, that this is not a good example of his lack of lyrical magic. It is undoubtedly in these unrhymed recitatives that the poet finds himself most completely. Our old accepted English meters jangle upon his lyre, but the long rhythmic strophes which we usually associate with Whitman, Giovannitti has made his own by an inward music as compelling and individual as that of the elder poet. Of the twenty-four poems in the little volume, nine are in this chanting measure, and one of these, *The Cage*, which appeared in 1913 in the *Atlantic Monthly*, he has not yet excelled. Hear the prisoning cage sing to the prisoner:

"While I was hoe and ploughshare and sword and axe and scythe and hammer, I was the first artificer of thy happiness; but the day I was beaten into the first lock and the first key, I became fetters and chains to thy hands and thy feet, O Man!"

My curse is thy curse, O Man, and even if thou shouldst pass out of the wicket of this cage, never shalt thou be free until thou returnest me to the joy of labor.

O Man, bring me back into the old smithy, purify me again with the holy fire of the forge, lay me again on the mother breast of the anvil, beat me again with the old honest hammer—O Man, remould me with thy wonderful hands into an instrument of thy toil.

Remake of me the sword of thy justice, Remake of me the tripod of thy worship.

Remake of me the sickle for thy grain, Remake of me the oven for thy bread, And the anvil for thy peaceful hearth, O Man!

And the trestles for the bed of thy love, O Man!

And the frame of thy joyous lyre, O Man!"

Here is Giovannitti's message of freedom at its noblest, and the whole poem is sustained at this level. In *The Walker*, also, another poem of the prison, the same lofty dignity is found. The prisoner is listening to the footsteps of the man in the cell above his head:

"One—two—three—four: four paces and the wall.

"One—two—three—four: four paces and the iron gate."

And out of this ceaseless pacing back and forth the poem is born, with its anguished cry for freedom, its recognition of brotherhood.

Another of these rhythmic tirades,

Reprinted in full in Arturo Giovannitti, by Mary Brown Sumner, in *THE SURVEY* for November 2, 1912—*THE SURVEY*'s first review of Giovannitti's fugitive verse, and so far as we know, the first review published anywhere.

The Sermon on the Common, paraphrases satirically the Sermon on the Mount, and recalls to us those irreverent old thirteenth century parodies which the Goliardic poets used to sing in their taunting, mocking Latin:

"Blessed are the rebels" [proclaims this rebel of the twentieth century, who is at one with the bitter rebels of all ages]

"Blessed are the rebels: for they shall reconquer the earth.

Blessed are they which do hunger and thirst after equality: for they shall eat the fruit of their labor."

If we turn to the rhymed poems we shall find that the most successful, perhaps, is *The Republic*. Here is none of the banal rant which mars the better known poem called *The Bum*, and none of the jingling sentiment which occasionally finds its way into these lyrics. Shelley's description of freedom in the *Masque of Anarchy* is no more inspired than Giovannitti's vision of the goddess of the common weal:

Not hers the wisdom which decrees That time alone must wrongs allay, Not hers the craven heart to pray And barter liberty for peace;

Not hers the fear to hesitate When shame and misery cry out— Love has no patience, truth no doubt, And right and justice cannot wait.

So, loud into the midnight air She rang the tocsin's loud alarm, She called, and as by potent charm From its mysterious haunt and lair,

The Mob, the mightiest judge of all, To hear the rights of Man came out, And every word became a shout, And every about a musket ball

And when upon the great sunrise Flew her disheveled victories To all the lands, on all the seas, Like angry eagles in the skies,

To ring the call of brotherhood And hail mankind from shore to shore, Wrapt in her splendid tricolor The People's virgin bride she stood.

Whether or not we agree that the Mob is "the mightiest judge of all," there is no question that this is true poetry, exalted and simple; and the grim turn at the end, in which the People's virgin bride of the morning is shown at night in her defeat and prostitution, a drunken harlot of the street, lying "between a sergeant of police and a decrepit millionaire," is powerful in its poetic irony.

In most of the other poems the poet is not so successful in evading the lure to rhetoric, a temptation peculiarly Italian, as anyone will realize who has listened to the extempore flow of eloquence so impossible to stem at Socialist or other meetings of young Italians. Neither is the irony always on so high a level; it degenerates at times to mere scorn and taunting, and becomes in Christian ears painful blasphemy when it touches the name of Christ. Nevertheless, it is well that Christian ears should listen, for this very blasphemy is a call to repentance.

It is too soon to attempt an estimate of Giovannitti's genius. These twenty-four poems are like the tentative carolings of young birds. Our singer is trying to find his range, and to get used to

his voice. To say, as Miss Keller does in her introduction, that he is "a better poet than has come out of the privileged classes of America in our day," is premature, and, for the present at least untrue. The social feeling in some of William Vaughn Moody's poems—*Gloucester Moors*, *An Ode in Time of Hesitation*, *A Soldier Fallen in the Philippines*, *The Brute*, in New York, *I Am the Woman* is as poignant as in Giovannitti's, and unquestionably on a higher poetic level; yet who dares to say that Giovannitti may not mount as high, if we give him time.

To expect a man who was born in Italy in 1884 and lived there until he was seventeen to sing our language immediately with the abandon and distinction of a Shelley is absurd. If he has failed to infuse into his English the subtle Italian grace and passion of a Dante Gabriel Rossetti, the blame must be laid upon the Pennsylvania coal mines and the New York slums, our wells of English muddy and defiled, from which we have forced him to drink.

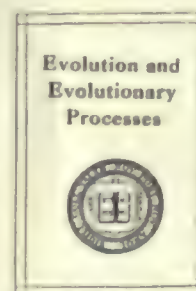
And if the tongue halt, how shall the thought shine clear? It is unfair to carp at Giovannitti's message, to say that he can give us only the diatribes of the rebel,—accusation, arraignment, invective. It is true that this is all that he has given us so far, but *The Cage*, *The Walker*, *The Republic* promise something more; there are foreshadowings in them of spiritual intuitions.

Giovannitti will always be the poet of emotion rather than of thought, however, and it is to be feared that the negative note will dominate. He will also be the lyricist rather than the dramatist or the narrative poet; when he tries, as in *The Bum*, to do what Masefield and Gibson do so well, to picture the bare, sordid life of the poor and the outcast, he fails because of his irresistible tendency to declaim and to accuse. In symbolic verse, like *The Republic*, where abstract emotion is set free, and in the long, chanting recitative, he is at his best; and these measures which lend themselves so well to the poet's impassioned accusations and negations, might as easily interpret the positive and constructive notes, for which we still hopefully listen, in his message.

FLORENCE CONVERSE.

PROBLEMS OF GENETICS

By William Bateson. Yale University Press. 258 pp. Price \$4.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$4.25.



Although of definitely scientific content, this study will interest the many social workers who, in their own fields, have endeavored to follow the progress of modern thinking. The book records the present pause in enthusiasm over evolution and the closer consideration of evolutionary forms and processes; and its discussion centers upon the question: What are species? How did they arise?

"In the enthusiasm with which evolutionary ideas were received, the specificity of living things was almost forgotten." Species were regarded as essentially impermanent groups, the differences among them being regarded as due to natural selection of those fittest to survive in the given environments. Yet today, Bateson remarks, most systematists manifest as much faith in the fundamental reality of specific differences as if Darwin had never written. Collectors seek "typical" specimens; collections are so arranged as to mask the phenomena of variation; intermediate forms are sorted out regardless of locality and date, into separate groups, or else disregarded as unimportant.

This rigidity of the conception of species occasionally leads to absurdities. Notwithstanding the fact that no set of characters definitely diagnostic of species has yet been found entirely adequate, still Bateson believes that "the proposition that animals and plants are on the whole divided into definite and recognizable species is an approximation to the truth."

Whether specific distinctions rest on natural and physiological bases is to be determined by stricter analysis of the diversities of animals and plants on a more comprehensive scale. Heredity and variation, he suggests, affords the key to the specific characteristics of living organisms, just as chemical attributes afford a key to the intrinsic nature of the various kinds of non-living matter.

The method for such analysis of specific differences is furnished by the discoveries of Mendel and his followers, namely, the laws which govern the transmission to descendants of the "unit factors" or characters of the individual. From the Mendelian point of view, Bateson criticizes the theory that species have arisen through natural selection of the forms most fitted to the environment. To assume that the minute differences which characterize certain species which, topographically, are neighbors and systematically, are closely allied, have definite survival values, Bateson believes, is to put a gratuitous strain on belief.

His conclusion is that, while acceptance of the theory of evolution is inevitable, we know as yet little of the forces which have guided and shaped the evolutionary process.

GERTRUDE SEYMOUR.

WOMAN, MARRIAGE AND MOTHERHOOD

By Elizabeth Sloan Chesser. Funk & Wagnalls. 287 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.

Survey of the "New" Motherhood



A sane, practical and scientific presentation of the "woman movement," especially its bearing upon marriage and motherhood, is contributed by Dr. Chesser to the already notable array of volumes on this vital topic. It seems strange to realize that motherhood is old as the race and yet that the past two decades have seen the rise of a "new"

motherhood in faith, as well as in works, that seems destined to place indelible impress upon future generations. Dr. Chesser surveys the subject with impartial, expert vision; broad humanity; and highest ideals of service.

The physiology of motherhood and sex; the physico-psychical sex influences and reactions; marriage and divorce; the economic and legal status of woman; and her physical, moral and mental development and claims are treated with scientific sincerity and democratic simplicity.

Dr. Chesser holds that the cornerstone upon which the whole constructive movement for uplifting motherhood should build, is the child. The book is therefore a significant contribution to the literature of child welfare. It presents in clearest terms the laws of woman's labor and protection of maternity, prenatal influences of alcohol, social disease and depravity, prison and factory systems, and the practical possibilities of eugenics. While dealing primarily with conditions in England, Dr. Chesser correlates these with similar social conditions in the United States, Germany, France and other countries.

Economic problems have perhaps been responsible for the inadequate maternity protection in England, though in protective legislation for children the national and colonial governments of Great Britain have made headway. Deploable slum conditions, intemperance, unremitting factory labor, and sweated home labor for women, have wrought havoc with infant life in England. France has gone far ahead in the race for "baby saving." Thirty-five years ago Madame Bequet de Vienne established in Paris *L'Allaitement Maternel*, a society for the care of mothers during pregnancy. Similar movements have been begun in Germany and Austria. Economic provision for expectant mothers was also a movement in which France took pioneer steps, followed by Belgium, Austria, Denmark and Sweden.

In the United States, child welfare has attained national importance. The formation of the Parents' Educational Division by the United States Commissioner of Education, under charge of Mrs. Frederic Schoff, gives government recognition to the National Congress of Mothers now under the presidency of Mrs. Schoff, whose introduction to Dr. Chesser's work gives solemn emphasis to the responsibilities of the human race toward its children.

MABEL RAINSFORD HAINES.

BOOKS RECEIVED

THE SOCIAL EMERGENCY. By W. T. Foster. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 224 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.45.
THE CHILD IN THE MIDST. By Mary Schaeffer Labaree. Central Committee of United Study of Foreign Missions. 272 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.58.
OUR WORLD FAMILY. By Helen Douglas Billings. Central Committee of United Study of Foreign Missions. 96 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.29.
VOLUNTEER HELP TO THE SCHOOLS. By Ella Lyman Cabot. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 136 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.06.
MODERN INDUSTRY. By Florence Kelley. Longmans, Green & Co. 147 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.
WITH WALT WHITMAN IN CAMDEN. Vol. III. By Horace Traubel. Mitchell Kennerley. 590 pp. Price \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.28.

THE MEXICAN PEOPLE—THEIR STRUGGLE FOR FREEDOM. By L. Guti  rrez de Lara and Edmund Pinchon. Doubleday, Page & Co. 360 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.64.
THE CARPENTER AND THE RICH MAN. By Bouck White. Doubleday, Page & Co. 339 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.37.
THE JOB, THE MAN, THE BOSS. By Katherine M. H. Blackford and Arthur Newcomb. Doubleday, Page & Co. 266 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.
SOCIAL JUSTICE WITHOUT SOCIALISM. By John Bates Clark. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 49 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.55.
SYNDICALISM IN FRANCE. By Louis H. Levine. Columbia University Studies in History, Economics and Public Law. Longmans, Green & Co. Agts. 229 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.59.
BETTER BABIES AND THEIR CARE. By Anna Steese Richardson. Fredk A. Stokes Co. 238 pp. Price \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.83.
CHILDREN OF THE DEAD END. By Patrick MacGill. E. P. Dutton & Co. 305 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.44.
THEY WHO KNOCK AT OUR GATES. By Mary Antin. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 142 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.
THE SMALL FAMILY SYSTEM—IS IT INJURIOUS OR IMMORAL? By C. V. Drysdale. B. W. Huebsch. 119 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.05.
SOCIALISM AND MOTHERHOOD. By John Spargo. B. W. Huebsch. 119 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.05.
THE NEW OPTIMISM. By H. de Vere Stacpoole. John Lane Co. 142 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.
INTERMEDIATE TYPES AMONG PRIMITIVE FOLK. By Edward Carpenter. Mitchell Kennerley. 185 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.11.
BUSINESS—A PROFESSION. By Louis Brandeis. Small, Maynard & Co. 327 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.12.
THE RAGGED-TROUSERED PHILANTHROPISTS. By Robert Treasall. Fredk A. Stokes. 385 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.37.
THE COUNTRY LIBRARY. By Salda Bumbrach Antrim. Pioneer Press. 306 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.14.
ENGLISH FOR HUNGARIANS. By Rev. James William Shearer. Wm. R. Jenkins Co. 144 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.40.
ENGLISH FOR ITALIANS. By Rev. James William Shearer. Wm. R. Jenkins Co. 144 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.40.
ENGLISH FOR BOHEMIANS. By Rev. James William Shearer. Wm. R. Jenkins Co. 144 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.40.
NEW MEN FOR OLD. By Howard Vincent O'Brien. Mitchell Kennerley. 320 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.36.
WITHIN PRISON WALLS. By Thomas Mott Osborne. D. Appleton & Co. 327 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.
DR. MONTESSORI'S OWN HANDBOOK. By Maria Montessori. Fredk A. Stokes Co. 121 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.07.
THE GIRL AND HER CHANCE. By Harrie McDougal Daniels. Fleming H. Revell Co. 95 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.55.
A HISTORY OF PENAL METHODS. By George Ives. Fredk A. Stokes. 409 pp. Price \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.15.
LETTERS OF A WOMAN HOMESTEADER. By Ellinore Pruitt Stewart. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 281 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.
THE NEW INTERNATIONAL YEAR BOOK. Edited by Frank Moore Colby. Dodd, Mead & Co. 776 pp. Prepaid of THE SURVEY \$5.00.
NURSES FOR OUR NEIGHBORS. By Alfred Worcester. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 286 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.
THE HISTORY OF THE DWELLING HOUSE AND ITS FUTURE. By Robert Ellis Thompson. J. B. Lippincott Co. 171 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.09.
THE SOUL OF AMERICA. By Stanton Coit. The Macmillan Co. 405 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.13.
LECTURES ON HOUSING. B. Seeborn Rowntree and A. C. Pigou. Longmans, Green & Co. 70 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.54.
SONGS FROM THE SMOKE. By Madeleine Sweeney Miller. Methodist Book Concern. 62 pp. Price \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.80.
BOY LIFE AND LABOUR. By Arnold Freeman. Introduction by Dr. M. E. Sadler. P. S. King & Son. 252 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.09.
THE MAKING OF A MAN. By O. Edward Janney. The Lord Baltimore Press. 74 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.05.
THE FEEDING OF SCHOOL CHILDREN. By M. E. Bulkeley. The Macmillan Co. 278 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.
TOYNBEE HALL AND THE ENGLISH SETTLEMENT MOVEMENT. By Werner Picht. The Macmillan Co. 248 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.

Communications

SAFETY AT SEA

TO THE EDITOR: Harking back to your editorial of May 2 and the letter of Mrs. Florence Kelley, in the same issue, on Safety at Sea, to which must now be added the article in the June current issue by "Slocum," I want to file my protest.

For twenty-five years I have been a recognized "steamboat crank," obsessed it seems with the spirit of that pioneer of pioneer steamboat dreamers John Fitch and of the less original but more successful Robert Fulton. During that quarter of a century I have met many of the leading steamboat men and marine engineers of the world—numbering some of them as intimate friends—and out of this intimacy I am justified in saying that to give circulation to the wild cry that these men weigh gold against life, deliberately court unnecessary hazards for the sake of increased dividends, is more than an injustice—it is well-nigh a crime.

Steamboat men are not the only men who hope the La Follette bill will not become the law of the nations. As an outsider, a busy pastor of a church, not interested at all in stocks or earnings of steam-boats and holding no brief for any one but myself, I protest against some of the absurdities of the bill. But that which especially calls forth my protest at this time is what others are saying about the bill—the things that are logically deduced from it.

Take Mrs. Kelley's contention that each passenger shall have a designated seat in a life-boat as called for by the number on a coupon. Think you that frenzied men and women could be kept from a near-by life-boat because perchance the numbers upon the seat in the particular boat did not correspond with the numbers on their coupons? A week at sea is not a theater party with every body subservient to gentlemanly ushers.

Some life-boats would possibly be smashed in a collision, some could not be used by reason of a list of a ship to one side or the other, what would be done with the people whose assignments happened to be in unusable boats? Such a coupon system would not only be wholly ineffective—it would be confusion worse confounded.

And the proposition to have two able seamen for each boat. Was there ever a week in the history of steam navigation when it was found that men were too weakened by work or too ignorant to get overboard a boat for their own salvation? At such times the strength of one man becomes as that of ten. And the direct charge that there were no men who knew how, or had the strength, to lower the boats of the *Volturno* should never have found utterance in the light of what Lloyd did and what the others in the boat were ready to do.

Would to God there had not been a single life-boat to lower from the *Volturno*! The loss of life would have been less horrible. But if men are to be limited to "able seamen" when assigned to the command of life-boats, why exempt the men trained on the Hudson and Long Island Sound and some of our boys from the possibilities of such service? It is not brawn only that is needed in emergencies but brains, and I am not sure but that a steward or a purser, or even a stoker, sometimes has brains.

Then, too, there is the matter of life-boats on the Great Lakes to which "Slocum" refers. The conditions are so entirely different from those prevailing at sea that after granting all that "Slocum" claims he still fails to make his case. At sea, owing to the possibility of being a long time adrift, and to the danger of a raft being broken to pieces, boats might well be required. But a few hours after a wireless call went up from a boat on the Great Lakes would find the endangered craft encircled by boats sent to her aid and if the passengers had to leave a sinking or burning vessel rafts are much easier to get overboard and much easier to get upon when once in the water. What was needed at the time the *Empress of Ireland* went down was self-releasing rafts not boats that had to be lowered by davits.

Mr. Furuseth, as quoted by you, declares that nothing brought out in the London Convention could have prevented the *Empress of Ireland* disaster. In all fairness he should have added, "Nor could anything provided in the La Follette bill have mitigated in the least its horrors."

Let us not yield to the cry, "The rich are selfish"—only some are! Nor to the charge, "Steamboat men are heartless"—only some are! There is good in men that is not brought out by harsh names.

C. SEYMOUR BULLOCK.

Ottawa, Canada.

[Mr. Bullock has written much on steamboat history and because of his special knowledge in this field was given the place of Robert Fulton on the Clermont in the Hudson-Fulton Celebration. In his last paragraph Mr. Bullock seems to have wholly missed the point of safety legislation whether applied to ocean liners or laundries: namely, that what is done by exceptional companies who are neither selfish nor heartless has, to quote our editorial note of June 6, "no binding force upon those [companies] willing to take chances of disaster and profit by them." Rather, in the absence of safety legislation binding upon all, the latter companies make it difficult for those who are neither selfish nor heartless to do what they think ought to be done and not be driven out of business.—Ed.]

TO THE EDITOR: Mr. Bullock appears to have confused several articles and some statutes.

It is the British law which requires a seat in a life-boat for all persons on board. Senator La Follette has merely copied this in his bill.

It is Mr. Furuseth, not I, who suggested that in case the International Convention for Safety at Sea were ratified in its original form, passengers would be reduced to trying to protect their own lives by demanding that steamship tickets should carry identifiable coupons for specified seats in life-boats. This appears to be the custom at present on all trans-oceanic Japanese steamships. It appears also to give satisfaction to their passengers. But why does Mr. Bullock impute the idea to me or to my article?

Fortunately, the International Convention for Safety at Sea has not been ratified unchanged. The Senate Committee on Foreign Relations reports the following proviso:

"That the United States reserves the right to abrogate 'treaties, conventions, and agreements,' indicated in Article 68, in accordance with the terms of such treaties, conventions, and agreements, and to impose upon all vessels in the waters of the United States such higher standards of safety and such provisions for the health and comfort of passengers and immigrants as the United States shall enact for vessels of the United States."

As to the *Volturno*, all—men, women and children—saved from her burning hull owe their lives to seaworthy life-boats in competent hands sent from other ships. More and better seamen, better davits and better boats on board the *Volturno* could have saved more lives. Why blink the sinister facts?

Each day brings tidings of a collision or a steamship on the rocks or ashore. Why at such a time should any American be content with anything less than the most perfect provision for safety at sea that ingenuity has devised? Why should any vessel be allowed to clear from our ports whose standard falls below this?

FLORENCE KELLEY.

[National Consumers' League]
New York.

TO THE EDITOR: The article in your issue of June 6, entitled *Land-Locked Disaster*, by "Slocum," deserves commendation for its evident attempt at fairness in statement. At the same time, its author failed to take into account some important facts which bear upon the passenger boat situation on the Great Lakes.

Rivers have very properly been exempted from the provisions of this bill, and we on the Great Lakes feel entitled to the same exemption for the following reasons:

Actual figures taken from the latest report of the United States supervising inspector general for a period of five years, 1907 to 1911 inclusive, are as follows:

Great Lakes Rivers

Total number of passengers carried in the 5 years	82,415,716 67,293,895
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Average number of passengers carried per year (5 year period)...	16,483,143	13,458,779
Total number of lives lost (passengers) all causes, in the 5 year period...	30	70
Average number of lives lost (passengers) per year, all causes, (5 year period)	6	14
Average number of passengers carried per year for each life lost (5 year period)	2,841,921	989,616

Degree of Safety, Great Lakes 133 Per Cent Greater than Rivers

We lake folks insist that this record must be taken into account, and that it does not justify placing Great Lakes vessels in the ocean-going class.

It is proper to premise that I have not a dollar invested in any lake passenger boat, and that my business as a vessel outfitter, carried on for more than forty years, naturally leads me to favor any law which would send them to my house for additional safety devices.

Yet first of all, I value fairness and justice. "Safety first" is admirable. But reason is better than hysteria. What we need is not more lightning, but more light.

Shipowners are doubtless as selfish as you or I, yet they are no more destitute of humanity. Indeed, as I have known them, they are conspicuous for it and they know that in the long run selfishness would spell ruin to their business. They are Americans, proud of their country and its commerce, and sincerely anxious to safeguard the lives committed to them. In proof of this, they have uniformly gone farther than the government requirements as to safety devices and regulations. Success has followed their efforts.

We maintain at great cost a standing army, militia and police to preserve order. Murder and robbery should be impossible; our railroads should be as safe as are those of Switzerland; our buildings, public and private, should be fire-proof and stormproof; all these are ideals which we should constantly keep before our minds. But the public is governed by common sense, it demands, and rightly, the nearest practical approach to this ideal.

The provisions of the La Follette measure as applied to passenger service on the Great Lakes, are not practical, but fatal. For example, the steamer route from Sandusky to Cedar Point, Ohio, a distance of not over three and one-half miles, far freer from the dangers of navigation than any river route, over water the depth of which would permit the average man walking ashore, is included in the provisions of this bill and would have to comply with every regulation exactly the same as ocean-going vessels. There are many routes of this kind on the Great Lakes.

I am not concerned to defend the conclusions of the International Marine Convention. Your criticism may be ac-

cepted as just. I am personally inclined to think that thirteen nations know more about the high seas than does Senator La Follette of Wisconsin, but let that pass. At any rate, these eminent representatives probably know less about conditions on our "unsalted seas" than does the present writer.

Among those who did not know, we must include the name of Andrew Furuseth, president of the Seamen's Union, from whom Senator La Follette acknowledges to have received the information upon which he based his bill, a bill which would eliminate many if not all the passenger ships on the Great Lakes. It would prevent any part of a ship's crew being assigned to duties in any other department of the ship by recognizing officially life-boats alone as life-saving apparatus, regardless of other equipment; by making no distinction between trans-Atlantic liners and boats making half-hour runs on the Great Lakes; by lowering discipline aboard ship, especially where boats are away from their docks only a few hours out of every twenty-four.

Who is this great authority? Has he ever sailed at all on the Great Lakes? Has he any real knowledge of her ships, her men, their conditions, their needs?

One of the modern steel lake steamers, built in 1911, at a cost of \$300,000, travels a course the maximum distance of which from shore to shore is five miles. If she sank at the place of greatest depth, 36 feet, three decks would remain above water. The company operating this ship has operated steamers on this route for fifty years without loss of life by accident.

Under the La Follette bill, this ship would be required to have a crew of 450, and to carry 183 life-boats. These boats would weigh approximately 230 tons. If all available deck space were utilized, she could not accommodate 183 life-boats. It would be impossible to fit her with enough davits to carry anywhere near this number.

In case of accident, she could reach shore in fifteen minutes, less time than would be required to lower any considerable number of life-boats.

To accommodate the surplus crew would necessitate the use of cabin, parlors and dining-room for crews' quarters.

To limit the number of passengers to the capacity of her life-boats it would be necessary to charge a prohibitive rate of fare.

The La Follette bill would require this ship to be equipped the same as a ship sailing around the world. There is no resemblance between this ship and an ocean liner.

I submit again, is it fair? In view of the importance lent to the utterances of this expert witness, and without any heat, I submit those fair questions before his advice is taken as final.

The excursion season on these waters covers about ninety days. Passenger line boats run about half the year. With the exception of a very few boats referred to by "Slocum" as running to the head of Lake Superior, they operate along shore or through connecting rivers, practically always in sight of

land or of each other. All are equipped with wireless. A disaster happening so suddenly that help cannot reach it is extremely unlikely, or, if such did occur, it would be so sudden as to make the launching and filling of many life-boats out of the question. Personally, in such an emergency, I would rather take my chances with a life-belt on a raft. The La Follette bill recognizes neither of these life-saving devices.

Railroads must run, steamers may.

Our lake courses are all paralleled by railroads. People travel in the summer, for example, from Cleveland to Buffalo, or from Chicago to Sault Ste. Marie, for the luxury of a trip on the water or for cheaper fare. By all means make the trip on water as attractive and as safe as you can. Do not, by prohibitive demands upon the ships, deprive the people of their wonted and safe lake excursions.

The La Follette bill as regards payment of wages at every port is worse than a misfit on the lakes. It provides that a seaman may demand wages at any time at any port, and must be paid though the trip is not completed. This would make every day pay-day on the passenger and package freight steamers plying the Great Lakes. After being paid, the seaman would be free to leave the boat in a port where it might be impossible to obtain a "certificated able seaman." A single "certificated able seaman" could thus make it impossible for a ship to proceed, regardless of passengers, mail or perishable cargo. Under this bill it would be impossible to retain a crew long enough to train them in the ship's ways. Discipline would go for naught, and discipline means safety to passengers and ship.

In conclusion, should this bill in its present shape become a statute, it is reasonably certain that there will be no further passenger steamers on the lakes to legislate about. Some rich men will still own and run their private yachts. But the common people, of whom Lincoln said, "God must have loved them best for he made so many more of them," may hereafter broil at home or take their chances of an outing on the dusty rail.

J. W. WALTON.

[Upson-Walton Co., Cordage Makers.]
Cleveland, O.

STOCKHOLDERS' RESPONSIBILITY

TO THE EDITOR: In two places in your issue of May 2 you say that John D. Rockefeller, Jr., controls the Colorado Fuel & Iron Co. He says he owns 40 per cent or less of the stock. Who speaks the truth? If your paper does not speak the truth, it cannot prosper permanently.

ELLIS MORRIS.

[President Hastings Express Co.]

Pullman, Chicago.

[In his testimony before the Congressional Committee John D. Rockefeller, Jr., stated that his father's holdings consisted of 139,807 common shares, or about 40 per cent, and of preferred stock 7,943, again about 40 per cent; that on the board he himself,

Starr J. Murphy, and Jerome D. Greene, were his father's personal representatives, and that J. H. McClement, and L. M. Bowers, chairman of the board, might be said indirectly to represent him. There are eight other directors, the best known being George J. Gould, whose holdings have been large.

So far as our reading of the testimony went, there was no attempt on the part of Mr. Rockefeller to dodge responsibility for the policies of the management on the ground that the Rockefeller holdings were less than 50 per cent. Rather, his was a clear-cut declaration that in the handling of business propositions their habit was the same as that pursued in his social investigations—viz., "select able, competent men who are accustomed to dealing with such problems, and rely upon their findings and form opinions based upon those findings." "Let me ask," said the chairman, "what, in your opinion, is the duty of a stockholder, who has a large part of the stock in an industrial concern?"

Mr. R.: "To see that, insofar as his interests entitle him to a voice, that there are placed in office the ablest, highest minded, most competent men to have charge of the affairs of the company that he can select."

Chairman: "And that is as far as his duty goes?"

Mr. R.: "His duty would then be, I should think, to keep in touch, in order that he might know whether those men were living up to all that he believed them to be, and if he found any indication that they were not, his duty would be to inquire, and replace them if necessary."

Of the officials of the C. F. & I. Mr. Rockefeller said: "If I were to look this country over, I would not know where to find two men in whose judgment, in whose fairness, and whose humanity I should have greater confidence than in Mr. Welborn, the president of the company, and Mr. Bowers, the vice-president, and in supporting those men in the positions which they have held, I feel that I have done the very best that could be done—not the best I could have, but the best that could be done in the interests of the workers as well as of the stockholders of the property."

Mr. Rockefeller offered nothing to indicate that he had considered or acted upon information as to the labor policies or conditions in Colorado, other than through these officials, while the premises upon which he based his subsequent remarkable statement on the Colorado situation showed that his information through this source was incomplete, undependable and thoroughly biased.

THE SURVEY's editorials have not borne on how much either a majority stockholder or the holder of one share could have accomplished in Colorado. In the Pullman Company and the Steel Corporation, for example, we have had striking illustrations of what individual stockholders, armed with facts, can bring about in rehabilitating the human side of a great industry. Nor did they question that the head of an organization—whether an editorial office, a government bureau, or a commercial enterprise—must depend upon and back up his subordinates unless they are clearly wrong. That in itself, however, presupposes some adequate method for forming judgments that they are right.

The editorials pointed out how insecure as a basis for action on the part of a great stockholder was Mr. Rockefeller's sole reliance on the executive officers of the C. F. & I., as to the weight to attach to grievances charged against themselves; and how far short that reliance fell of the analogy he cited: viz., his reliance on detached in-

vestigators like Mr. Flexner in sizing up a situation in which they were not personally involved.

If absentee capitalism is to persist in our economic life, it must work out a technique better than that which wrecked colonialism in the political life of this country a hundred and forty years ago.

—THE EDITOR.]

PRIZE ALCOHOL POSTER

TO THE EDITOR: I think the outcome of the alcohol poster contest (See THE SURVEY for January 10, 1914) will be a surprise, and that it needs explanation. Many good posters came in. Finally I took the following as a nucleus:

RECREATION IS A NECESSITY

Shall only the saloon furnish it?
Drunkards are products of saloons.
Recreation centers make men.
Put the recreation center in the
saloon's place.
Make men—not drunkards!

We wanted something quick, to be read by the man in the street as he passed. The above is too long, but I boiled it down to

A GOOD INVESTMENT

Recreation centers making men
In place of saloons making drunkards

Three members of the committee passed it but the fourth did not like it. I think he might have been won; however. I did not try because I found that we had gone ahead of our public. I found that my advertising man had no idea what we meant by recreation centers, so I changed to the expression social centers. I asked seven people what a social center was. Two said that it was a town; one a church; the others did not know. They were printers, with two exceptions. It was apparently no use putting out a big, quick poster on this subject yet; people had not reached the stage where it would carry.

LIQUOR BILL
\$1,750,000,000
IN THE UNITED STATES FOR ONE YEAR!

THIS WOULD —

- | | |
|---|---------------|
| 1. Build Ten Hospitals in each of the 48 States in the Union at a cost of \$500,000 each, and endowed with \$300,000 each | \$288,000,000 |
| 2. Build 4 Colleges in each State each costing \$4,000,000 and endowed with \$1,000,000 | \$384,000,000 |
| 3. Build a Road from New York to San Francisco at a cost of \$60,000,000 and give each State \$4,000,000 to build tributary roads | \$68,000,000 |
| 4. Equip 10,000 Playgrounds for Children at a cost of \$2,000 each | 20,000,000 |
| 5. Give each State \$80,000,000 for Industrial Education in the public schools | 480,000,000 |
| 6. Place 50 Libraries in each State each costing \$800,000 and endowed with \$100,000 | 480,000,000 |

And Leave \$40,000,000

MUNICIPAL RECREATION CENTRES
IN PLACE OF THE SALOON

In the meantime, the South End Alcohol Education Committee of the Boston Associated Charities handed in a poster, telling what might be done with the \$1,750,000,000 that we spend on liquor. They left \$40,000,000 unspent, so I spent the \$40,000,000 myself in municipal recreation centers in place of the saloon. The poster is reproduced on this page.

This poster is to be sent to charity conferences. It must go into mediums where there is time for the purely intellectual approach, and I personally believe for the time being that is the best that we can do.

But later, I believe we can use as slogans some of the many good posters that came in. At least, the *Liquor Dealers' Journal* and this week's *Outlook* both declare that the movement for national prohibition is coming fast, that in the next few years thinking men are going to be called upon to think it all over and thresh out the pros and the cons. If in that threshing social workers decide that on the whole prohibition will be a great economic saving, and stand with it, then they must add to national prohibition municipal recreation centers in place of the saloon. Then such a poster as the following (sent in from California) will be very useful on a flag in a parade:

Needed: Recreation Centers!
It's your fault if he's DRUNK
Unless YOU
Give him a Place to be DECENT

ELIZABETH TILTON.

[Chairman, Alcohol Education Committee, Boston Associated Charities.]
Cambridge, Mass.

CONSIDER THE OTHER FELLOW

TO THE EDITOR: The invited contributors to the discussion of Major Higginson's defense of the rich answered the usual arguments of capitalism—fostering invention, capital as the reward for risk, the superman in industry, etc. But it seems to me the spiritual bankruptcy of capitalism was not so well presented.

As the most truly religious men have been driven out of the orthodox religious camp, so the best and potentially most useful spirits of the time—the men of constructive social vision—can no longer find a field for self-expression in capitalistic society.

This fact together with the personally experienced injunction against intellectual freedom explains, though as Professor Small points out, does not excuse, the bitter attitude of many of THE SURVEY's readers toward men of wealth. The part of this hostility which is mere middle-class discontent, the disappointment of those whose ideals are in the past and who have no progressive social philosophy, I am not concerned with. So I have thought it might be enlightening to men like Major Higginson to detail some of the experiences of a social worker which might tend to create an "acrid disposition."

Someone has said that the trouble with Russia is that there are not enough po-

sitions in the government service to go around among the "intellectuals." In a country where one hundred political idealists go to the gallows each month, year in and year out, this explanation does not explain. Still there is a grain of truth in it. So, in this country, where industry and finance instead of the government, offer the largest opportunity for constructive work, business has discriminated against men of ideals, and it has come about that success depends no more upon presence of ability in the young man than upon absence of ideals.

Men of ideals do sometimes succeed, but except in rare instances they do so only by keeping a firm hand on the expression of the ideal elements in their personality. Now this negative qualification results here, as in Russia, in keeping out of the service of the nation much of the best constructive ability of the country.

My grandfather was an English bricklayer and stone mason and the only thing that enabled my father to become a clergyman and myself a social worker was his fortunate investment in some New York tenement property.

My father's unusually independent character and his culture, my own upbringing and education were paid for by the tax taken out of the meager earnings of New York's tenement dwellers. Yet I can recall that in my graduating oration at the preparatory school I voiced the sentiment that each one's advancement depended on his own exertions, etc. I can also recall in my Freshman year at college arguing long into the night with a classmate who took the side of the Homestead strikers. I certainly had no animosity toward capital at that time.

In my sophomore year the chance loan of a book opened my eyes to a new world of social values. I had to reconstruct my world, conquer it intellectually anew, before I could live in it, and a long and painful process it was. The path of ambition and advancement, which hitherto had extended straight ahead of me, become obscured.

As I had formulated no philosophy of class conflict as yet, I went around button-holing my acquaintances, thinking that if everyone could only be made to see things as I did, they would immediately line up for co-operation and order and the social millennium would be at hand. So I organized a "Socialism study class." When the faculty got wind of it I came near being expelled from the university. I found that I, a perfectly harmless advocate of peace and justice, was considered more dangerous to the university than the worst moral degenerate in the institution.

That was my first lesson on the attitude of capital toward intellectual freedom. A remark dropped by the president to a friend of mine connected the two things up beautifully and unmistakably.

Some time later Dean ——— gave me some fatherly advice in this wise: "Don't be a fool. Don't make a failure of your life. Look at Bolton Hall. Best of family and antecedents. Might have filled the pulpit of the richest congregation in New York like his father. See

what a grand failure he has made of his life."

But the "horrible example" failed to horrify. I had just been reading Bolton Hall's wonderful little book, *Even as You and I*, and I thought if the author of that book had made a failure of his life, I could do no better than to follow in his footsteps. How I despised the man who gave me this advice even before his oily ways had brought him to the position of commanding influence in my alma mater which he now enjoys!

My ideal of an academic career shattered, and realizing there was no place for me in the business world, I entered social work, not because I believed in its power to solve fundamental social problems, but because it offered an atmosphere and association in which I could at least live and breathe. The first three years, most of which was spent in a public institution, I had ample opportunity for observation and study and some business responsibilities also which I by no means disliked.

I did not have another personal encounter with the money power until after I had resigned my civil service position and had become the executive secretary of a philanthropic organization in a New England city. In visiting the homes of the poor I found some frightful housing conditions. On inquiry I discovered to my surprise that most of these houses were owned by either the president of our association and his father and son-in-law (the latter our treasurer) or by the chairman of our finance committee.

Our president was an able lawyer but the poor who had had experience of his merciless exactions mistrusted him in his new role of philanthropist. Presumably because of his interest in the cities' public utilities, he had espoused the cause of a new charter which augured ill for the city, but unfortunately was backed by some very fine people. I had the temerity to write a letter to the newspaper analyzing the proposed change. Instead of welcoming what he admitted was a very logical criticism, he flew into a rage. What right had I, a mere hireling, to take part in the discussion.

My own later experiences with capitalist-philanthropists, and those of many other social workers, would, if related, only duplicate the above. But one type new to me I did come across—the rising young man or aspiring woman who sought philanthropic connections in order to ruthlessly capitalize the poverty of the poor and the suffering of the sick. Of course I had experiences with genuinely kind-hearted rich people, but these are not to the point in this communication.

The other day a social worker refused an attractive position offered by a big insurance company. A socialist literary friend of mine, eking out a miserable existence with hack work, refused in one year two \$4,000 positions in capitalist-controlled universities. There are thousands of others whose socially valuable abilities have been penned up and yet who have not "bended the knee to Baal." Is it not clear why capitalists as a class can never have the respect of these men?

(CHRISTOPHER EASTON.

White Bear Lake, Minn.

"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"

TO THE EDITOR: In her article in *THE SURVEY* for March 7 Mrs. Bacon refers to work in a laundry in Evansville. Since it illustrates the "dawn of a better day," further news regarding it may be worth while.

The year's work in this plant seems to me significant as an instance of three things: first, co-operation between an employer and an organization existing to afford girls more abundant life; second, recreational opportunities afforded at the plant; third, the resultant spirit of helpfulness and good-will among the employees.

When Roberta L. Stahr, the efficient secretary of the Y. W. C. A. in Evansville, suggested the White Swan Laundry as a good field for industrial work, the only stipulation made by the management in negotiations with them was that we should not organize a labor union. As soon as they became familiar with the methods and purpose of the Y. W. C. A., their co-operation was so complete that, at the end of the year, the manager stated that he considered that organization a distinct asset in the business.

One of their problems through the summer months had been the propensity of the girls to loiter on the streets during the noon hour. Instead of posting impotent signs to prevent this, the management beautified the adjoining lot, erected a pergola, set out gardens, and added the cheerful touch of sunflowers along the fence. The alluring benches and swings in this attractive spot were infinitely more effective in solving the problem than hundreds of prohibitive posters.

On hot summer evenings this space became a veritable fairyland, lighted with Japanese lanterns and made festive with cherry-blossom bowers. Here the girls had several successful parties where the men helped in true brotherly style. At these the good times of the men and their wives, with their children playing about, were eclipsed only by the enjoyment of the younger employees—for each girl had brought her "beau," and each man his "girl." What attraction had the public dance or the crowded river excursion when they were having a party of their own in their very own yard! What these affairs meant in their lives was aptly expressed by one girl who said, "I've had tonight the most enjoyable time of my life!"

All the material things, however—the dining-room, the library which has been installed as a branch of the Public Library, the piano which adds to the attractiveness of the noon-meetings—all these would lose their significance were it not for the resultant spirit of good will and kindly fellowship with which the atmosphere seems charged. One day when I commented upon the fine character of the girls a forelady replied: "We aim to take only good girls; but if we find that one is not all that she ought to be, we all try to help her come up to the White Swan standard."

So characteristic was this of the spirit of helpfulness throughout the entire plant that I sometimes find myself praying, "Thy Kingdom come, in every establishment even as it is coming at the White Swan Laundry in Evansville."

VERA CAMPBELL.

South Bend, Ind.

CAPITAL PUNISHMENT

TO THE EDITOR: I am an admirer and a constant reader of your excellent paper, and am in full sympathy with most of the ideas therein expressed. But it seems to me that you, or at least some of your correspondents, are afflicted with the bacillus of unreasonableness which attacks so many reformers.

An extreme instance of what might be called the *mania philanthropica* appears in a letter from your correspondent John Collier, to which you give prominence on page 88 of your issue of April 25. He says, speaking of the execution of the four gunmen, that "the chief actor in this horror of the gunmen is society which produced the gunmen and which now expiates its own crime," etc.

So it seems that society, and not the four gunmen, is responsible for the death of Rosenthal. Society in these United States consists of Mr. Collier, yourself, myself, and about a hundred million others. Therefore, we ought to go to the electric chair for participation in that crime. Mr. Collier may go there if he wishes; I respectfully decline. On second thoughts, it occurs to me that the four gunmen were also part of society and therefore were guilty, on Mr. Collier's own theory, of the one-hundred millionth part of the crime of Rosenthal's murder, and were therefore rightly executed after all.

The theory upon which is based all such slush and gush as is contained in Mr. Collier's letter is that life is the most valuable thing in the world. If that statement is true, then all the heroes and martyrs from the beginning of the world were simply fools.

In fact, there are many things more valuable than life. When war threatens, and the country is in danger, we call upon the best and bravest in the land to come forward and face death in the battle field, and if they do not come voluntarily, we compel them to come by conscription. It is the duty of every man to give his life when his country demands the sacrifice, and that duty is as incumbent upon the criminal classes as on honest men. Now in what way could the four gunmen have given their lives to the greater advantage of the country than in the electric chair?

Mr. Collier also speaks of punishment being revenge. From whence he gets that theory of the reason of judicial punishment of crime—at least in our days, I do not know. I never heard it before, except to be repudiated.

Crime is punished for the protection of society. The death penalty is inflicted, not only for the removal of those who are a menace to society, but, mainly, as a warning and deterrent to others. If sentence were always executed speedily, and if it invariably followed the

commission of crime, crime would become nearly extinct. Can anyone doubt that New York is a much safer place to live in since the execution of the four gunmen?

All honor to Governor Glynn that he had back-bone enough to resist the appeals for sympathy and mercy. Would that we had more such public men!

A. P. ROSE.

Geneva, N. Y.

TO THE EDITOR: Such polemic discussion as Mr. Rose invites, nearly always brings not light but confusion. My letter on the gunmen was carefully framed and must speak for itself. But as Mr. Rose is a voice from the tomb, and as a good many people must think as he does, otherwise capital punishment would be done away with in New York state, a few more words are in order.

Let us be perfectly clear. Capital punishment is today maintained not as a deterrent but as a revenge. It is more a revenge and less a deterrent than it was in England when they hung corpses by the roadside. With this statement every historian of capital punishment implicitly agrees. In primitive days capital punishment was probably necessary, but the immediate psychological motive back of primitive capital punishment was cruelty, rage and revenge, emotions which are not dead in America in 1914.

Sumner briefly states: "Extreme penalties are [in ancient society] first devised to satisfy public temper." He further shows elaborately that torture, witch-burning and wholesale capital punishment were not devised by statesmanship in the middle ages, or by the church, but were literally forced on the ruling powers by the emotional demands of the mass-mind. But medieval rulers did elaborate, and acted consistently on a theory of deterrent capital punishment, and the motives of revenge and of utility, acting together, resulted in 72,000 hangings in the reign of Henry VIII in England.

William the Conqueror appears to have been the first Englishman who attempted a revision of the forms of capital punishment on the deterrent rather than the revenge theory; he prohibited death by hanging and substituted death by slow mutilation. His successors were consistent, as our modern legislatures are not, and for several hundred years in England capital punishment was meted out for anything more serious than a theft of twenty-four cents. Deterrent jurisprudence ran a similar course on the continent of Europe. "At the end of the eighteenth century the criminal law of all Europe was ferocious in its administration of capital punishment for almost all forms of grave crime. And yet," adds Craies, the English chronicler, "owing to poverty, social conditions, and the inefficiency of the police, such crimes were far more numerous than they now are!"

Primitive capital punishment was limited in its application; only on him who violated the tribal taboo was the primitive blood-lust and rage allowed to ex-

pend itself. Our modern states, quailing from that consistent application of the deterrent theory which was pursued by the later middle ages, have gone back to the primitive, and have statutorily enacted a limited number of taboos, principally the murder-taboo, and with every electrocution, fanned out of its slumbering night by the daily press, the primitive emotion arouses again.

Now, this statement of elementary history brings us to Mr. Rose's crucial misunderstanding, though I admit that the opponents of capital punishment have given an excuse for the misunderstanding through the fact that their arguments have been largely from the standpoint of the criminal who is done to death, not of the society which is de-educated and demoralized by the spectacle of capital punishment.

Mr. Rose says: "The theory upon which is based all such slush and gush . . . is that life is the most valuable thing in the world." I, for example, believe in a quite extensive application of euthanasia; I believe in the neo-Malthusian propaganda; I am concerned about the deaths from industrial accidents, from dark tenements, the death of several hundred children each year, crushed by vehicles while trying to play on the streets of New York, where, incidentally, they are forced to become criminals. I am not concerned about the death of gunmen in Sing Sing. But who, save one socially dead, could have failed to be aware of the morbid horror and—yes—the vaguely acknowledged exultation in horror, which was spread through New York city during the week of the gunmen's last struggle and their elaborately depicted death in the chair? And who, except one dead to modern psychological knowledge, can doubt that such an event means a waste of the results of civilization itself, beside which any number of mere physical deaths is of trifling importance?

The death penalty must end.

JOHN COLLIER.

[People's Institute]
New York City.

EXPERIENCE IN A SCHOOL FIRE

TO THE EDITOR: As a member of the Anti-tuberculosis League of the Oranges I was superintending exhibits held in the auditoriums of the public schools. On February 27, 1913, we had an exhibit for West Orange, N. J., in the auditorium of what was practically the fourth story of the high school, a brick building. At 8 p. m., on account of rain, only about thirty persons were present.

On entering I noticed smoke and was told that the janitor was burning rubbish in the furnace. Almost immediately the fire gong rang. We all started for the stairs at the left of the stage as those on the right had been cut off by locked gates. At the bottom of the stairs, between the third and fourth stories, I turned back to see if the room had been emptied.

When I again descended the lights were out and I became separated from the crowd. There were no fire-escapes, the stairs were impossible because of smoke, and so to save my life I was

obliged to jump from a window twenty-five feet above the ground. I shall feel some effects from the injury I received all my life.

Investigation showed that the building was structurally a fire trap. A number of the beams inside were wood, most of ceilings and walls were sheathed with varnished pine and the floors were wood oiled. Stairs had slate treads and risers built into brick walls and a small flight of wooden steps led from the first to the second story. At each story the stair shafts opened directly into the halls. When the auditorium was in use gates were put across the halls to keep people from straying into the building.

The cause of the fire was probably spontaneous combustion from oily rags in the manual training room in the basement. From there it spread into the woodwork of the first story hall and then to the wooden partitions in the second story before it broke out, cutting off the stairways.

Three persons besides myself were injured. The remainder escaped by means of ladders from the second story. Only the soaking rain saved a good portion of the town from being burned.

The Oranges were the gainers by the fire because subsequent investigation showed that most of the schoolhouses were deficient in fire protection. Assembly rooms were closed that had been hitherto open to the public. A standard of construction was established far ahead of that required by the school building code of 1912 which is not retroactive, and West Orange will have a new high school with an auditorium on the ground floor of what is practically a separate building. Many of the other school buildings have been overhauled and defective fire conditions remedied.

The Oranges stand today in a position that without the fire it would have taken them years to achieve.

Every week school houses are being burned because of faulty construction and inadequate fire protection. Meanwhile we are urging their use as social centers! Does it not call for every effort on our part to make our schools safer places for the general public as well as for the children? Can we not have some discussion on this topic with a view to stirring up sentiment for legislation that will make it obligatory to have all assembly rooms on the ground floors and all school buildings properly protected against fire?

MARY EASTWOOD KNEVELS.

West Orange, N. J.

OPPORTUNITIES FOR GRADUATES

TO THE EDITOR: One of the most notable things at the National Conference of Charities this year was the continual reference to the need of more and better institutional care of the feeble-minded. It seems certain that, within the next ten years, most of the existing institutions will be much extended, and that there will be created ten, twenty, or thirty new state schools, colonies, etc., and possibly many city and county institutions as well. These will require su-

perintendents, assistants, stewards, teachers, head farmers, engineers and many other officers. For the best success all these must have had experience in dealing with the feeble-minded. At any rate those who have had such experience will surely have the preference.

In one state, wherein the system of county industrial colonies for the trained imbeciles has been begun, development is halted because of the impossibility of finding trained and experienced men and women for the responsible positions to be created.

There is only one way to get the knowledge of the feeble-minded character needed, and that is by actual work among them. The place to begin is at the bottom of the ladder, by working as an attendant in personal care of the children in a state or private institution.

The position of attendant involves much hard, confining and disagreeable work. But it is no harder nor less agreeable than that of a nurse in the early part of her training. Any bright, well-educated young man or woman, with the proper personality, who has had the benefit of one of the schools of philanthropy, can easily get a position as attendant; and if he, or she, has good health, industry, good nature, tact, and a little patience, can be sure of promotion and of a satisfactory position in a very few years.

Few of those now working as attendants have had the education necessary for the responsible positions. Many of them are little better than "hospital rounders." They move from institution to institution, secure of finding a job at a few days' notice in any of the states. Mostly they are looking for soft jobs.

The opportunities in this field for good and useful work leading to honorable and fairly well-paid positions, are, in the writer's opinion, unexcelled in social work.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

Vineland, N. J.

Church and Community

[Continued from page 343.]

All of the recommendations concerning prison reform, which embody the most modern and advanced ideas in dealing with criminals, were severally adopted, and then the entire matter was recommitted to an enlarged committee to report to the next assembly.

A memorial cottage for tubercular patients to be established at Albuquerque, N. M., was again commended to the generosity of the church. The assembly refused to pass on the matter of vivisection; and refused to soften its accustomed disapproval of all Sunday amusements and sports by the introduction of the adjective "commercialized."

Hearty endorsement was given to all of the recommendations of the Committee on Temperance. The body declared against the cigarette, in favor of all anti-liquor legislation, with Secretary Daniels in his insistence on a "dry" navy, and as insisting "that any member of the church should resign from any club licensed to sell liquors."

Again, as in 1910, the assembly declared itself on Christian faith and

social service. This year the same report was approved by the Assemblies of the Presbyterian Church South, the United Presbyterian Church and the Associate Reformed Synod. The report contains six statements of belief whose general tone appears in the following:

"Inasmuch as all evils, social and individual, have their source in human sin and selfishness, they can be remedied only by the divinely appointed plan for salvation from sin and through the divinely given motive which is the love begotten in our hearts through God's great love for us in the gift of his Son."

With regard to all forms of social impurity the Committee on the White Slave Traffic (this name was acknowledged to be a misnomer) reported, advising that the pulpit fearlessly and consistently oppose all forms of prenatal sin, and enter upon the systematic training of the youth in sexual and social purity.

"The church should organize counter attractions calculated to offset the influence of the dance hall and other places of questionable amusement. Part of each year's program should include thorough and frank conferences with the fathers and mothers, meeting separately, concerning social vice and the need of incessant watchfulness." These and other similar resolutions were adopted by the assembly.

This assembly gave much more time to the consideration of social questions than was devoted to the subject last year at Atlanta, and if one might venture a comparison, showed itself much more sympathetic toward advanced positions, notably in the matter of the social service work of the Home Board. Having had a year to consider these matters and to select their commissioners expressly with a view to declaring their mind, the presbyteries showed themselves as a whole heartily with Dr. Thompson and all of his associates in their progressive policies.

When J. Ross Stevenson declared that "Dr. Thompson had served the church of God as it is given few men to serve her," the assembly leaped to its feet and cheered with waving handkerchiefs. This was not merely a personal tribute to the secretary, but to all of his policies.

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Price 25 Cents

July 4, 1914

Volume XXXII, No. 14



THREE PAGEANTS

St. Louis
Historical

The Nations
of the
East Side

The Prairies
of the
Northwest



FOREST PARK
SAINT LOUIS

MAY 28, 29, 30, 31, Western
Festival

The New York School of Philanthropy

UNITED CHARITIES BUILDING, 105 EAST 22d STREET

EDWARD T. DEVINE, Director

ADMISSION to the one-year or two-year classes of The New York School of Philanthropy for 1914-15 will be by examination only.

Entrance examination will be held on September 7. Registration continues from September 23 to September 29 inclusive. No registrations will be accepted after October 3. The entrance examination held on June 29 required specific answers to the following questions:

- (1) State briefly the significance of the following terms:
Heredity, Congenital, Acquired Characters, Instinct, Environment, Death Rate, Standard of Living, Economic Interpretation of History, Capital (in the economic sense), Defectives, Charity, Probation, and Unearned Increment.
- (2) (a) What do you understand by "a sense of family responsibility"? (b) What social conditions are favorable to its development? (c) Is it, or is it not, desirable that it should be developed?
- (3) Describe the racial composition of the population of the United States, giving the approximate period for the entrance of each element named.
- (4) Do you consider that drunkenness, prostitution, crime and pauperism are due mainly to "depravity", or to "bad conditions"? State briefly the reasons for your opinion.
- (5) What was the "Industrial Revolution"? To what social and economic problems has it given rise?
- (6) What determines wages? Is it the productive efficiency of labor, or the standard of living, or the supply of and demand for labor, or the abundance or scarcity of capital? How is the income of wage-earners influenced by the tariff, by trade unions, by industrial education, by governmental regulation of trusts and monopolies, by immigration, by restriction of immigration, by the existence of labor bureaus, industrial commissions, etc.
- (7) How is your home city or town governed? Mention five officials of your local government and state briefly the duties of each.
- (8) Tell what you know of the method of caring for the "dependent classes" in your community, restricting yourself to one special group and explaining also what seems to you would be the best treatment of such a group.
- (9) Trace the relationship in four instances between any discoveries or advances in scientific knowledge and personal welfare among people of small incomes.
- (10) What contribution, if any, has the study of psychology to make to social work?

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1. *Social Work*. (Two hours) MR. DEVINE.
2. *Individuals and Families*. (Four hours). MR. LEE AND MR. THURSTON.
3. *Modern Industrial Conditions*. (Two hours).
A. *Standards and Problems*. First Term: MISS VAN KLEECK.
B. *Workers and the Law*. Second Term: MR. LINDSAY.
4. *Statistics in Social Work*. (Two hours) MISS CLAGHORN.
5. *Types of Social Work*. (Three hours). Various lectures.
6. *Hygiene and Preventable Disease*. (One hour). DR. MILLER.
7. *Field Work*. (Twelve hours). MRS. WORTHINGTON.
8. *Excursions, with Conferences*. MRS. WORTHINGTON.

Second Year

11. *Social Work*. (Two hours). MR. DEVINE.
12. A. *Enforcement of Social Legislation*. MR. LINDSAY.
12. B. *Administration of Social Agencies*. MR. CLEVELAND.
13. *Seminar, with Thesis* (Two hours) and *Field Work* (Twenty hours) in one of the following subjects:
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G. *Delinquency and Prison Reform*. MR. LEWIS.
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Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 14

Contents

July 4, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

MASSACHUSETTS BOARD FIXING MINIMUM WAGES	355
SAFETY-AT-SEA IN DANGER OF CONGRESS	355
A PAGEANT OF THE MELTING POT	356
A PAGEANT OF THE PRAIRIES	357
THE WOMEN'S BIENNIAL: SOCIAL SYMPATHY AND PUBLIC POLI- CIES, By Graham Taylor	358
THE CLAYTON BILL AND ORGANIZED LABOR, By Edwin Witte	360

CONTRIBUTED ARTICLES

WHEN THE SHIP GOES DOWN	Thomas I. Parkinson	361
A CARTOONIST OF SOCIAL UNREST		364
"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"—IX. DEFEAT AND THE FIGHT RENEWED	Albion Fellows Bacon	366
THE PAGEANT AND MASQUE OF ST. LOUIS	Charlotte Rumbold	372
THE NEW HEALTH	Edward T. Devine	376
EDITORIALS		379
THE BILL OF RIGHTS	George W. Alger	380

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THE SURVEY is a weekly journal of constructive philanthropy, founded in the 90's by the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York. The first weekly issue of each month appears as an enlarged magazine number.

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Price

Single copies of this issue twenty five cents. Cooperating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents.

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The GIST of IT—

PRESENT indications are that a safety-at-sea bill will not be passed at this session of Congress. To get before the House, any bill must have a special rule, and Congress wants no special rules for fear of one requiring it to vote on prohibition. Page 355.

SAFETY-AT-SEA is backward enough, but liability-at-sea lags behind safety. If the boat goes down, passengers and shippers can recover only to the value of freight money. In the United States, the owners of the Titanic were liable for only \$90,000 while in England they were liable for \$3,000,000. Page 361.

MASSACHUSETTS has fixed its first minimum wage—\$8.71 a week in brush-making. Candy-making will come next. Page 355.

ALL St. Louis took part in the pageant and masque which showed the chief events in the city's history from the mound builders on, and forecasted the future of a united and aspiring community. Page 372.

INDIAN music by real Indians was one of the vivid parts of the Pageant of the Northwest given at the University of North Dakota. An open-air theater was dedicated. Page 357.

IN New York, pretty nearly all the tribes and races of men took part in the Pageant of the Nations. Page 356.

THE labor provisions of the Clayton bill reviewed by Edwin Witte. Page 360.

THE Bill of Rights seems to have gone by the board because it is not practical, says George W. Alger, and the Industrial Relations Commission could render no more valuable service than to get the facts about it. Page 380.

THE Greeks of old in their harmony, and the Jews in their cleanliness, had a health ideal. But we are only beginning to develop one, Mr. Devine shows. By fighting disease and by overcoming conditions that take toll of efficiency we are making toward "a society of healthy, vigorous, self-reliant and yet mutually interdependent fellow citizens." Page 376.

IN their biennial meeting at Chicago, the club women of the country set their faces squarely toward high ideals of public service. Professor Taylor's review of the sessions. Page 358.

MRS. BACON'S story of how one woman, with a few men to help, fought a state housing law half through the Indiana Legislature and lost. And of the campaign that followed to line up all the club women of the state behind it, and of the men who joined with the women for the next session. Page 366.

THE cartoons of Biro, a Hungarian whose work is described as a veritable mirror of the proletarian movement. Page 364.



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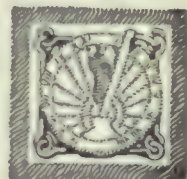
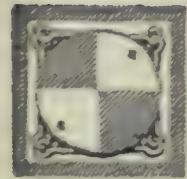
INDEX FOR VOLUME XXXI

The index for Volume XXXI (October 1,
1913 to March 31, 1914) is ready for mail-
ing. It is regularly mailed to libraries only.
Copies will be sent to other subscribers on
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THE SURVEY, 105 East 22d Street, New York

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



MASSACHUSETTS BOARD FIXING MINIMUM WAGES

THE FIRST WAGE BOARD established in Massachusetts under the minimum wage law, the Brush Makers' Wage Board, has presented its report to the Massachusetts Minimum Wage Commission.

The board finds \$8.71 a week, or \$453 a year, to be the minimum "without which no girl worker can supply the necessary cost of living and maintain herself in health." The following estimates in a girl's cost of living are supplied by the board:

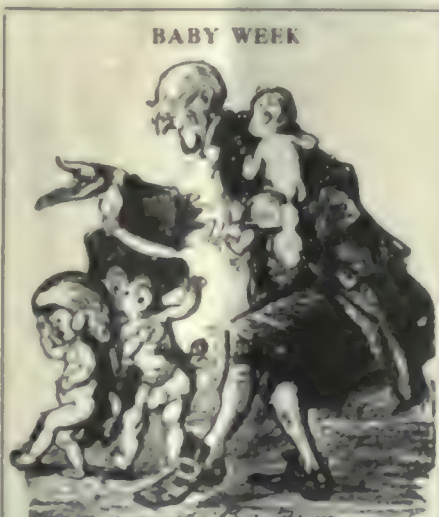
Board and lodging	\$5.25
Clothing (\$75 per year)	1.44
Laundry	.80
Doctor and dentist...	.20
Church	.10
Newspapers and magazines	.16
Vacation	.19
Recreation—moving pictures once a fortnight	.05
Theatre once a month.....	.12
Cartages	.70

The board has had before it the difficult task of setting minimum rates of wages in the brush industry, one of the industries in Massachusetts which pays the lowest wages to women. The annual report of the Minimum Wage Commission points out that after a study made of the wage records of every woman in every brush factory in Massachusetts, two-thirds of the women were found to be earning less than \$6 a week, 42 per cent less than \$5 a week, and 18 per cent less than \$4 a week.

The raising of these rates to those which might make up the \$8.71 a week necessary to maintain a girl's physical efficiency is difficult. It was the opinion of the wage board that the raise could not be made with too great suddenness, on account of the danger of permanently harming the industry. Consequently it recommended to the commission, which has the power to review its findings, an hourly rate of 15½ cents, to go into effect at once, and a rate of 18 cents at the end of the year, unless the brush manufacturers prove to the commission that such an increase is impracticable.

After a public hearing on the proposed rates, on June 29, the Minimum Wage Commission, in case it sets its final stamp of approval upon the rates, will proceed to put them in force according to the provisions of the Massachusetts law.

The second wage board established by the commission, the Candy Makers' Wage Board, is still in session. The meeting of the board on July 22 was addressed by Justice H. B. Higgins, of the Commonwealth Arbitration Court of Australia. Justice Higgins, who is making a short stay in this country, has been for several years on the bench of the Australian Arbitration Court, and has dealt constantly with interstate disputes arising over the determinations of the Australian state wage boards.



Robinson in New York Tribune.

While the Greater New York Baby Week Campaign included much instruction and many events for the mothers and babies of the congested districts, its biggest aim was to reach the great middle class of mothers. It is hoped through the publicity work to bring about the same attitude toward the Board of Health that this class now has toward the Board of Education. In other words, it is hoped to make these mothers feel that it is just as natural for them to go to milk stations for advice as it is to send their children to the public schools.

SAFETY-AT-SEA IN DANGER OF CONGRESS

How LONG will Congress delay the passage of much needed legislation to ensure the safety of life at sea?

This question looms larger as the present session wears on, with members growing anxious for adjournment, and with a general undercurrent of feeling against taking up any bill not included in the administration's program. The LaFollette and recently reported Alexander seamen's and sea safety bills are not among the measures on which President Wilson demands action before the members of the House and Senate go home to mend their political fences.

The LaFollette seamen's bill which passed the Senate on October 23, 1913, has been amended after eight long months have passed, reported by the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries, and is now on the legislative calendar. There it will stay unless a special rule is reported out to permit its immediate consideration.

The bringing out of a special rule to get consideration of the seamen's and sea safety bills is doubtful. There is a fight on in the House against voting on prohibition at this session, most of the Democratic members wishing this subject to go over and not to trouble them in the fall elections.

If a special rule is brought out to permit the immediate consideration of the seamen's bill, the bars will have been let down and there will be an insistent demand for a similar rule to hasten a vote on the national prohibition resolution. Therefore, a large number of the majority members have started a movement to kill the chances for getting special rules on any and all subjects. Only public demand will awaken the members of the House to the need of getting a sea safety law on the statute books now.

The sea safety bill which has been reported to the House is a radically amended form of the LaFollette bill. It has both good and bad points. The important thing now is to get the bill out on the floor where amendments can be discussed.

Photo by Hine



BOHEMIAN FOLK DANCE
IN SOKOL HALL, NEW
YORK CITY

Supporters of the LaFollette bill are vigorous in their criticism of the House committee bill, contending that it was drafted by such expert hands that the layman cannot readily see how seriously it lowers the standard of safety. Andrew Furuseth, president of the International Seamen's Union, who is the author of several of the important features of the LaFollette bill as it passed the Senate, is plain spoken in discussing these weaknesses of the House bill, but wants to get the measure considered at this session so that there will be chance for its amendment. Mr. Furuseth's chief objection is that the House bill provides for three or more able "life boat men" to man each life boat, instead of "two able seamen," which is the labor feature of the LaFollette bill. Mr. Furuseth's attitude toward the House bill will be reflected in the minority report on the bill which at the time of writing is in the course of preparation by Representative James W. Bryan, of Washington.

Mr. Bryan, in an analysis of the bill for *THE SURVEY*, said:

"In my minority report I shall recommend the adoption of La Follette bill, Senate 136. The committee bill which is offered as a substitute is based very largely on the recent London Convention. It does not pretend to prescribe safety provisions for foreign vessels in American ports. This means that the bill, if enacted into law, is to affect only a small percentage of the vessels that carry American passengers to and from American ports. In the Great Lakes, vessels from Chicago and other American ports to Canadian ports are not to be in any way affected by the bill, as to safety at sea. The supposed restrictions placed by the law on shipping is to affect only American bottoms.

"American vessels in trans-ocean traffic are to have safety provisions for all on board, but this does not mean life boats for all on board. Seventy-five per cent of this safety apparatus is to be in boats and the balance in rafts. The manning of the boats and the specification for their construction are subject to provisions that weaken the requirements of the LaFollette bill on that point as well as on the number of boats.

"Vessels, whose course of travel is within twenty miles from shore are to have 37½ per cent life boats, 37½ per cent life rafts and no per cent whatever for the remaining 25 per cent of passengers. Those vessels, which sail within twenty miles from shore, furnish by far the greatest number of wrecks and the largest toll of disaster. On the Great Lakes vessels which sail within three miles from the shore are not affected by the life boat provisions of the bill. There are no requirements as to such vessels. Beyond three miles on the Great Lakes vessels are to carry 20 per cent life boat protection, 30 per cent life raft protection and the remaining 50 per cent no protection whatever.

"The manning of these life boats and life rafts is to be effected by certified life boat men. The experience and training required of men before they can receive such a certificate is nil, but the proposed substitute does require that applicants for such certificate by the examined in launching and rowing life boats, no term of service on the sea is required. The bill prescribes that three of these certified life boat men must be assigned to a life boat with passenger capacity up to sixty; four are required for life boats holding from sixty to eighty-five passengers; and so on up to seven for boats holding 160 to 210.

"I do not believe it would be creditable for Congress to pass any such measure as this as a response to a demand for safety at sea."

A Pageant of the Melting Pot

THE FESTIVAL AND PAGEANT of Nations conducted during the first week in June by the People's Institute of New York city answered two questions that had been puzzling those who arranged it.

It showed, first, that foreigners in New York are willing to show their native songs, dances, costumes—in a word, to reveal their national art—to Americans. And it showed that Americans, with no folk-lore of their own, no traditions, no specific expressions of mood in music, movement or color, are willing to come and see.

Every evening for a week groups of Irish, Bohemian, Croatian, Polish, Ruthenian, Jewish and Italian children and grown people occupied the platform at Public School 63, lower East Side, with snatches from their national art, arranged and rehearsed for this occasion. They had made many of their own costumes and prepared their own programs. At the end of the week a daylight ensemble of all these groups, with Dutch, Germans and Hungarians added, was held out-doors. There was music, marching and more dancing and great numbers of foreigners and non-foreigners looked on and clapped.

"But to me the wonderful part of the affair was not the physical demonstrations, not the applause of the spectators," said Nora Van Leeuwen, who acted for the People's Institute in planning the pageant. "It was the big grin on the faces of the participants—a grin that appeared the moment they started and that remained when everybody had gone."

When Miss Van Leeuwen first tried to interest the foreign societies in the pageant she was met with both enthusiasm and suspicion—a childlike desire to show their art, but a secret feeling that none but their own people would come.

"What does America care for our national customs?" she was asked.

Slowly the immigrant's confidence was won, however, and the week's success was made evident by the eagerness of the leaders to know when the next pageant was to be. One after another they prophesied that they would make the second far more beautiful and revealing than the first.

A Pageant of the Prairies

A PAGEANT of unusual interest was produced on the prairies of North Dakota the last week in May. Not only were the parts mainly taken by students in the University of North Dakota, but the text was written by eighteen undergraduates in collaboration. This Pageant of the Northwest is thus perhaps unique in its communal authorship. It was given in connection with the annual meeting of the Mississippi Valley Historical Association.

The idea of the pageant came from O. G. Libby, professor of history at the university, who furnished historical material. Its successful carrying out was due to the enthusiasm and activity of the student Sock and Buskin Society, and in large measure to Frederick H. Koch, professor of dramatic literature and oratory and founder of the society.

Three hundred persons in costume took part. The first scene depicted the explorer Radisson in the London Guild Hall at the formation of the Hudson Bay Company. Then came episodes in the achievements of La Salle and Verendrye, the first white man to follow the northern course of the Missouri river into what is now North Dakota.

The Lewis and Clark expedition was finally presented, concluding with the figure of Sakakawea, the bird-woman whose leadership brought the expedition over the mountains to the sea, and whose achievement was "an embodiment of the undaunted will and the

friendliness of the homes of our great Northwest."

Historical facts were strictly followed. Many speeches were in their original form. Native Indian music, recorded by Harold A. Loring, collector of Indian songs and folklore for the United States government, was introduced. And a group of full blooded Chippewas with their costumes, trappings and instruments were brought from the Turtle Mountain reservation to take speaking parts in the scene.

The pageant was made the occasion of the dedication of an open air theater on the campus of the university. It has been established by the Sock and Buskin Society, and the name, Bankside Theater was suggested, according to Professor Koch, by its location on the banks of a stream where in years long past the Indians met the English fur traders of the Hudson Bay Company, and also by "that region of Old London, known as Bankside, where stood the theater of Shakespeare."



THE SPIRIT OF PROPHECY



PAUGUK, THE FORERUNNER OF DEATH, HOVERING OVER THE INDIAN COUNCIL



PROF. FREDERICK H. KOCH

THE WOMEN'S BIENNIAL: SOCIAL SYMPATHY AND PUBLIC POLICIES—BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

JANE ADDAMS struck the keynote for concerted action at the greatest assemblage of organized womanhood in America. In so doing, she registered the change of key to which women's organizations are setting their programs of discussion and action. It was done on one of those rare occasions when history is seen in the making, when the present is in the act of forecasting the future, when the human spirit experiences a transition more instinctively than consciously—all under the spell of cherished memories of a secure past and under the pressure of an atmosphere surcharged with prophecies and incentives.

It was the twelfth biennial session of the General Federation of Women's Clubs. Chicago's great Auditorium never held an assembly more representative of America's best past and better future. There were 1,823 accredited delegates and other representatives from every state, Alaska, Great Britain and Canada, Japan and the West Indies. The 670 organizations added during the past two years represented the growth of the federation, within whose hospitable fellowship constituent organizations of every type are welcome, from the smaller groups devoted to literature, art and music, to the larger general clubs and suffrage associations.

Miss Addams' reminiscent review of the twenty-four years was prophetic, without intending to be so, of what actually occurred at this most transitional and greatest of all these biennials. Here again were gathered the leaders in that "gigantic quest for the essential elements of culture" which characterized the first biennial.

That quest for culture could now be seen in relation to the social sympathy which is being translated into public policies and political action. Tactful and appreciative emphasis was placed upon the attempt of the earlier clubs "to apprehend and to harmonize our common spiritual heritage as enshrined in poetry, in history, in science, in art, in drama, in music, that it might become a great apparatus for the evocation of cultural life."

It must have been with grateful reassurance that the members of those elder clubs heard Miss Addams refer to her own "short-sightedness" in supposing that their quest for the essential elements of culture "belonged to the irrevocable season of beginnings," and add this attestation:

"Perhaps nothing less universal than those first programs could have made the women's clubs conscious of the tendencies which mark each age for what it is—that summary of its experiences, knowledge, and affections found at the

root of social existence, which is called 'the trend of the times.'"

The members of the newer leagues for civic progress and political equality also profited by her caution and guidance thus well directed:

"It is always easy for a democracy which insists upon writing its own programs to shut out imagination, to distrust sentiment and to make short work of the past. It takes something like a united faith and a collective energy to insist upon their values and to make them operative upon public opinion.

"It is easy to treat lightly this period of club development, but certainly the constant co-ordination of these multiplying specialized studies reacted on the life and character of each community more deeply and intimately than anything less fructifying could."

The program laid all the old emphasis upon art, music, literature, education and library extension, in the general sessions and in the specialized conferences, where the papers, reports and discussions were as high-keyed and attractive as ever.

The next stage of development had its strong counterparts in the present discussions and action. Beginning with the introduction of the kindergarten and domestic science into the public schools, the federation steadily progressed in protesting against child labor, the overwork of women and many another evil of the times. But at no other session has such an array of topics and speakers emphasized the women's imperative insistence upon better industrial and social conditions.

The conferences devoted to their consideration were noteworthy both for their very direct presentation of actual conditions and the eager response given in the discussion and action which follow-

ed. Home economics and public health, housing and social hygiene, naturally led to strong action being taken for the promotion of public policies and legislation based upon the demand of existing conditions and the duty to realize attainable ideals. These actions ranged from a protest against immodest dress, immoral fiction and "ultra modern dances" to the teaching of sex hygiene in the schools, demands for federal and state laws against the liquor traffic and social evil, and the suggestion of constructive legislation to improve industrial conditions and relations.

How alert and alive the constituency is to the demand for better public policies was shown in the roll call for the needs of the states. Here are some of the replies:

Better education, good roads and such conditions that women can stay at home, better rural schools, eugenics, better paid teachers and better protected babies, influx of human element and democracy in clubs and community, suppression of the liquor traffic, reduction of illiteracy by compulsory school laws, improved civic consciousness, uniform marriage and divorce laws, better treatment of wage workers and a minimum wage, factory legislation and better treatment of the soil of the state.

Now, as in the past, in many localities, even such live topics as these may continue to be only themes for discussion. Even so they are initiatives. They gather the fuel which the fire of action will sooner or later set aflame. Miss Addams vividly describes the process:

"Society has a curious trick of suddenly regarding as a living issue, vital and unappeasable, some old, outworn theme which has been kicked about for years as mere controversial material. The newly moralized issue, almost as if by accident, suddenly takes fire and sets whole communities in a blaze, lighting up human relations and public duty with new meaning, and transforms abstract social idealism into violent practical demands, although still entangled with the widest human aspiration."

The women's clubs themselves are the best demonstration of this hurrying-up of the evolutionary process. When the time for action came not only were the women's clubs prepared and ready to discuss matters of public policy one after another as they came before the country, but they developed a capacity for corporate action, through parliamentary procedure and the executive ability to bring things to pass, which equaled, if it did not exceed, the same capacity to organize and manage their own households.

This ability to manage on a large scale was tested and attested by this Chicago session of the federation. The local committee's foresight and provision were said to have met every demand, and on demand. The ballots



MRS. PERCY V. PENNYBACKER
Re-elected president General Federation
of Women's Clubs

were counted and the election of all the officers was declared two hours after the polls closed. The endowment fund of \$100,000 for developing departmental work was completed by raising \$20,000 in a little while one afternoon.

They did it with good comradeship, determination and a sense of humor. The gift of \$100 was announced from "the Matrons' Club," largely composed of women who have had their first baby. One lady gave a like amount, saying, "I have a feeling that my husband wants to give \$100, and, by absent treatment, he is going to give it right now. Another lady gave \$1 for each one of her 76 birthdays.

Discipline and good spirit, which of course had developed on local fields, prepared this vast assemblage for the supreme test of their balance between self-control and loyalty to public policy, which came with the discussions of the conference on civics and the declaration of the federation's attitude on suffrage. The civics conference was marked by the freest, most constructive and suggestive discussions of such questions as these: Civic and Moral Training in the Public Schools, The New Art of City Making, The Use of Public School Buildings as Civic Centers, The Conservation of Forests and Waterways, What Seven Million Women Expect of One Million Women.

It was a trade union glovemaker who represented the 7,000,000 wage-working women, whose "going out to work," away from home and often at the expense of home, makes possible the new independence of all women at home and in a newly recognized economic status of their own. At this point the program lacked more than at any other. For women of leisure and culture owe it to wage-earning women to see that the economic and political equality up to which the working women's industrial independence led, costs their homes and children less than it has.

The living and working conditions of women and children are more and more riveting the attention of the women's clubs, but there is still occasion and need for them to discuss the question which Miss Addams has put up to them: "Have the women's clubs also learned to enlarge their definition of culture until at last it includes the abolition of all social injustice?"

She smoothed the way on the first evening of the session for the rapidly accumulating and irrepressibly insistent demand for some declaration of the federation's attitude toward suffrage. She said:

"When that wave of civic emotion surged into the focus of attention—as it is now high through the length and breadth of the nation—which had for its watchword 'the City Beautiful,' it was most important that there had long been municipal art committees, that pub-

lic schools had been supplied with good pictures, that trees had been planted in barren towns, that club women had been instrumental in saving the Palisades on the Hudson river, and in establishing a national park. It all gave reality and background to the movement.

"When the new social imperative, entitled 'Know Your City,' gathered momentum and won acceptance far and wide, so that under its impulse and sanction there is inquiry into the facts and tendencies of city life, it was again important that women everywhere had been taught the value of inspecting milk and food, the needlessness of tuberculosis, the necessity for good factory conditions, the possibilities of garden cities.

"They found that it was necessary to command a public opinion not only in the city or state in which the reform was needed, but throughout the country, so that any organization less widespread than the Federation of Women's Clubs, with interests less universal, would have availed but little.

"VOTES FOR WOMEN"

RESOLUTION PASSED BY THE
FEDERATION

"Whereas, the question of political equality of men and women is today a vital problem under discussion throughout the civilized world; therefore be it

"Resolved, that the General Federation of Women's Clubs give the cause of political equality its moral support by recording its earnest belief in the principle of political equality regardless of sex."

"All these efforts to give effective expression to new demands, demonstrating as they do the dependence of the political machine for its driving force upon many varieties of social fuel, make clear woman's need for a larger political participation. Without the franchise, woman is suddenly shut out of the game—the game played all over the world by statesmen, who at this moment are attempting to translate the new social sympathy into political action."

This was said on the first day. On the fourth day, Saturday, the irrepressible issue came to issue. The president had publicly given her word that neither this proposed resolution nor any other coming in an orderly way before the house should be in any way suppressed. The Illinois delegation had resolved to inform the General Federation through its secretary that it endorsed political equality for men and women. In the breathless attention of the crowded house the chairman of the committee on resolutions presented the women's suffrage resolution.

The president's clear voice rang out, as her gavel fell, after the overwhelming majority of affirmative votes: "The ayes seem to have it—the ayes have it." Then the assembly rose to its feet as by common consent. Songs broke forth, first Julia Ward Howe's "Mine eyes have

seen the glory of the coming of the Lord." The Illinois delegation chanted the state hymn, Illinois. They had occasion to sing it again when the announcement was made later that the Illinois Supreme Court had just declared the woman's suffrage act constitutional.

But when the big majority had gone far enough to express their enthusiasm, the president summarily cut off excessive demonstration, and afterwards declared it in order to spread upon the minutes the protest of the minority against any impression that the endorsement of equal suffrage was unanimous, which claimed that not only those opposed to woman's suffrage, but some favoring it, deemed endorsement by the federation inexpedient.

At the brilliant banquet given by the Illinois Equal Suffrage Association to nearly 1,000 women, including delegates and local suffragists, the enthusiasm expressed itself in eloquent speech and outbursts of song. When a telegram direct from Rome, brought the news that the International Council of Women, including representatives of twenty nationalities, had endorsed equal suffrage, the whole assembly instinctively arose and sang "Praise God from whom all blessings flow." This capped the climax of the spontaneous response to the three-fold endorsement of suffrage on this one day by the federation, by the State Supreme Court and the International Council.

The final day witnessed a unique scene. The great auditorium was crowded to its utmost capacity long before the closing session began. The streets were blocked by many hundreds of people disappointed in not gaining entrance. The guest and speaker of honor was the daughter of the President of the United States, Margaret Wilson. She pleaded with force and fervor for making the public school building "a common council chamber" for the people.

Then the re-elected president of the federation, Mrs. Percy V. Pennybacker, was the focus of interest. A native of Virginia and from early girlhood a citizen of Texas, this woman of slender form and erect carriage, of gentle manner and firm will, had for eleven days presided over the great assembly with parliamentary precision, with absolute control over every situation, yet with equal respect for every member's rights, with opinions of her own yet with unbiased fairness.

As the last symbolical act of the long series of great occasions, a jewel casket emblematical of the talisman of the federation was handed by her to her oldest predecessor in the presidency, and again to the guest of honor, Miss Wilson, who passed it to Ruth Pennybacker, who in returning it to her mother declared the talisman to be a word gleaming from the casket in letters of light—"Service."

THE CLAYTON BILL AND ORGANIZED LABOR—BY EDWIN WITTE

ON JUNE 5 the House of Representatives passed the Clayton anti-trust bill by the one-sided vote of 275 to 54. Several sections of this bill make important changes in trade union law. President Gompers, of the American Federation of Labor, has hailed Section 7 as "Labor's Magna Charta"; and he has termed Sections 15 and 23 as "Labor's Bill of Rights." He said editorially:

"Labor's Magna Charta and the Bill of Rights are the most important legislation since the abolition of slavery."

President Gompers claims that since the Supreme Court decision in the Danbury hatters' case in 1908, labor unions have existed only "at the sufferance of the Department of Justice." It was to secure relief from this situation that the American Federation of Labor gave active support to the Democratic party in the campaigns of 1908, 1910, and 1912. The Democratic platforms both of 1908 and 1912 pledged the enactment of legislation to make it clear "that labor organizations and their members should not be regarded as illegal organizations in restraint of trade."

In view of these platform pledges, organized labor was greatly disappointed when there was not a word about exemption of labor unions from the Sherman act, either in the President's address nor in the tentative administration anti-trust bills presented early during the present session of Congress. Then the members of Congress began to hear from their labor union constituents.

In the consolidated Clayton bill, which was favorably reported to the House early in May, labor's demands were met half way. This bill included a paragraph which said:

"That nothing contained in the anti-trust laws shall be construed to forbid the existence and operation . . . of labor organizations, or to forbid or restrain members of such . . . associations from carrying out the legitimate objects thereof."

Organized labor was not satisfied with this first paragraph of Section 7. In a circular letter addressed to members of Congress on May 5, it demanded that this paragraph should be changed to read that the anti-trust laws shall not be construed to apply to labor organizations. Organized labor threatened to carry its fight to the floor of the House, and the newspapers reported that the President would veto the Clayton bill if this amendment were adopted.

A clash between the administration and organized labor, however, was averted in the end. It was agreed that in lieu of the amendment organized labor had insisted upon, there should be added

As a student at the University of Wisconsin and secretary to Congressman Nelson of that state, Mr. Witte has for several years specialized in the study of laws affecting industrial relations. His interpretation of the amendment to the Sherman law which passed the House of Representatives last June is therefore of more than ordinary significance.—Ed.

to the moot Section 7 the following:

"Nor shall the organizations . . . enumerated, or the individual members thereof, be held as illegal combinations in restraint of trade under the anti-trust laws."

This so-called Webb amendment was adopted by a unanimous vote.

During the debate in the House most divergent views were expressed as to the meaning of this Section 7 as amended. Congressman Keating, a member of a labor union, said that organized labor felt that the Webb amendment was more favorable to it than the one it had first demanded. Many members on the other hand insisted that the Webb amendment was needless repetition, and that the section as a whole meant no more than that trade unions are not *per se* unlawful associations under the anti-trust laws. The majority report upon the Clayton bill from the Committee on the Judiciary suggests that the only effect of this section is to render impossible suits for the dissolution of labor unions. The President told the newspaper correspondents that under this section labor unions and their members might still be prosecuted for boycotting and for acts of violence.

The intent of the framers of this bill seems to have been to provide that labor unions and their members shall not be prosecuted under the anti-trust laws for conduct which is lawful at common law. Many believe that this is now the law; but some inferior courts have interpreted the hatters' case to mean that any action of organized labor which does in fact restrain trade, whether it is lawful or unlawful at common law, is rendered unlawful by the Sherman act. Section 7 guards against the danger that this extreme view may prevail.

Most of the decisions which organized labor considers unjust have been based not upon the Sherman act but upon the principles of the common law, and entirely apart from restraint of trade. The trade union boycott, for instance, has been held unlawful at common law in most jurisdictions.

It seems to be the view of the leaders of organized labor that Section 18 of the Clayton bill annuls these decisions based upon common law principles; but

this is doubtful. This section provides that certain conduct, such as quitting work, refusing to patronize any party, peaceful picketing, and peacefully persuading others to do these acts, shall not be considered unlawful by any federal court.

At common law the combining to do acts which are otherwise lawful has often been held to be an unlawful conspiracy. The acts enumerated in Section 18 are not ordinarily unlawful; but the combining to do these acts is unlawful when the intent is to injure an employer or a non-union workman. The majority report of the Committee on the Judiciary states expressly that this section does not in any manner affect the law of conspiracy.

The first paragraph of Section 18 is another labor provision of the Clayton bill whose meaning is doubtful. It enacts that no injunction shall be issued in connection with a labor dispute unless necessary to prevent irreparable injury to property or a property right of the complainant. This has been interpreted by prominent labor leaders as making impossible the issuance of injunctions to protect the employer's right to do business where no injury to tangible property is threatened. The difficulty with this interpretation is that the right to do business has been held by many courts to be property.

The other so-called labor provisions of the Clayton bill are applicable to all restraining orders and injunctions issued by United States courts, regardless of whether they do or do not grow out of labor disputes.

Sections 15-17, according to the Committee on the Judiciary, merely write into statute law the practice now followed by the most progressive judges. When restraining orders are issued without notice, a hearing must be held within ten days thereafter. No injunction may be granted unless the complainant furnishes a bond of such sum as the court may require. Injunctions are required to be specific, and may not prohibit conduct merely by reference to the bill of complaint. Finally, injunctions are to be binding only upon the parties to the dispute and those acting in concert with them.

A great change is made in existing law by Sections 19-23 of the Clayton bill. They provide that when contempt of court for violation of an injunction is charged the accused may demand a jury trial, unless the United States is a party to the suit. These sections further provide that all contempts must be prosecuted within one year after the commission of the act complained of, and fix the maximum penalty which may be imposed for contempt at a fine of \$1,000, or imprisonment for six months. Contempt proceedings, however, are to be no bar to criminal prosecution for the same offense.

When the Ship Goes Down

Liability of Vessel Owners for Losses at Sea

Thomas I. Parkinson

COLUMBIA UNIVERSITY

IF a New York-Chicago "flyer" leaves the track and plunges to destruction carrying to death or personal injury its passengers and crew, our laws, both state and federal, provide that the victims—the injured and the dependents of the killed—may recover their full damages out of the general assets of the railroad company. The railroad carrier is an insurer of the traveler's safety and this fact is largely responsible for the economic argument in favor of railroad "safety first" campaigns.

What would now be said of an act of Congress providing that the liability of the company, if any, should be limited in amount to the value of the wrecked train as it lay at the bottom of the embankment, plus the amount of the ticket money paid by its passengers?

Impossible as such a rule seems when applied to carriage by land, it states precisely the effect of the ship-owner's limited liability laws enacted by Congress and constantly applied by our admiralty courts. For the frightful loss of life and property involved in the wreck of the *Titanic* the liability of the owner, under our laws, is limited to \$90,000. This sum represents the amount of the pending freight money for the fatal voyage. Under the English law, the owners of the *Titanic* are liable for nearly \$3,000,000.

Victims of this disaster sought to have our courts apply the English rule in determining the amount of the owner's liability and secured a ruling to that effect by Judge Holt in the district court; but the Supreme Court of the United States, in an opinion handed down May 25th, declares that whenever our courts are resorted to for a remedy in such cases, the limited liability rules established by Congress will be applied. Therefore, until Congress acts by repealing or amending these rules, claimants in our courts can recover damages for ship accidents only to the extent of the value of the wreck and the pending freight. This is true even though as in the *Titanic* case the owner is liable, under the laws of the country whose flag the ship flies, for a much greater amount.

Briefly stated, our law provides that if the owner surrenders the wrecked vessel and pays into court the pending freight, he is relieved from all further liability. If the vessel is lost, he is obliged to pay only the pending freight. Insurance money payable to the owner for the loss of the ship is not available to the damage claimant. Therefore, where the vessel is lost or seriously dam-

aged there can be no substantial recovery.

These rules are applied as well to inland river and bay navigation as to the Great Lakes, coastwise and foreign trade. There is no need for further illustration of their operation. They are simple and subject to almost no exception. Their effect is to leave passengers, crew and shippers without redress for losses by accident unless they have the foresight to insure themselves.

The laws of the United States are not peculiar in limiting the owner's financial responsibility. Practically all maritime nations have adopted the limited liability

THE loss of the Titanic aroused public interest in the general subject of safety at sea. The recent decision of the United States Supreme Court that the liability of the owners of the Titanic for damages to the victims of that disaster is limited to the sum of \$90,000, whereas their liability under the English laws is in the neighborhood of \$3,000,000, has directed attention to the present state of our limited liability laws in admiralty.

WHEN Senator Smith was preparing his report on the Titanic disaster he obtained the services of the Legislative Drafting Bureau of Columbia University to assist him in the formulation of bills to carry out the recommendations of his report respecting the construction, equipment and operation of vessels. Subsequently, at the request of individuals whose interest in the matter grew out of personal bereavement due to the Titanic disaster, the Drafting Bureau undertook a study of the nature and extent of the ship-owner's liability to damages for such losses. The purpose of this study was to appreciate the effect in operation of our laws, to present some of the possibilities of amending them, and to suggest the problems involved in the drafting of amendments. Though obviously demanded by simple justice to passengers and crew, nothing has been done to bring about such amendments.

IN all the thousands of bills introduced in Congress since the Titanic disaster none provides for placing on ship-owners a substantial liability to answer in damages for losses occurring by accident at sea.

—EDITOR.

principle. It is a principle of public policy. The early Roman and common law knew no such limitation. It was developed in the Middle Ages and had become the settled law of continental Europe even before its incorporation in the Napoleonic Code of 1808. It was incorporated from an earlier statute into the English Merchant Shipping Act of 1854. It was adopted in this country in 1851 by an act of Congress obviously based on the English statute, and it has been perfected as an instrument for the protection of the ship-owners by subsequent amendment and judicial interpretation.

Though the principle of limited liability is now universally accepted, there are important differences in the nature of the limitation and its amount. Our laws are substantially in accord with those of France and Germany in permitting the owner to abandon the vessel and thereby escape all further financial responsibility. Great Britain, though limiting the owner's liability, early developed the rule that the limit should be the value of the vessel before the accident.

The importance of this rule may be appreciated when it is applied to a case like the *Titanic*. The value after the accident was nil; the value before the accident in the neighborhood of \$10,000,000. In 1682, England adopted a rule more definite, more easily applied and at the same time, more favorable to the owner, viz.—that the liability should be limited to a fixed sum per registered ton of the vessel. Under this rule the owner is liable for £8 or £15 per ton of the vessel's tonnage according to whether claims are for loss of property, or for loss of life, or both.

Though our act of Congress was modeled on the English laws, its language was sufficiently different to justify our admirably courts in interpreting it as limiting the owner's liability to the value of the vessel after the accident rather than immediately before. The result is that under our law, the fate of the vessel practically determines whether claimants recover any substantial damages. Under the English law the owner's liability is not defeated or even affected by the fact that the ship itself is no longer available for the satisfaction of damages.

If a great ship-owning country like England finds it wise policy to impose such substantial liability for losses at sea, it is difficult to understand why the United States, furnishing passengers and cargo rather than ships, should provide

such comparatively inadequate financial responsibility to secure redress to shippers and the traveling public. The late Senator Rayner in addressing the Senate on the occasion of the presentation of the *Titanic* report, said:

"No matter how many suits are brought in the state court, no matter how many suits may be brought in the federal courts, the owners of that ship, no matter how able they may be financially to answer in damages, can go into the federal courts, sue out an injunction, have a trustee appointed, bring the ship if it exists—of course, in this case the ship is gone—bring pending freight into court, and escape all liability whatever for injury to passengers, for injury to goods, or for any cause whatever.

"That is the statute that is now upon the statute books of the United States. It ought to be repealed or modified. There is no reason on earth why it should continue. When it was passed it was thought to afford an invitation to ship-owners to take to the sea and risk the hazardous character of the adventure, but I apprehend there is no more danger on the sea now than there is on land; and if these statutes are not repealed there certainly ought to be some modification of them."

Old Laws—New Conditions

We are at present scrutinizing ancient rules of law and testing them from the point of view of their effect in operation as securing justice to the individual. Does this limited liability principle operate to secure substantial justice? Are modern conditions the same as those under which it was first developed? At that time shipping was generally carried on by merchants or independent owners. A single ship frequently represented an owner's entire business investment and limited liability was an encouragement to venture in the hazardous business of navigation.

Much of our modern shipping is carried on by extensive corporations, such as the North German Lloyd, Hamburg-American and the International Mercantile Marine. These companies frequently invest heavily in a single ship, but that ship seldom represents a very large part of their entire capital. The loss of a ship like the *Titanic* is, of course, a matter of serious concern, but it does not involve the extreme hardships to which the loss of his single vessel subjected the owner in earlier times.

Moreover, the hazards of navigation have been greatly reduced through governmental activity in improving harbors, removing obstructions, marking channels, placing signals, making accurate charts, patrolling ice-fields and destroying derelicts. Wooden sailing vessels have been replaced by modern steamships. Voyages which took months have been reduced to days. General use of wireless telegraph, submarine signals, prescribed lanes, and the increase of speed, bring steamships into closer com-

munication and give to the ship-owner a control over his vessel which in so far as the prevention of accidents goes, is equivalent to that exercised by the operating department of a railroad over its moving trains. It can no longer be said that the control of the ship-owner ceases when the vessel passes beyond the horizon.

These circumstances suggest for serious consideration the desirability of repealing the special privilege enjoyed by water carriers as compared with carriers on land. If repeal be unwise or impossible, it is at least possible and seems desirable, to modify these laws as now applied in the United States so that irrespective of the value of the vessel after the accident, there may be some substantial fund to which claimants may have recourse.

The adoption by Congress of the English rule has been advocated by the Limited Liability Committee of the Maritime Law Association of the United States. The committee declares the change essential to work justice to the owner as well as to the passenger. Their report says:

"A fixed rate per ton furnishes the nearest practicable approach to equality of responsibility among all vessels in performing similar services and for damage claims incurred in performing them."

This recommendation has not been urged upon Congress and there are no bills pending to carry it into effect.

Conflict of varying rules resulting from the fact that vessels enter territorial waters and become subject to the jurisdiction of several different nations, suggests the desirability of adopting by international agreement a uniform rule governing the nature and amount of the owner's financial responsibility, just as the London Conference recently prepared such an agreement as to rules governing the construction, equipment and operation of vessels in the interest of increasing safety at sea.

The International Agreement

The problem has already received consideration at several diplomatic conferences and a tentative draft of an international convention which substantially adopts the English rule has been prepared. It was expected that another international conference dealing with this subject would be held in Brussels in September, 1913, and an appropriation was made by Congress to pay the expenses of delegates representing the United States. Congressman Montague, of Richmond, Va., Edwin W. Smith, Esq., of Pittsburg, Pa., and Judge Ward, of the Circuit Court for the New York District, were named as delegates from this country. The conference was postponed, however, and has not yet been held.

Prior to the conference an effort ought

to be made to develop a public opinion respecting the questions of policy involved in reaching an international agreement. The interests not only of the ship-owner and the cargo but of the traveling public as well, should be represented. Agreements involve compromises. If the United States, Great Britain, France and Germany along with the other maritime nations are to reach an agreement as to the rule which should in future be applied in cases like the *Titanic*, it is obvious that the position of the United States must be either to help France and Germany to compromise England down to the lower limit provided by these continental countries or to help England to compromise Germany and France up to the higher limit provided by the English law.

Policy of the U. S.

If our delegates are to exercise any influence upon the terms of an international agreement, they must fix upon a policy which the United States as a nation deems just and desirable from the point of view of owners, shippers, and passengers. Who is to determine what the policy of this country should be? Are our delegates to assume that existing acts of Congress represent our policy on this important subject, or is the State Department to determine the matter and instruct our delegates irrespective of existing acts of Congress?

Of course, there will be ample opportunity for full discussion of the terms of any agreement when it is submitted to the Senate for confirmation; but an intelligent discussion of the subject by Congress and the general public, prior to the formulation of such an agreement seems desirable.

We have no federal legislation fixing the liability of the ship-owner for injury to or the death of a member of his crew. Under the rules applied by our admiralty courts the right of the seaman or his dependents to recover for his injury is extremely limited. The injured seaman is entitled to "maintenance and care, at least during the continuance of the voyage." After the termination of the voyage the disabled seaman or his dependent family can recover nothing for loss of earning power or support except in cases of actual negligence on the part of the owner, for the owner is not liable for the negligence of the master or crew.

Even in cases of the owner's actual negligence, the claim of the seaman or his dependents is subject to the limitation of liability laws which permit the owner to abandon the ship to the claimants and thereby escape personal liability. This means in cases of wreck that even where there is a right to recover, there is no substantial recovery. In the *Titanic* case, for example, any judgment recovered by the crew or their dependents,

shares with other claimants the \$90,000 to which, under the United States law, the owner's liability is limited.

Compare this with the laws of England, France and Germany. In these countries seamen and their dependents are provided for in the workmen's compensation laws. The injured seaman or his dependent receives compensation, irrespective of the circumstances under which the injury occurred and also without regard to the limitation of liability enjoyed by the ship-owner as to other claims.

Several bills providing a system of workmen's compensation for employes engaged in interstate transportation by land, have been introduced in Congress; but none of these has provided for compensation for employes engaged in interstate or foreign transportation by water. Transportation by water is specifically referred to in but a few of our state compensation acts and it is not yet settled how far this industry is within the scope of these acts, particularly as to injuries occurring outside of the state.

Federal Compensation

The attorney general of the state of Washington has ruled that the compensation act of that state does not apply to vessels plying on navigable waters having an outlet to other states even though such vessels be engaged solely in intrastate commerce. Whether or not the state acts apply, there can be no doubt that a uniform federal rule is as desirable in the case of employes engaged in interstate transportation by water as in the case of employes engaged in interstate transportation by land.

It is difficult to obtain any statistics of accidents to seamen, but it is a matter of common knowledge that injuries to this class of labor are of frequent occurrence. In 1906, according to the report of the Census Bureau, there were 37,321 vessels of five tons or more operating under the United States laws. These vessels employed 140,929 persons, with an aggregate payroll of \$71,636,521. The figures for the last census are not as yet available.

Judge Alexander for the House Committee on Merchant Marine recently introduced a bill extending the jurisdiction of the interstate commerce commission to water carriers engaged in foreign and interstate commerce including our coastwise, Great Lakes and inland river trade. This legislation if enacted will probably be a stepping-stone toward the application to all transportation under federal control of regulatory legislation affecting any part of such transportation unless clearly inapplicable. Irrespective of such a development, however, there is immediate need for Federal legislation extending the existing Federal employer's liability acts (or if they be passed, the interstate railroad workmen's

compensation acts), to employers engaged in interstate and foreign commerce by water.

If Congress passes a workmen's compensation act covering seamen, the problem of ship-owner's liability so far as members of the crew are concerned will be entirely and satisfactorily solved. Under the English workmen's compensation act the ship-owner is liable to the full extent of his resources for the limited sums provided in the schedule of compensation. Such an act in this country would dispose of all questions as to the nature, extent and amount of the ship-owner's liability. Instead of being limited to the amount provided by the forfeiture of a stated sum per registered ton or derived from the sale of the wreck and the collection of pending freight, the seaman or his dependents would be entitled to recover from the general assets of the owner the compensation which the act provided for his case.

Accident Insurance

This would result in making the owner's liability for injuries to his seamen a matter for insurance and would probably result, as it has done in the case of other employes, in forcing the owner to keep his seamen insured for the full amount of the compensation provided by the act. This is the fairest, most economical, and in the long run, most satisfactory method of dealing with the owner's responsibility for injuries to his seamen.

Sick and disabled seamen are provided with care and treatment by the United States Marine Hospital for which Congress appropriates nearly \$1,000,000 annually. Formerly, ship-owners were required to contribute to the support of the hospital and were permitted to deduct the amount of the contribution from the seamen's wages. Later a tonnage tax was levied for its support; but now it is maintained solely by government appropriation. This institution is excellent as far as it goes and may well form a precedent for the establishment of government hospitals for sick and injured in other lines of industry; but it takes no account of loss of earning power or of support to which injury and death subject seamen and their dependents.

The freedom from personal or unlimited responsibility for his own and his agents' negligence enjoyed by the ship-owner under our laws is not confined to his position as a carrier of passengers and an employer of seamen. The common law exemptions from liability, such as an act of God or a public enemy, have been so expanded by our acts of Congress and particularly by the Harter act, that the owner is now under little or no liability for cargo losses. Not only is his liability for such losses limited in amount, but in the ordinary case he is en-

tirely exempted from any responsibility for the loss.

These exemption laws and their development form one of the most interesting and important chapters in our admiralty law. A brief quotation from the hearings of the Senate commerce committee on Senator Nelson's bill to amend the Harter act indicates the present state of these laws:

"The effect of the Harter act has been constantly burdensome to American shippers ever since its enactment. The full force of its provisions has been made conclusive by court decisions. In practically all cases of damage or loss, whatever the actual facts may be, it is almost impossible to show that the ship-owners have not used due diligence to make the vessel seaworthy and properly manned, equipped and supplied; and it is almost always possible for the ship-owners to allege, for the purpose of escaping liability, that the accident was due to faults or errors in navigation or in the management of the vessel."

Before the same committee, Howard S. Harrington, a New York admiralty lawyer, said:

"I should like to say a word from the standpoint of a practicing lawyer to whom an American cargo owner comes whose cargo has been shipped on the vessel and the vessel has gone on the strand, and she, with her cargo, is a total loss in many instances, as a result of gross negligence—and he asks what recovery he has. Under the existing state of law, with the Harter act in force, we have to advise him that he has practically no recovery whatever."

Readjustment of Liability Laws

Like the limited liability laws these exemptions from liability laws apply to all claims for damages made in our courts whether the vessel be American or foreign and whatever the nationality of its owners.

The readjustment of our laws respecting the owner's liability for cargo losses may safely be left to the shippers. But the readjustment of laws fixing the owner's responsibility for injuries to passengers and members of the crew calls for intelligent public discussion and organized public opinion.

The legislative changes suggested by the conditions described may be summarized as follows:

1. An amendment to our limited liability laws similar to the English rule, increasing the owner's liability so that where the owner is liable, the persons to whom he is liable may have recourse to some substantial fund, irrespective of the condition or value of the vessel after the accident.

2. The enactment by Congress of a law authorizing the district courts in admiralty to entertain actions to recover damages for death, so that our admiralty courts may not in future be dependent as they are now on the existence of such laws in the state or country to which the ship belongs in order to give re-

[Continued on page 381.]



AN ANTI-WAR POSTER

"The workmen of Budapest," reads the caption, "will on Sunday afternoon hold a parade and demonstration in the Tattersaal against the horrors of war. Every working-man must protest against this wholesale murder." The poster is that of the Socialist-Democratic party of Hungary.

A Cartoonist of Social Unrest

"NOT incipient socialistic art, but the expression of a great material and spiritual misery," characterizes the work of Michael Biro, which was recently the subject of an extensive exhibit at Budapest. So we are told by Daniel Varnai, writing in *Das Plakat*. With cartooning finding its way into the frames of civic and child welfare exhibits in this country and with the *Masses* and *Harper's Weekly* bringing out radical drawings of a type very different from those of the old humorous and political papers, there is especial interest to American readers in the work of this Hungarian artist, who has mirrored the proletarian

movement so faithfully we are told that "among many of the oppressed a sympathetic renown and extraordinary weight have attached to his name."

The cartoons are reproduced from *Das Plakat*, where Daniel Varnai tells of his first impressions of Biro:

"I have a vivid recollection of a hot July afternoon when one saw on the streets of Budapest those posters of his which lashed with grim irony extortionate landlords, food adulterers and other poisoners.

"With his drawing board against two chairs, and expressing his ideas with simple water-colors, the painter met the fermenting and blazing passions of the people, as storm clouds through whose collision lightning and mighty thunder

quiver through the air. From his posters the torrent of his spirit discharged like glowing lava on the lounging, dissipated proletarian crowds. All the city's misery—men who had been ruined by the usurers, emaciated women and wan, sick children, filed through the streets, and at their head marched Biro's posters, leading them to battle against all the parasites who enriched themselves at their expense. They were given close attention by the passing crowds, and he who had been in doubt and uncertainty now felt that the veil was raised—he knew whom he had to thank for his dreary, sordid existence, and what caused it. Michael Biro was an artist who felt with them. Their souls were one, and through the force of his art, full of a mighty courage he spoke to them."

Biro brings to his work a technique larger than that of the ordinary illustrator. He is a skilled draughtsman, a sculptor, a close student of his models. His reviewer is enthusiastic in telling how "at the very moment the thought flashes across his mind he realizes it on the drawing block."

"In the exhibition of his work one was distinctly aware of these effects, which he attained with the most varied subjects. Simply, clearly, without wordiness, he disposed of everything in Hungarian society that he considered pernicious, stupid, crooked and awkward. One cannot ensample a single piece of his work, for each one contains something with which he attacks the ruling classes. In such cases he does not reveal his soul, but gives his biting irony free play.

"He arouses no hatred, but compels laughter; delivers no sermons, but is able to speak wittily; he writes no bombastic editorials, but poignant epigrams, and just for that he deserves the greatest praise. He does not bring forward with a flourish the baseness and coarse maneuvers of the militant clergy—smilingly he tears off their disguise and with his pin pricks wounds all religious pretenders.

"Here is a subject, finely drawn in small compass—Mourning at Hungary's Bier. One would suppose the medium gloomy, the symbolism stern. Not at all,—Biro works with other tools. Jestingly he assumes the attitude of a provincial photographer taking a group picture. About the bier he places canteen Jesuits, soldiers and judges, whose tyranny we have often enough felt in our struggle for life in Hungary. This trick of presenting the thing is so grotesque and so characteristic that one would be almost inclined to say it was his best, were not all the other pictures done with equal skill."

It has been said that political caricature as an effective agent in molding public opinion is essentially a product of modern conditions; a successful political cartoon presupposes a certain degree of intelligence in an awakening nation. It would be wasted on feudal vassals; it has its best growth in an atmosphere of unrest, in a democracy.



PETERING MANHOOD SUFFRAGE

A cartoon against a bill requiring common laborers to be thirty years of age before receiving the franchise, unless they have attained six school grades before the age of twenty-four; barring laborers not continuously employed for two years previous to an election, etc. The inscriptions on the bonds stand for these limitations.

Varnai employs Biro as text in a further question: whether or not we have a socialistic art cropping out in this period of unrest. Jules Coulin, author of *The Socialistic Point of View of the French Painters*, uses with full conviction the term "socialistic art." Neither in Biro's work, free of blatant obtrusiveness, nor in the characteristic



THE PUBLIC REVENUE

Who swallows it up? The army, clergy, school teachers, and aged and infirm workmen are personified in a dwindling scale.

work of German and French cartoonists, nor in the heavy but often cutting productions of the Russians, does Varnai find ground for the term. A certain sympathy with social unrest, with Socialism, he finds:

"In the work of all these artists the humorous strokes of pen, pencil, crayon and engraver's point, were as if by magic transformed into whips that, now with saucy humor, now with gloomy symbolism, now with open candor, lashed all the perversion and evil which have arisen in the controlling factors of bourgeois society, the church and aristocracy."

But their attacks against what to him is a decayed bourgeois society, Varnai does not believe constitute a socialistic art.

"It has since become ever more evident to me that the embryo of social art is hardly yet discoverable. The existing art which is connected with the proletarian movement is simply the reflection of the need, strife and numerical development of labor; it neither serves the socialist morale, nor socialist science, and cannot even give expression to the vaguest contour of a socialistic state, or that of a communistic group. It is unable to do this because—although a weak reflection of a collectivistic output is noticeable in today's industrial production—the socialistic morale is not as yet powerful enough to pass over without great changes from today's order to the collectivistic."

"Only when the proletarian movement



ALCOHOL AND THE WORKING MAN

The inscription on this cartoon reads:

"Alcohol is poison. It kills, brutalizes and causes misery."

and all its battles shall have gained a final victory will a development of socialistic art begin."

Yet he concedes a sort of soul communion with the proletarian movement, and of Biro himself he says:

"His feelings, his passions, are those of the masses, the pulpit which he ascends rises out of the midst of the masses, he stands there not as a guest but as an integral part, not as a for-eigner, but rooted firmly in the populace. What he produces is not merely a vogue, but permanent truth. If he would he could not do otherwise."



"WORKMEN! CITIZENS!"

So sounds the challenge under this suffrage poster which depicts the arm of the workman rising from mill and mine before the hall of parliament.

"Beauty for Ashes"

IX.

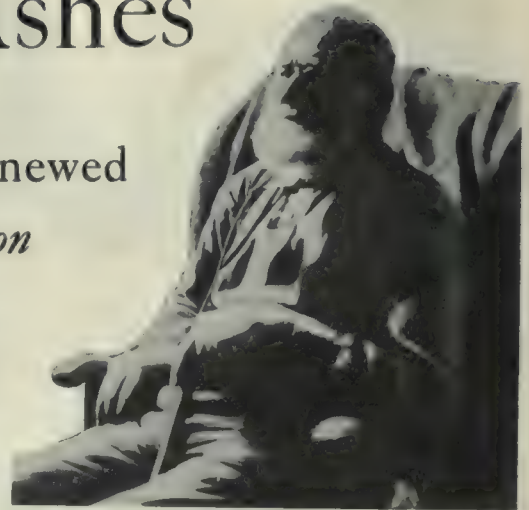
Defeat and the Fight Renewed

Albion Fellows Bacon



"It is asked why there are not more here insisting upon this bill," said Senator Haleck.

"Those who need the bill most cannot come. They are sick and weak, poor and ignorant. They do not know how to protect themselves, and cannot afford to come."



ON a western bound train two men sat discussing a building project, in tones calculated to drown the roar of the train. They were from Indiana, as those on nearby seats soon discovered from the localities mentioned.

"No, we've given it up," said one man. "We can't build the way we wanted to because a crazy little woman down in the southern part of the state has gone and played the mischief by getting a tenement law that upsets everything."

It was the lady in front of them who told me about it.

The smoke of battle had hardly cleared away after the Legislature adjourned when an Indianapolis paper came out with an article under big black headlines:

MRS. BACON'S LAW STOPS FLAT BUILDING

The article took my breath for the moment—just as I had begun to breathe again. I knew the law wouldn't stop flat building. We had to expect the same fuss and worry that a tenement law has always created in every state, until builders get used to it and begin to see its value.

The next news from Indianapolis was that a suit had been brought to test the constitutionality of the law. The test was made in the case of a handsome flat building which failed to conform to the law in some slight particular. Of course, the enemies of the law selected a case that would make it seem the most absurd, in order to render it unpopular. But we expected that, too. We knew that the main point upon which the public had to be educated was not the necessity of improving the wretched conditions of the poor, but the reasons for including the better class of flats and apartment houses in the law. People must be made to realize that dark rooms and bad plumbing are as deadly in a fashionable apartment as in a squalid tenement and that fire is no respecter of



mansions. They must realize, too, that, as the tide of fashion ebbs, Rich Man's Row often becomes in time Poverty Flats. But they hadn't learned this yet.

While I was wondering who was to defend the suit besides the city of Indianapolis, I received a brief letter from Senator Cox, stating that he had joined in the defense, as if it were a matter of course. It was characteristic of him to do it in that way. From that time he has carried a big part of the burden of the housing movement in Indiana with all its work and responsibilities.

The case dragged for some time, but the outcome may be speedily and joyfully stated—our side won.

Now matters settled down to the enforcement of the law in the two cities to which its application had been limited by the amendment of its enemies. In Indianapolis it was enforced by the building inspector, but as Evansville had not even created such an office, enforcement devolved upon the Board of Health. Our board, though fully in sympathy, found in a very short time that both funds and force were inadequate for this purpose. In a city of 70,000 there was work enough to keep a whole force of inspectors busy, and I felt sure that we would get at least one. But it was no simple matter to create the office.

It would take too long to relate how I visited each member of the council on the subject; how, with Joseph Igleheart, president of the Civic Improvement Association, I went to the council meeting, and with him presented the need of a building inspector; how the council asked us to prepare an ordinance, and how it was finally passed. We went to every meeting until I left town for the summer, and then Mr. Igleheart kept on alone until the ordinance was passed and the office created. Later in the year, a splendid man, S. A. Brentano, was appointed to the office and has done valuable work.

I realized keenly, while engaged in

this effort, how much easier it is to do civic work with home as a center and a base. How good it was to be at home again, to resume my accustomed identity, to which I felt almost a stranger; to be again a person, no longer merely a disembodied, homeless Plea! I was avid of all those usual, homely things that all people do, and so eager to get back into the same "rut" again that I welcomed even the commonest tasks. It was good to get out of doors, after confinement in hotel and state house, to feel the fresh air and the sun, to run about the lawn and find where the hyacinths and jonquils were coming up, in their same old places. Good, even to clean house and preserve strawberries.

Doffing the Coat of Mail

When May came, and I could sit in diaphanous gowns and light slippers on the lawn by the great wigelia bush that was a fountain of rosy sprays, I could at last shake off that hateful feeling of a coat of mail. One must have the "doublet and hose in one's disposition" to endure it long. Never had feminine frills seemed so satisfying to me. I found a pleasure even in teas. My feeling was much like Robinson Crusoe's, I imagine, on his return to civilization.

Then came June with a bevy of girls in a house party for our own daughters, both home from school. June, and the world was young with the young life that filled the house with music and light and laughter. There was the flash of shimmering gowns and the glow of bright young faces. The mornings sparkled and the evenings dreamed, and the world was sweet with roses.

Midsummer came. We went away from the blazing streets to the fresh coolness of the lakes for a long rest.

I cannot remember what happened in the fall, except that I spoke once to the State Federation of Women's Clubs. The rest of the fall, and much of the whole year that followed, has been blotted out of my memory by the sudden shock of a great bereavement that overwhelmed our home.

I do not know how to go on with my story. It seems as if it ought to stop here, as our life stopped for so many long months. Again and again I have come to this place, faltered, and laid down my pen. It was a time that can neither be dwelt upon nor passed over. There is much of it, too, that belongs to this story. But—no. I cannot bring myself to write more than to say that our bereavement was the sudden death of our eldest daughter.

The winter was long and hard and dreary. The world was old now. It was old and gray. Constant illness in our family kept me close with anxious nursing. But the winter wore away and the spring dragged through. I began to feel a craving for work, employment, something to force my mind to new

channels. Though still too weak to do much, I went back to the Working Girls' Association, of which I was yet president, and began also to visit the poor again.

I mention these things because this is a story of work, and I wish that everyone upon whom sorrow has fallen could realize the healing power of some unselfish interest that is exacting enough to absorb all one's attention. Well for those who have such interests before sorrow comes, for they are difficult to acquire afterward. The man of business, the woman who makes a living, are forced to meet the world, and they find relief in work. But women of the idle class, who are shut up alone by corroding conventionalities, have no escape from themselves,—not even in travel.

If work is in itself helpful, how much more so is the spending of one's energies in a way that will help others. But most of all is there tonic and balm in the personal giving of cheer and comfort to those who, under repeated afflictions, have lost more than we have ourselves.

A Visit from Jacob Riis

One of the few things I remember in that year is a visit from Jacob A. Riis. I had been planning for two years that our state should have the privilege of hearing him; now others had taken up the plan and he was to be with us early in the winter. His tour began in the northern part of the state, and wherever he went people met him with enthusiasm.

He was to visit our city last. Our friends attended to the details of preparing for his lecture, and he was here in our home for a brief, bright space that our family can never forget.

"Here," we say, "is where he sat, on this side of the fire, when he set the children on his knee, and told them stories of his boyhood in Denmark, and legends of their heroes." We knew there were none of them braver than he, and that the little decoration of knighthood he wore, given by the hand of the Danish king, symbolized also what was heartily accorded him by the loyal love of the American people.

But we knew more—we were "receiving a prophet," and his presence was a benediction.

Later in the year, I do not remember the month, there came a challenge to all my powers. Certain men in Indianapolis and Evansville were beginning to find out that the restrictions of our tenement law hampered them, and a number of them prepared a bill purporting to correct the "mistakes" of our law but really, instead, taking all the virtue out of it.

There was no Indiana Housing Association then, but Mr. Cox did the work of president, boards and committees. He always knew just what needed to be done, and he said, "Don't be uneasy."

Of course, we were bound to see that if any bill were introduced, it should really be an improvement upon the old law by making it broader and stronger. This meant that the authors of the proposed bill should have demonstrated to them just what the effect of every change would be. There was no one in the United States who could do that with such authority and conclusiveness as could Lawrence Veiller. As secretary of the National Housing Association, he heard our call and came out twice to help us, all the way from New York, spending many days in slavish labor for which Indiana owes him her profound appreciation.

Noses and Eyes as Witnesses

While he was in Indianapolis he made a tour of the slums of that city. We took with us some prominent citizens and a number of reporters, and I had the satisfaction of having the greatest housing expert in this country, one of the foremost in the world, verify my statements as to just how bad those slums were. But noses and eyes also gave conclusive verification, and some of those who went that day are the bulwarks of our present housing movement.

All this time Mr. Cox had been quietly busy, and the Civic Commission of the Commercial Club had been made aware of our impending danger. With magnificent response they decreed a banquet in Mr. Veiller's honor and mine, at which should be gathered representative men, among them the friends of housing reform (who had grown to a goodly company) and also the framers of the proposed dangerous bill, so that we might cement our purposes with patés and coffee and friendly discussion.

The banquet was an entire success, in all the ways we desired. Sitting at the head of the tables with Mr. Veiller, between President Miller and Dr. Wynne, chairman of the commission, I looked down the long double line of men with a feeling of gratitude for our strong support and for the distinguished honor. The strength of our support was even more apparent in the speeches that followed.

The next day we got down to business at a luncheon of some of the Commercial Club men, including Mr. Cox, Mr. Grout, and Mr. Winterrowd, then building inspector of the city, who is one of our main props. Architects and builders were present at our extended session, when we mowed, reaped, shocked, threshed, sifted, ground, baked, masticated and digested every grain of the proposed bill. Mr. Veiller presided. Afterward, he gathered up the views of the company and took them back to New York, to reduce the chaos to order. Only he can tell of the time and toil it involved; only those who have taken a hand in such work can appreciate the tale of it.

Our story begins again with his second trip to Indianapolis, when he sat once more in the Claypool, with Mr. Cox and me, and took us through all his processes, till the words danced on the page and all ran together. Then Mr. Cox called in the others who were interested in any changes that might be made, and we sat again for morning, afternoon and night sessions, until everybody understood everything and all were agreed.

There I sat, in discussion with those men, architects, builders, real estate men, lawyers, doctors, bankers, charity workers; with us was the housing expert who had spent years of his life writing, enforcing, and testing out tenement laws. Yet angry landlords ring up my 'phone, and demand to know why I decreed such and such regulations, echoing the woman who exclaimed vehemently, "Vat does she mean by sich foolishness? She'd better make another law, yet."

It was great to see the masterful way in which Mr. Veiller met all questions, drawing swift diagrams to show what would happen if given dimensions were changed to certain others, etc. Finally, no one could ask any more questions, and we all shook hands and promised to work together for the bill we had agreed upon, and Mr. Veiller returned to New York.

One of the things that makes this meeting memorable is that here we became acquainted with Wilson B. Parker, of Indianapolis, who represented the state Association of Architects in this matter. He has ever since been a valuable supporter of housing reform, and has been of aid in many trying hours.

Another Effort for a State Law

Now, of course, I should have to go back to the Legislature. There was nothing else to do. How I dreaded a second term, fearing that it would give me the savor of a professional lobbyist or a "crank." But here was the opportunity to try again for a state law, and that was what I had started out to win, what I could never be satisfied without. Moreover, the architects who were joining forces for the bill, expected me to go back to remedy the shortcomings of the law of 1909 caused by hasty amendments that injured several sections.

Before the Legislature opened, taking my poster exhibit, I went up again to Indianapolis to help Mr. Cox rally our forces and to see that all was ready. I stayed over to see the installation of the new speaker of the House, Albert J. Venneman, from our city. He had been one of our men's friendly visitors, and I knew better than the others what justice every cause would have, and rejoiced for his interest in the poor—those thousands of constituents in our state whom our legislators so often forget that they represent.

Many of our old friends were back in the Legislature, and my reception was so cordial that it took away my dread of going back. Mr. McGinnis was there with his beautiful wife, and he agreed to look after our bill again in the House. Dr. Foor was there, stronger and more interested than ever, and he was again chairman of the health committee, to which our bill would go without doubt. Mrs. Foor would be again on the floor in the same capacities as before.

Senator Cox's term had expired, but he was there every moment he could spare, and, though Mrs. Cox had less occasion to come, she was present whenever possible to cheer me on. I never saw them together without a whimsical wish that I could have just such a wife, to be so interested in my work and to help in the special way that women can!

Two other friends, Mr. and Mrs. Wil-



EDGAR DURRE

Senator from Evansville, who had charge of the tenement bill in the Senate in 1911.

liam L. Taylor, had apartments at the Claypool. It was his record as attorney general of Indiana a short time before that gave me the greatest pride in quoting his opinions on housing reform. As for Mrs. Taylor, and all that her friendship has meant to me, it needs some other words than prose to tell. At the hotel where many friends of the last session were at home, we gathered all our forces, made our plans and our war maps, and prepared for the struggle before us.

I was impatient to have our bill introduced before a rush of bills began; but some of the parties to the bill began to haggle over little points, and we were delayed until well into the session. As a result, I received word from Dr. Foor that our friends feared it was too late to get the bill through, and thought best not to report it out of the committee

and run the risk of having it defeated.

Counting over our friends and forces, I felt confident that we could win. I took the next train to Indianapolis. Calling our old and new adherents together, Mr. Cox and I arranged for a committee hearing. Mr. Parker was there and spoke strongly for the state Association of Architects; Dr. C. S. Woods, representing the local Board of Health, Mr. Grout, representing the needs of the charities, and many others, were there.

But we might have spared our array of forces. "There's no need to present any arguments," said one of the committee. "We have gone over the bill and understand it and are in favor of it. All I want to know is whether Mrs. Bacon is satisfied with the bill—if it will do what she wants for the poor."

That was certainly a great mark of confidence, but a still greater one was to follow.

The bill was reported out at once, and, to save the time we had wasted in delays, the leaders of the House, both majority and minority, finding a strong majority for the bill, put it through its second and third readings, under suspension of the rules. It was all over in five minutes, before I realized what they were doing. It fairly took my breath! The papers said it was a "monument" to my efforts. I didn't know then what the monument would be used for, or what inscription would be written on it by the Senate. For the Senate was yet to try out.

The Bill in the Senate

Now we found Senator Cox's knowledge of men and of legislative methods invaluable. Moreover, his clean strong record gave him great influence with men of all parties.

We had chosen Senator Edgar Durre, from Evansville, to take charge of the bill in the Senate. Although his party was now in the minority, and our strongest enemies were on the majority side, we felt that Senator Durre, with his exceptional ability, was a match for any dozen ordinary men. Besides, from his previous experience, he understood the subject better than the others could.

There was little appearance of opposition at first, but the bill showed an ominous tendency to stick in the mill between the two Houses. Finally Mrs. Foor and I read a perfect proof, and my own hands put it into the hands of the lieutenant-governor, in the presence of the clerk. Promptly and smoothly it went through two readings, and then stuck fast.

I had been warned, on our entrance to the Senate, that we should not be allowed to pass a state law, but every poll showed a good majority in our favor. The men from my own district were "solid" for the bill, and helped strongly. Our friends in the House came in and helped, and Senator Durre threw

all his strength and energy into the fight. Mr. Cox took almost the same part as if still a member. Besides this, I interviewed every one of the men myself. We kept constant note of friends or foes or "doubtfuls" on our legislative directories, comparing notes as we made progress. And from day to day a majority showed in our favor.

But we did not dream to what lengths the opposition would go. Stronger and more determined, the same vicious lobby was there again. It was made up of many elements, and exhibited a welding of powerful interests, both inside and out of the Legislature.

There were men who made trips from their home towns to fight the bill with various weapons. Some sent their lawyers or agents. There were wealthy men in the lobby who owned rows and blocks of rotting tenements. Some of them were prominent in the church and respected in society in their own towns, and the people there were surprised later to learn of their tenements and their opposition to our bill. There were others whose infamies were as reeking as their hovels, whose names are odorous, not only in their own city, but through all the border, for intrigues and frauds and deeds of violence.

"The Powers of Darkness" I have called this element, but the powers were all allied,—brilliant brain, giant strength, and cunning hand, all worked together in the dark to carry out purely selfish ends, with no thought of the interest of the state.

And here were the friends of the state arrayed more strongly than ever, the state Board of Health, the state Board of Charities and Correction, local charities of the whole state, the press of the state,—all calling with one voice for the law, with the state Association of Architects, and many leaders of public thought besides standing for its need and its fairness. And the only arguments urged against the bill were those of the expense and inconvenience it caused the landlord or the builder! Yet we were asking only for decencies and necessities of safety and sanitation.

As in 1909, some of the members of the Legislature openly avowed their tenements. Others denied having any, and we wondered at their opposition. But when I visited their home towns later, I had the Court House records investigated to see what property they or their relatives owned; and when I went out with the charity workers of the place, I stumbled accidentally into some of their tenements,—the worst in the town!

It must not be supposed that I encountered these men, personally, in any unpleasant way. True, there was one Shadow ever at my heels as before, but I was always accorded personal courtesy and respect. I was thankful for the ethics of the Legislature that prevented

personalities, and was careful to be as fair and considerate in turn. Naturally, my name was never mentioned and "the author of the bill" meant Senator Durre.

Once, however, with significant emphasis, one of the opposition declared that "it was not fair that one will should dominate the Legislature." In a flash Senator Durre leaped to his feet. "My will is *not* dominating this Legislature," he declared.

The lobby would have been surprised to know how much of their doings came to us unsought. What was promised in saloons, what was plotted in cafés or even in private apartments, came straight to us from a myriad sources. The walls had both ears and eyes, and more "little birds" chirped information than ever broke woodland silence. But it all served only to make us aware how



MRS. CHARLES B. CLARKE
Of Indianapolis, president Indiana
Federation of Women's
Clubs in 1911.

powerful were our enemies, and to warn us of the lengths to which they were willing to go.

It was a disappointment to me that the labor unions were too absorbed in a child labor bill to give any attention to the housing bill. I had secured, through a friend, a resolution from the National Alliance of Labor, endorsing housing reform, and hoped that the working men would realize that this law was meant to improve their own living conditions. But they did not seem to grasp the idea very generally then, and many of them do not now.

It is worthy of record here that twice during that session I was given the very unusual privilege of opening the Senate with prayer. This, in itself, is enough to show that the evidences of confidence of the last session were again renewed.

There is no need to dwell upon the de-

tails of that session. Trip after trip I made, home and back again, waiting for the bill to come to its third reading. It was a bad winter. Snow storms delayed the trains, and I was sick half the time from exposure in icy sleepers and from going to and from the State House in sleet or rain. But even when I got up out of bed to go, in response to telegrams, the family only cheered me on and helped me to start. They knew how much it meant. I remember my mother's disgust at the "stupid" men who couldn't see the need of a state law. Even the maid was glad to contribute her very important part, and the children cheerfully volunteered, "We'll pray for the bill every night." There was one, too, who was ready to pray, pay and fight. Why shouldn't a woman dare, with such backing?

If we could only have fought! But we worked, watched and waited, waited in an unending nightmare of difficulties and delays. The end of the session was at hand, and our bill had not yet been allowed to come to its third reading. Four times it had been made a special order, and four times the rules had been set aside, and the order broken, on the plea of the precedence of party measures still unfinished. And still a poll showed a good majority in favor of the bill.

"I'm tired of this guerilla warfare, this being struck in the back by someone hiding in the dark," thundered Senator Durre. "I dare you to come out and fight in the open, and let the bill go to a vote now."

The last day came, and our friends in the Senate rallied for a last charge. Senator Durre fasted that day. He made me think of a lion who was being made ready for human flesh, as he paced the aisles with his jaw squarely set, and red lightning in his eye.

The panic rush of the last business swept over the Senate all day. At the end of the day we got a hearing.

"Every cause and every interest has had its hearing in this Senate," declared Senator Tilden, "but the cause of the poor has been pushed off until the last hour."

"It is asked why there are not more here insisting upon this bill," said Senator Halleck. "Those who need the bill most cannot come. They are sick and weak, poor and ignorant. They do not know how to protect themselves, and cannot afford to come."

Senator Carleton, our other home senator, pleaded eloquently for the children in our cities. There seemed at last to be hope of getting a vote, but time came for adjournment, and we had to wait till the evening session.

It was the last night now, and the lion was loose and swept the whole jungle before him. Those who heard Senator Durre's ringing, stinging speech still remember it. Men

said that not in years had such oratory been heard in that Legislature.

Can I ever forget that scene! The Senate Chamber was packed with those who were anxious about the final fate of different measures. My friends pressed to the rail. I saw Mrs. Cox and the children, Mr. and Mrs. Taylor, and many others, for the Architects' Association had adjourned its session to come over and help us. The House finished its business and adjourned, and many of these men came in to help in our fight. Everything was confusion; men were tired and excited, and the rules were relaxed. The opposing lobby boldly walked the Senate floor, and our men called me inside the rail upon the floor also with Mr. Cox and the others.

After Senator Durre's speech there was a sharp skirmish of discussion, and the bill went to a vote. How anxiously we counted over our men! Two of them were sick and absent. A few, thinking the fight was hopeless, had gone. There were some members who had dodged every vote on our bill, and they had slipped out into the corridor.

One man refused to vote at all, because, he said, "he'd never seen a tenement, and wouldn't know one if he saw one, and he wasn't going to vote about something that he knew nothing about."

The voting went on. Mr. Cox, with his brows bent, was keeping tally. I couldn't. Thud, thud—like clods on my coffin fell every "no." But "aye," aye, —I knew, by the light on the faces of those around me, that we had won. Mr. Cox showed me the tally—26 to 16. (There were 50 members, and we had to have 26.) There was applause and cheers, that the gavel could not quiet. Before it died away we had sent a message to the engrossing room to have the bill ready for the governor's signature by midnight.

"But why don't they announce the vote?" we asked each other. My friends, the senators, who had worked and helped, and all the others crowded around with congratulations. "It seems too good to be true," I said, "I'm afraid to accept congratulations until the vote is announced."

The Final Vote

The opposing lobby had gathered in a knot by the desk. We waited an hour amidst the confusion of the last night while members were packing up their belongings to leave. Finally, there was an uproar. A man had been found, by searching the cloak rooms, who was willing to change his vote. The majority was changed to 25, with 17 opposing, and the bill was lost! Lost!

In our dismay we tried vainly to get another vote for our side. Then we asked to see the roll, for some one told us there had been another change.

It was gone!

There was a murmur of anger and

disapproval from the audience. Hands beckoned from the rear. Suggestions were called to us in excited voices. Too late! No appeal would have been heard while the opposition had such power. The vote had been promptly announced, and the Senate adjourned.

Now there was a different scene. With words and looks of sympathy, my friends crowded about. Among them were reporters from the papers that had given such strong support. "It shan't happen again. We won't let it," they said.

There was nothing to do but to be game, nothing to say but "thank you," and "goodbye." The Coxes took me back to the hotel, with a sympathy that spared me words. It was my first defeat, and I had not dreamed how bitter it could taste. But when dear Mrs. Cox put her motherly arms about me in a close embrace I felt a sudden release from the grip of a hurt too deep for tears.

Defeated but not Discouraged

It was one o'clock when I crept into bed, faint and numb and chilled. But I could not sleep, for every time I shut my eyes I saw those faces I had watched so long and anxiously. I can see them now, some with a determined scowl, two with a leering smile of triumph, one face aflame, and the others—for weeks I saw them in the dark.

I could see the packed room, and over and over again a shuddering seized me at the thought of the public ordeal. For the first time, I wondered if any one were called upon to make that extreme sacrifice of one's inmost self.

At last, weariness overcame me and I slept a few hours. Early, in the gray of the morning, I left the capital in a drizzling rain, having snatched a bite of breakfast at the station lunch counter.

Seated on the train I opened the morning paper and actually laughed to see the tragic account of our fight. "Senator triumphs over frail little woman," was the headline. There was a detailed account of the whole thing, giving the vote of the senators, and a dramatic story of the disappearance of the roll. But there had not been any "glisten of tears" in my eyes. I want that understood. I smiled again as I thought of the ultimate effect of this defeat upon the housing movement throughout the state. Sympathy was strong for us, as the paper showed, and I felt that this defeat would give just the touch of sympathy and interest the cause needed.

Our women's clubs, too, I felt sure, would resent it as the press had done. And the state Board of Health would go on with the work, I had reason to believe. And after all we had still our law of 1909 for two cities. Already my light Irish heart was coming to the top. Ah-h! "Beneath the bludgeonings of

fate, my head is bloody but unbowed," I repeated to myself with relish, and a grim smile. But something better than stoicism had been in my mind all the while. It was the thought of the "chariots and horsemen of fire" on all the heights round about me. I was as sure of them as ever.

Before the train pulled out of Indianapolis I had formulated another plan of campaign for 1913, that I felt sure must win.

The miles clicked away. The cab rushed me home. The family was at the door—four little arms were around my neck, and the last of that deepest hurt was gone.

There isn't much that one's friends can say after a defeat.

"But it will come, in the Lord's own time, when He is ready," some said.

"No, His time is when *we* are ready," I told them, perhaps a little impatiently.

Just as I had surmised, the press of the state took up the cause. None were more gallant than our own home papers, and I say it with a deep feeling of gratitude. Interviewers came from magazines, too, scenting a "story," though, as we had been defeated, I felt there was nothing to tell. They wanted to know about the campaign of 1909, but that was all over and done with. I was interested in the articles that followed, for they all helped the cause tremendously, but they always seemed to me like accounts of some other woman, and I read them with an odd, impersonal feeling, wondering what she was like. But the stories agreed on two particulars. She was "frail", and she was "persistent!"

Women's Clubs to the Rescue

And now another force came forward with support—an army with banners, the state Federation of Women's Clubs, and at the head of it, Grace Julian Clarke. We call her that in Indiana, with pride and loving emphasis. Daughter of George W. Julian, the statesman, scholar and orator, she belongs on the pedestal which our state accords her. Lecturer and writer, if she were a book, it would be a classic. This divinity met me several times in the gloomy corridors of the State House and poured ichor into my heart on the days when Saturn warred against the fiery Mars and the two blazing suns of my horoscope. Now she came with more than ichor. The women of the federation were incensed at my defeat. The whole federation was to know all about it, the leaders had decided, and to resent it properly. It was planned that I should speak before them at district conventions and other meetings throughout the state.

So, then, there was another line to add to the inscription upon the "monument" of my triumph in the House. The

Senate had written upon it "Here lies the tenement bill, slain, 1911." Under this the women of the federation were to write, "Awaiting the resurrection."

It was June when I went to Lake Winona to speak to the women's clubs at a summer session, and there the federation opened its arms to me and took me in. The instant I set foot inside their circle I realized something unusual in the atmosphere. It was the "federation spirit"—a reality, not a name—the spirit of unselfish love and interest in each other, and it radiated and kindled all about me. I could never tell them all their cordial welcome meant to me, but I felt like one who had been struggling up a steep mountain path, battling with a heavy snow-storm, and who came, cold and weary, to a place where there was warmth, food, shelter and friends.

"Federation"

True, I had warm friends and helpers here and there all over the state; but our forces were scattered, some too far to help. Here was a united body, perfectly organized. "Federation"—there is strength in the very name.

I had never had time to be a club woman, and this first close view was a revelation. Where were the club women I had read about, whose programs skipped from appliqué to Xingu?

Here were practical women, telling what their clubs had done that year in the way of study and civic work. Here were farmer's wives, women of wealth, women who worked for a living; college women, and women who had come into the clubs for the very purpose of getting educational advantages that they had been denied. Each one could teach the others out of her own experience, and their range was deep and wide.

Sitting near the front, at the first session, I turned to a quiet little woman beside me, asking, "Tell me who all these women are, and what they have done." She began with pride to tell of all those who were prominent in the National Federation. There was Grace Julian Clarke, president of the Indiana federation. The lady presiding, Mrs. Edwin Knapp, was one of the leading spirits in our federation. There was Mrs. Melville Johnson, a member of the Art Committee of the National Federation; Mrs. Kinsey, one of our pioneer club women.

But who was this, just come to the platform? A bright, eager little woman whose voice rang clear and strong and whose presence radiated energy? Every one roused. It seemed as if suddenly more windows had been let into the room, and a fresh western breeze was blowing through. "That is Mrs. Olaf Guldlin," I was told. At that time she was chairman of the Home Economics Committee of the National Federation,

and was known all over the United States for the important work she had done in putting home economics into schools as well as clubs.

Well, truly, I thought, Indiana has a good share in the national work. We are something more than a political pivot and a center of population.

As one by one of the different clubs contributed their part to the discussion, it seemed to me as if chord after chord had been struck upon a great harp, whose strings were all attuned. It was a clear, high strain of noble harmonies.

And then I spoke, and twanged a harsh, deep chord that gave a new note they had never heard before. Although the federation had studied social and industrial conditions, as allied to child labor and the work of women, and had gone conscientiously into these movements, they had not yet turned their gaze upon the hovels and tenements where so many of these working women and children live.

Carrying the Message

I told them "A Tale of the Tenements," a true and simple story of life in the slums of our Indiana towns, and made it just as bare and sordid and miserable as I found it, in plain speech, for there was no need for eloquence. They could see, those clear-eyed women, that not education, not culture, not music or art, not even Home Economics, could ever penetrate to those darkened places, where cleanliness was difficult, and sanitation impossible, where decency was often barred, and life too often bestial.

They grasped at once the lesson in "race solidarity," the danger to their own children in the schools, the neutralizing of the best endeavors of their clubs in civic work by the demoralizing influence of those classes to whom their culture could never "filter down." They had gone to great lengths and ample breadths of endeavor; now they were ready to go to the depths, in their massive effort for humanity.

I had noticed that the home and the child were the two great themes about which most of their thought centered. The contrast of their homes and their children with the unsanctified "homes" of the slums and the children of the poor was more than their mother hearts could bear, and they sat for a moment hushed when I closed. I remember then with what quiet dignity Mrs. Knapp arose, and with skillful touch swept the harp so that it seemed as if one great chord—now with its lowest note vibrating—shook the room, as the women rose and pledged support to the housing movement.

Yet another experience was waiting for me among those hills that demands its place in this story.

The State Bar Association was in session at Winona at the same time, and my good friends in that association

planned that I should address their convention on the housing law. Of course, nothing could have been more opportune, and I was happy to do it, for I felt it would mean much to the cause. But to think of making an extemporaneous address to such a body, and on law!

It gave me confidence to be escorted to the platform and introduced by my dear friend, Judge Timothy E. Howard, who is one of our ex-judges of the Supreme Court and revered throughout the state. But I must confess that as I stood upon the platform and looked down into the grave and expectant faces of our supreme judges, ex-attorney generals and others of our brilliant and distinguished members of the state bar, for a moment my breath deserted me, and only the presence of my friend and his confidence in my ability gave me courage to proceed.

During the summer and early fall I spoke to a number of the federated clubs. The leaders of the federation opened the way for me to bring the matter of housing reform to all the women of the state, and plans were made, also, for special lectures, along the line of my travel, in churches, to charities circles, etc.

Club Achievements

In October the federation convened for its annual session in Indianapolis and I had a chance to see it in its full glory. If I had needed any proof that the club women of the romancers was either a myth, or long ago extinct, I should have had it in the reports that showed what each club had done through the year. I sat and listened with deep interest as the thirteen districts gave their statements, and these are some of the things they reported:

- a "swat-the-fly" campaign
- red cross stamp sales
- social centers established
- rest rooms opened for working girls
- school gardens
- fight for pure water supply
- clean-up days
- special course of home economics lectures
- establishment of parent-teachers' clubs
- home gardens

One district reported a civic department which had a municipal committee appointed to serve three months and attend meetings of the council. The same department had also an ordinance committee whose duty it was to formulate and push the passage of needed ordinances. The committee had been looking after public sanitation, the beautifying of the river bank, and the care of the city garbage.

After these reports came others telling of the progress of child-labor work, which had engrossed the federation that year. Then a committee on forestry and waterways reported.

[Continued on page 382.]

The St. Louis Pageant and Masque¹

Commemorating the 150th
Anniversary of the
Founding of the City

BY CHARLOTTE RUMBOLD
SECRETARY PUBLIC
RECREATION COMMITTEE



TO readers of THE SURVEY, the significance of the Pageant and Masque of St. Louis is that a group of citizens tried a daring experiment and succeeded. Citizens first and artists secondarily, they, are not the type to stage "Big Shows" just for the show's sake. They tried to arouse a city of 800,000 people to a sense of its solidarity, to a sense of the possibility of infinite achievement by a community under the spell of a unifying idealism.

And they succeeded. They proved that though democracy may never have been tried, it is not an academic abstraction but a workable hypothesis, and they proved it through the age-long appeal to Art.

I am not going to explain that the stage was eight hundred or more feet long and two hundred wide. I shall omit the number of board feet in the sound-ing-screen and the acreage of the dress-ing-tents. These things will all be printed in the official book which the St. Louis Pageant Drama Association will issue. And beyond the statement that the pageant was written and produced by Thomas Wood Stevens, with the music written by E. R. Kroeger and Noel Poeping, that the book of the masque was written by Percy MacKaye, the music by Frederick Converse and the masque produced by Joseph Lindon Smith, I shall not say anything of the dramatic or musical side of the great production.

The pageant was a fairly accurate reproduction of certain incidents of the history of St. Louis. The masque was a symbolic interpretation of that history

¹The request for this article for THE SURVEY was an additional task transferred to the writer on very short notice, and in consequence apologies are offered for the rather unconnected style of narrative. The more poetical parts, which are obviously not the writer's, are taken bodily from some of the local papers, notably from Reedy's *Mirror*.—C. R.

closing with the city's aspiration for the future.

Last summer, a handful of people decided that the city was ripe for a new expression of its pride in past achievements and its hope for a solution of its present problem. Strong in the faith that if people play together, they will work together, and in the knowledge that a beautiful expression of an ideal increases many-fold the power of that ideal, they determined to put to the touch their faith in the city's inherent capacity for united action.

The mayor of the city gave enthusiastic assent to the plans of the committee which waited on him, and the first meeting of the organizations called upon to participate was held in his office in the city hall. A call had been sent to every business, political, social, artistic, national, and religious organization in the city, explaining the purpose of the meeting and asking the appointment of delegates. The response was so unexpectedly large as to give assurance of the democracy of the undertaking from the very first.



The organization of committees was taken in hand at once. Among them, of course, the committees on finance, on production, organization and publicity, were the most important. On these committees and the others later appointed were persons, not only of every nationality, profession, trade, religion and social status, but from every ward and precinct of the city. With the idea of democracy continually in mind the executive organization took especial care that no section of the city, no group of people should be omitted from the ad-

ministrative committees, from the cast or from the financial campaign. In a democracy one pays for what one gets, and knows when one pays.

The productions committee was organized into sub-committees on book, music, cast, costumes, properties, dancing, lighting and wiring, stage management, stage setting, and auditorium. In every committee, care was exercised that everyone who had some talent to offer should have an opportunity to give of his best for the city. The chorus of 750 voices was gathered from German singing societies, church choirs, public and parochial schools; and any individual who applied, even though belonging to none of these, had his or her voice tested by the chorus director and was assigned to a place in the big chorus.

Cast cards were placed in every public library, in downtown department stores, at all the organization headquarters in public and parochial schools, in universities, in improvement associations and social clubs. These cards asked for the applicant's name, address, age, sex, height, weight, and whether or not, he or she, could ride a horse, swim, dance, sing or paddle a canoe. The cast was selected entirely on the basis of the answers to these questions, not in the least on social standing.

In the case of horsemen, social standing was even less considered, since they were chosen chiefly by the color and height and weight of their horses. As a result of this kind of selection, the Butcher Town Rough Riders secured the coveted honor of impersonating the "war demons."

To secure persons for the principal speaking parts, the cast committee inserted a request in the daily papers that men over six feet in height, having powerful voices, should meet at the City Club library on a certain afternoon. From those who appeared, the chief

actors for the men's parts were chosen.

There were in all nearly 7,500 actors in the Pageant and Masque. All were amateurs, and all animated by two sentiments. One was, of course, having a good time; the second, and the one which kept them to their work in rehearsals and the trying performances for motion pictures with a patience beyond anyone's expectation, was the desire to "do something for the city." The cast evidenced a loyalty and a helpfulness that turned into a pleasure the weary work of costuming 7,500 persons behind the scenes.

Outside the huge tents where they changed their costumes and on either side of the broad lagoon which separated the men's tents from the women's, are double rows of trees. Under the shade of these were the gathering-places of the different units, arranged in the order of their stage appearance. This shady place was called the "green room," and one of the sights never to be forgotten was the mingling of characters and costumes. Mound-builders, Spanish soldiers, priests, war demons, wild nature forces, fairies, elves and bishops, all went up and down, talking to each other in every language of the civilized world and making the acquaintance of peoples and types they had not known were in their city.

A group of Greeks who had not yet learned English appeared in their national costume. A group of Swedes endeared themselves to costume and property committees by their wonderful helpfulness. Daughters of the American Revolution were costumed as ladies attending a ball in honor of Lafayette. The North-Western Improvement Association and the City Club, between them with their wives and children, made the great procession of pioneers that moved across the stage with ox-carts and prairie schooners and dogs and horses in the long, last lights of the sunset.

And all these people know their city now as they never knew it before.

The costumes were made under the direction of the costume committee in an empty floor of one of the downtown office buildings. Into the making of these costumes went the devoted work of hundreds of volunteers. The Mothers' Clubs of the public schools did wonders in completing the enormous task. There were committees from half a dozen other women's clubs who gave an afternoon regularly each week, and all sorts of individual volunteers,—débütantes, matrons, school teachers, school girls and girls from the department store alteration rooms, gave their leisure time for weeks. Many of the properties were made in the manual training departments of the public schools.



A very important committee was, of course, the publicity committee. Publicity for social work is apparently a very difficult art. The publicity committee of the Pageant and Masque was composed of some of the ablest advertising and publicity agents in the city. They understood and cordially agreed with the idea of the executive committee that the purpose of the great production and not the production itself, was the important thing, the thing that must be brought home to the community. The Pageant and Masque was not given to advertise St. Louis but to bring the people of St. Louis to an understanding of their city's possibilities. What the publicity committee had to present, therefore, was an ideal,—which is much more difficult to work into advertising matter than a new breakfast food.

The committee feared, at first, that the symbolism was not going "to get

across," as they expressed it, and they took the rather reserved statements of artists and various sub-committees of the production committee and "hippodromed" them—successfully, to judge the pudding by the eating.

One of the branches of the publicity department was the lecture bureau. This was very ably conducted by one single woman and it is her pride that though there were often as many as four pageant speakers a night in different parts of the city, not one request for a talk on the pageant was unfilled. Naturally with all these speeches to be made the supply of professional speakers ran short, but volunteers, often from most unexpected quarters, did wonders at this sort of work. City salesmen from the great wholesale dry goods, hardware and other business houses made admirable speeches. In the public schools the larger boys and girls explained the Pageant and Masque to the children in the lower grades.

One thing every lecturer found: organizations expected to be appealed to for money. They were. But also, when they were asked to fill up the cast cards, and "come on in, the water's fine," many a tired business man, remembering that he had at one time been able to paddle a canoe, cheerfully agreed to come to all the rehearsals, wear a costume consisting chiefly of war paint, and do something for his city beside write a cheque.

The children in the public schools sold about one hundred and thirty thousand buttons, and they did it, each one of them, with a pride in doing something for the city.

Beside the lecture bureau, there was a writers' bureau. Everyone in the city who thought he or she could write something about the Pageant and Masque was asked to do it and many of the articles were placed with the newspapers in the small towns through the state.



Mississippi's Canoe Before Cahokia, "father of the mound Builders." Mississippi stands in the prow. The canoe is manned by River Spirits and bears the child—Little Saint Louis



The Mound Builders—"The earth, my children, bring hither the red earth, heap high this mound . . ."

Every one was asked to do something.

This is the sort of publicity that really reached the people outside the restricted districts to which social publicity is usually addressed whether it is an appeal for pure milk, or for the "city beautiful," or the drama league or votes for women.



One marvel of the production was the promptness with which the seven thousand five hundred actors came on the stage exactly on their cues. This means, of course, extraordinarily able stage management; but to one behind the scenes it was entirely evident that no forty or fifty men could have brought those amateur actors, some of them larking, of course, and all excited, into their places in the wings, tensely earnest, determined to do their very best. Nothing could have done this except devotion to the idea—"We can do this for the city."

The auditorium is probably deserving of all the superlatives that St. Louis people bestow upon it. Art Hill, as it is called, is a semi-circular amphitheater, crowned by the city Art Museum, and with a lagoon at its base. Just in front of the museum stands a heroic bronze equestrian statue of Saint Louis. Across the lagoon, the great stage was built, leaving about one hundred and thirty-five feet of water between the front of the stage and the bank behind which the seating began.

Quite unexpected was the discovery of the extraordinary acoustics of the amphitheatre. The voices of even single actors were heard distinctly at the top of the great hill and the chorus of 600 voices and brass band of 100 pieces added to the stupendous effect of the whole. The pageant began just before sunset; the masque ended with the new moon and a single planet swinging low in the sky.

On the sides of the hill 46,000 seats were erected and these occupied something less than a third of the space. Of these seats half were free and half were charged for, and the line between the

free and charged was drawn exactly down the middle of the hill from top to bottom. On one side of this aisle, the seats cost \$1.50 apiece, on the other side they were taken by the first comer. Whole family parties and neighborhood groups brought baskets and boxes of luncheon and dinner. It is said that after the first performance, the soda-pop factories put on a night force. Around the edges of the hill were the concession tents, mostly occupied by the devoted women who do this kind of chore for the various charities of the city—they sold ham sandwiches and ice cream cones by the hundred thousand.

Perhaps the crown of the whole marvelous performance was the magnificently ordered crowd. Few estimates of attendance at the four performances fall below half a million. Yet during the time there was not an arrest, not a serious accident. The ambulances came out and went home, empty. The police department detailed 235 men, including mounted men, captains, sergeants and drill masters, to handle the whole traffic problem, a problem of 3,000 automobiles, street-car terminals, the space behind the scenes, the concessions and the enormous audience.

In addition to the police there were several hundred boy scouts who acted as ushers and general assistants in information agent to the audience. The boys covered themselves with glory. They were courteous, quick and extremely scrupulous for their uniform's honor. But four times the number of police and boy scouts could not have handled that crowd. That crowd handled itself. St.





The people of Upper Louisiana making an agreement which puts them under the American flag.

Louis crowds are accustomed to self-government, and this was one more instance of what we call in St. Louis, the "democratization of administration of public recreational facilities." We are to talk now of the "efficiency of crowd control."

The Public Recreation Commission has intimate knowledge of this efficiency of a crowd to control itself after its experience at the great public swimming pool last summer. This was "still another manifestation of the community's sense of the beauty in ordered and restrained and discriminative and responsible freedom." There were in all four performances. It is perhaps typical of the smoothness and promptness of the whole control that the performance advertised to begin Thursday at 6:30 p. m. began at 6:29 p. m. After the great crowd slowly and reluctantly left the hillside on Thursday night, the success of the pageant was assured. If anything was needed to prove it, it was the rain on Friday night. What would have discouraged any other performance was a triumph here. The audience sat, at least 30,000 of them, through two hard showers and waited, soaked through and dripping, for the performance to begin.

When the actors behind the scenes saw what "good sports" their fellow citizens on the hill were, they insisted on going on and proving their own sporting blood. The bond of fellowship was almost tangible. One seventeen year old actor with his costume of paint streaked from shoulder to heel by the rain, grinned out from the wings at the au-

dience who looked "like a lot of trained and happy seals," and said, "Ain't the old town great!" Two scenes were given, each side determined to prove to the other their good faith. Then considerations of health compelled the management to send actors and audience home.

As for the final effect of these wonderful performances on this wonderful audience, I cannot do better than quote from William Marion Reedy's report in the *Mirror*:

"There were thousands of actors on the stage and amid beautiful scenic ef-

fects. And in the silver-washed dusk, companioned by a brilliant star, the crescent moon like a lantern hung and moving slowly down the purpling night disappeared with the final scene.

"There was a sense of beauty in power and power in beauty through it all. All the city was there. It was a great demonstration of democracy's idealism, of its passion for art that it could understand, of its love for its home town, its past, its future. Here was civic art in colossal splendor. Poetry, music, sculpture, acting, combined their effects and fused into an incalculably effective expression of fraternalism and solidarity of aspiration and purpose. . . .

"And there passed from the stage to the assemblage on the hill a vibration as of the awe in joy that comes when we apprehended the beautiful sublime in any form.

"The city pulsates yet with the passion the performance evoked. The Pageant and Masque influenced the great assemblage on four evenings—100,000 people at a time . . . and the enthusiasm still burns in the casual conversation of groups of people everywhere.



"There is a St. Louis spirit, and a fine one, evident on every hand. It is as something of the pride that must come to people who have won a great victory, and the joy is omnipresent that the city did grandly and beautifully a grand and beautiful thing."

The New Health¹

By Edward T. Devine

WHY new? The new Nationalism of Roosevelt we understand, for political ideals are created by the irresistible sweep of economic and political events. The new Freedom of Woodrow Wilson we grant, for freedom is not negative or absolute, but is conquered affirmatively piece by piece in every generation. To the new History of James Harvey Robinson we take no exception, for that signifies a deeper insight into relevant and useful facts which illustrate important historical truth, instead of a bare chronicle of irrelevant facts.

The next or new Religion of Zangwill need not seriously offend us even though the Lord Chamberlain forbid its production in England and we ourselves politely ask for title deeds, for we remember the prophecy of Lessing's Wise Man, as he interpreted to Saladin the legend of the magic ring, symbol of religion, that after a thousand thousand years, our children's children's children may stand before a juster judge with evidences that the ring's power to make men love us has some objective meaning, and is not all used up in the process of making us duly appreciate our insignificant selves.

But, again, why the new Health? One answer might be that some of the dangers to which the public health is subjected are of our own and our fathers' making, such as industrial accidents and diseases; that some of the resources by which these dangers are to be met, such as accident compensation and safeguard against disease, are not yet fully utilized; and that in these ways, even though our individualistic philosophy remained unchanged, our health problem might be conceived as new.

But there is a deeper sense in which we are justified in speaking of the new Health. There is a corner for us to turn just now sharply for a new view in striking contrast with that which has been the current point of view. The new Health at this moment awaits the adequate formulation and the general acceptance of a health ideal.

The ancient Jews had such an ideal; consonant with their religion and economic order: a health ideal to be attained by the observance of minute sanitary regulations, by abstinence from unclean foods, by purifications and atonements, and by racial integrity. He who was negligent in observing the health regulations was an "abomination unto

the Lord"—and he is so still.

The ancient Greeks also had a sharply defined and universally accepted though a different ideal: to be sought through gymnastic and music, through harmony of life, through moderation and measure, through sanity of mind and discipline of body; a health ideal demanding self-denial and lofty intelligence and freedom from manual toil: an ideal fit for a non-commercial, non-industrial society of thinkers, poets, athletes, slave-owners and philosophers, not, perhaps, for industrial workers or housewives.

Plato taught that a gentleman should be ashamed to go away from home either for his physic, or for his law-abidingness. Save for a frost bite or a sunstroke or a wound, no man who understood and practiced personal hygiene should need to seek the advice of a physician any more than a self-respecting citizen would ordinarily need the advice of a lawyer. To call in a doctor merely because, through self-indulgence or neglect of the plain rules of health, one has become a premature valetudinarian, is nothing less than an insult to the noble sons of Asclepius.

Now we are the heirs of Jew and Greek. Both Leviticus and the Republic lie open before us: the one read constantly in church and synagogue, the other taught in every college class in literature and in politics. But health ideals of the ancient times, like their ethical and political ideals, no longer suffice. No attempt of Puritan or classicist or of any type of medical insurgent will make them live again as dominant ideals, however devoutly or sincerely we may pay them intellectual tribute. They do not express our feelings. They do not match our instincts. They do not meet our corporate needs.

Have we then a health ideal of our own, corresponding to our needs, instincts and feelings? If not, and it is in the making, how shall we recognize it when it comes? What are the earmarks of any ideal which is to make effective appeal to prosperous western twentieth century communities?

I fear that we must as yet answer our first question negatively. What comes into our minds—as yet—when we speak of health campaigns is not the beauty of perfect health, scarcely anything comparable to the harmony of the Greeks or the cleanliness of the Jew.

What is it that we think of when we hear the magic words—a health campaign? Nothing in the world surely, but of such things as the swatting of flies; the injunction that spitting is a filthy

habit and may lead to fine and imprisonment; the inspection and condemnation of dirty or adulterated milk, of tainted meat and rotten fruit and contaminated water; the replacement of privy vaults and cesspools by sewers; the application of silver nitrate to newly opened baby eyes; the exposure and prosecution of medical quacks; the careful measuring, to the fraction of an inch, of tenement flats, to find out whether they are so small, so dark, so insecure, so unfit for human habitation that the law officially sanctions the filling of a technical "violation." These are all excellent things. We are in favor of them. We have helped before now to create committees to educate the public as to their necessity. But add them all together and extend the series to include milk stations, and medical inspection, and tuberculosis dispensaries, and compulsory notification of diseases, and model tenements, playgrounds, summer outings, Bulgarian tablets for the souring of milk and a eugenic marriage law, and you have not yet so much as laid the foundations for the new Health; for these foundations must be laid upon the solid basis of morals and ideals.

If these varied institutions and activities and discoveries are genuine expressions of a social ideal, an ideal of healthy life, of vital health, they are cause for congratulation. If they are accidental, imported notions, popular whims, superficial fads, foolishly held as panaceas, they may be no better than any other quackeries.

We are still without a clear health philosophy however ready we are to listen to health arguments. Reformers still assume that we are most easily influenced by disease bogies. We are still naïvely conscious of our new vital statistics. We are not far removed from the pathological monstrosities by which the schools were at first made to try to inculcate temperance principles. They are gone or going, and we are now deluging the public with somewhat more artistic but still hair-raising exhibitions, including moving pictures, in which the warning note, the inspiring of alarm, the invidious comparison, persist respectively, as the prevailing note, inspiration and comparison.

Such arguments and appeals have their place, but they are indeed a poor and scant expression, an inadequate expression of the modern social spirit. They arouse our individual fears, our instincts for self-preservation and for the safety of our next of kin. What they do not express is our enthusiasm

¹An address given before the twelfth biennial of the General Federation of Women's Clubs at Chicago, June 15.

for a society of healthy, vigorous, self-reliant and yet mutually interdependent fellow citizens.

Our corporate feeling that the public health concerns us is a simple, indivisible direct sentiment. If Sing Sing prison breeds tuberculosis so that a sentence to states prison is in effect—and is known to be—a sentence to tuberculosis, we get angry about it by a very simple and direct reaction. If children are delinquent because of neglected physical defects it arouses our indignation. If families cannot be re-established because of the lack of some essential medical agency, we insist that this is incompatible with the civilization of such a community as ours.

We are coming to care about the death-rate, about the average vigor, effective length of the working life, the content of the community life expressed in pleasure, in material well-being and in standards of living, not because we are making some sort of elaborate calculation as to how these things will inure to our individual personal benefit, but because there is a satisfaction in the very fact of having been born in a community in which there is health, in living to contribute to its increase, and dying in the knowledge that later generations will enter into a richer heritage of health than fell to ourselves. To attempt to translate this passion for the public health into some form of personal advantage is to miss its character.

Calvin's reputed willingness to be damned for the glory of God has its frequent analogy in the sacrifice of personal health for the advancement of the common welfare. Physicians and nurses, sanitarians, and inspectors do work themselves literally to death in order that epidemics may be controlled and necessary health measures brought into effect. There is no paradox here, except from an obsolete individualistic point of view.

The liberty for which socially minded men and women care most is precisely the liberty to serve to the utmost, with no careful measurement of reward, no certainty of livelihood, no personal immunity even from the very evils which they would exterminate from among men. In this spirit men have fought valiantly for religion, for education, for political liberty, for democracy, for many a great cause which they have instinctively, directly, and unqualifiedly identified with the common welfare.

The new Health, as a social ideal, signifies that in our day, because of our new knowledge, our new science of sanitation, our new conscience, our new spirit of brotherhood, our new democracy, our new social intimacy of understanding, we are coming to feel about the public health as our fathers have felt about religion, education, liberty, and nationality. We are to feel

that health is fundamental and inalienable, that it imposes sacred obligations, calls us to willing service, becomes the object of our constant concern, makes us ashamed of inefficiency, stupidity, and graft, because they mean disease, raises us to a new level of brotherhood, of citizenship, of sonship to a common Father, and of joint parental responsibility to the heritors of a racial stock whose full inheritance consists, not merely of the germ plasm of a fortuitous set of parents, but of all that we jointly bestow upon their generation.

The emphasis then will be not upon disease, but upon health; not upon pathology, but upon hygiene; not upon germs or germicides, but upon life and vigor; not upon the shady side, but upon the sunny side; not upon weaknesses and abnormalities, but upon work and play, healthy activities and pleasurable functions. Thus the new health will represent a positive way of looking at life, not a series of subtractions of pains and terrors. We shall think of ourselves as conquering new territory in order that we may go up and enjoy it; not as entrenching ourselves to ward off formidable and unconquerable foes.

FOR the realization of the conception of the new health, certain preliminary revolutionary developments were essential. It was necessary to escape from the ever constant menace of poverty, of economic deficit, with which the ancient Jew in spite of Solomon's magnificence—perhaps in part the cause of it—was ever familiar, of which the Athenian, as well as his kinsmen in Sparta was ever conscious in spite of his poetry and philosophy as we well know from both.

It was necessary for capital to accumulate, for invention to invade the mechanical arts, for labor to become efficient, for transportation facilities to become facile and to enmesh the globe, magically transforming commerce, industry and agriculture. It was necessary that in such ways society should come to a conception of a social surplus, come to a conception of it by seeing its evidences plainly in warehouses, on the rails and at sea, in the fertile fields, in the vaults of banks, in the stores and shops, in university and museum and library and park, but most of all in every home, on the tables of the people, in bath-room and lighting system, in every convenience and comfort which lightens toil or strain and adds to the span of human life.

It was necessary for society thus to pass from an age of deficit into an age of surplus, from what Professor Patten in his famous praise calls a "pain economy," to a pleasure economy. Because of the enormous progress of the nineteenth century it is quite possible for the twentieth century in our modern western communities at any rate to main-

tain for the first time in the history of the race, not merely in a favored class but in all classes, a standard of living consistent with a decent respect for the opinions—the enlightened opinions of mankind.

This is the corner-stone of our new health policy; a higher standard of living through more efficient industry and more fruitful commerce.

But greater wealth of material things is not enough. There was essential, in the second place, political democracy, a utilitarian doctrine that each must count for one and that the happiness of all men was of equal importance. A military despotism might have its achievements in public health. I do not forget Cuba under military occupation or the Panama Canal zone; and I have seen great things accomplished by similar means in emergencies in San Francisco, and in Dayton. But the new Health of a national ideal can never be achieved or held by despotism, however benevolent. It rests upon public education and common consent. The individual who endangers others must indeed be controlled and the expert must be trusted; but always upon a democratic basis, subject to recall, tested by reasonable tests, justifying himself before a critical and informed public opinion.

One thing more was essential besides economic progress and democratic equality. There was essential a sense of social solidarity, of mutual responsibility, of the reality that society is one, that men are brethren, that we are members one of another, that squalor, misery, crime, injustice, ignorance and disease are literally and actually matters of common concern. I have fallen into the old manner of speech. Let us say rather that prosperity, justice, health, material and spiritual well-being, are matters of common concern.

There is some danger of misinterpreting this doctrine to the destruction of self-reliance, and the exaltation of petty and unnecessary interference with the affairs of our neighbors. I believe in the doctrine of personal responsibility and in that of social responsibility and I hold that they are not incompatible.

It has been held in the past that the first factor in the conservation of health was the practice of the family physician. Perhaps the time may come when by the removal of social and industrial obstacles to good health this can yet be held to be sound doctrine. I have no sympathy with medical insurgency, though I must admit that medical standpointism is even more obnoxious. There is no other leadership which the layman may safely accept than that of public-spirited medical men.

Candor compels us, as things are, however, on very different grounds to question the degree of the responsibility of the physician; to recognize that it

is unreasonable to hold medical practice responsible for a death-rate due to the strain of an industry, to the defects of a dwelling, to the neglect of a government, to the ignorance of mothers, to an unsocialized school system, or to any other conditions which can be changed only by the concerted action of many forces outside the medical profession, although not without their co-operation.

THE new Health demands at least these seventeen things, none of which are exclusively medical—most of them not medical at all:

1. The total abolition of child labor, for pay. One expeditious way of contributing to this end is by the passage of the Palmer-Owen bill now pending in Congress, which will put the stamp of the nation's disapproval upon the least excusable of the destructive forces menacing the health, morals and education of the rising generation.

2. The abolition of night work for women and the abolition—or the reform—of all occupations physically injurious to women.

3. The adaptation to the physiological needs of women of those industries in which women and girls are engaged.

4. A mitigation of the muscular and nervous strain of speeding and overwork for children, women and men.

5. A lessening of the no less serious, although very different strain of anxiety and distress due to unemployment, uncertainty and irregularity of employment, and underpaid employment.

6. The prevention of congestion of population in various ways—among others by the taxation of unearned increment, accompanied by the strict regulation of the height of buildings, open spaces and room over-crowding.

7. The prevention of alcoholism, by means analogous to those now so effective in the prevention of tuberculosis.

8. The segregation of the feeble-minded and the adequate treatment and care of the abnormal and helplessly subnormal in the population.

9. The more vigorous control of food, milk, and water infections by federal and local health authorities, who however shall be asked to say just as little about the anatomical and biological details of their operations as is consistent with the necessary public co-operation. This involves, of course, a strict enforcement of the federal food and drugs act, and it may well be supplemented by popular education in the principles of dietetics.

10. The development of the system of physical inspection of school children to become a rational program for developing soundness of body and that soundness of mind which only bodily health can insure. Gulick and Ayres inform us that the sudden recognition of the imperative necessity of safe-guarding the physical welfare of school children grew

out of the discovery that compulsory education under modern city conditions meant compulsory disease. The farther away we can get from the particular policies founded upon this discovery, and the nearer we can get to the idea that medical inspection, open air schools, special classes for handicapped children, school sanitation and sanitary architecture are all integral features of a rational educational system the more we shall approximate to the ideal of the new health as it affects school children.

11. A great increase in public recreational facilities, in rural communities as well as in cities.

12. A more accurate and complete registration of births and deaths; persistent extension of the registration area looking eventually to a complete, continuously corrected registration of the whole population.

13. A hastening of the too gradual process by which the marine hospital service has been transformed in part and is yet to be transformed completely into a federal public health service.

14. The development of a vigorous health service in the several states, such as the past years have witnessed in my own state of New York.

15. A more generous recognition and protection and control of the practice of midwifery and the teaching of midwives.

16. A more careful supervision of marriage, if not immediately by legal compulsion, at least by voluntary submission of health certificates and the creation of a public opinion as to the baseness of corrupting the marriage relation by making it the channel of communicating vile disease to innocent husbands, wives or children.

17. The instruction of mothers in the care of infants before and after birth, securing for this purpose the co-operation of the whole body of physicians, midwives and nurses, not despising grandmothers, mothers-in-law and neighbors when they have experience and practical common-sense, which they are willing to subordinate to professional instruction and when necessary to authoritative control.

Every organized social movement has its health aspects even if not directly aimed at disease. The tuberculosis movement is of all these most widely extended, the most vigorously pressed, the most rationally related to government, most clearly exhibiting the possibilities of co-operation between physicians of every school and social workers of every sort. Similar if less extensive campaigns are in progress against insanity, feeble-mindedness, epilepsy, infant mortality and the venereal diseases.

These health movements have also their moral, economic, sanitary and civic features, which amply justify the participation of others than doctors. The housing movement, the town-planning movement, the child labor movement, the

playground movement, the recreation movement, the minimum wage movement, the movement for the exclusion of physically unfit immigrants, the country life movement, organized charity, prison reform, probation and juvenile protection, the protection of women in industry and above all the labor movement and the movement for the emancipation of women, in all their multitudinous forms, are not, it is true, primarily health movements, yet every one gains a large part of its appeal from the recognition of its bearing on the public health; and nearly every one loses a part of the appeal which it might make by failing to appreciate that relation.

THE prime characteristic of the new Health is that it is social, not self-centered; to be won all together by corporate effort; to be enjoyed contemporaneously by brain workers, and capital workers and manual workers; to be built up by positive additions from patient science, from mutual co-operation; from many a happy accident, intelligently appropriated; from rational eugenic policies; from equally rational social work directed towards environmental reforms; from wise decisions by learned courts; from laws enacted in the public interest; from rising standards in the practice of medicine and rising standards of living of the people; from social insurance against sickness; from increased prosperity, higher incomes, the more equitable distribution and the more rational use of wealth.

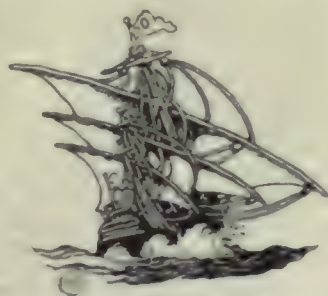
The new Health is thus an index of our civilization, a composite result of all our well-being and a tremendous asset for the advancement of that well-being.

Health is economic. Sound men cannot be exploited; and for that reason, if for no other, I greet with enthusiasm the advent of the new Health.

Health is moral. Sound men will not be unjust and for that reason I salute the era of the new Health.

Health is civic. Sound men will eliminate poverty and that of itself should make us all sanitarians. Sound men will learn to do without jails, recognizing that so-called criminals are properly speaking candidates either for educational reformatory or for a custodial hospital, and therefore again I turn gladly towards the dawn of the new Health. Sound men, speaking generically of course, male and female, will rise at last above the tragedies of the sex relation—the age long sin and shame of it, the misunderstanding and abuse of it—will learn that friendship, companionship, comradeship are incompatible with lust.

And on this high ground, for this greatest of all its victories—the victory over vice in every repulsive or seductive form—I multiply hosannas to the great cause—the cause of the new Health—the Health in which there is no shadow of turning.



Editorials

EDWARD T. DEVINE
JANE ADDAMS
GRAHAM TAYLOR
Associate Editors

PAUL U. KELLOGG
Editor

JACOB Riis wrote wonderful letters—full of gaiety and humor and the philosophy of life. And he never spared himself in writing. Often because of the drain on his strength, he was urged not to handle them all, but he used to clear his desk every day. In recent years Mrs. Riis answered many for him, but what remained made up a heavy mail.

Courage, practical suggestion, enthusiasm—whether to a group of college boys, or a civic league in some out-of-the-way village, or a railroad president with a social outlook—these were the things he sent unfailingly.

At a memorial service in Plymouth Church last month, Mr. Riis's son told of a young immigrant who had written asking for funds with which to get to the Middle West. He was stranded at the seaboard. Mr. Riis put it up to him to walk; it was summer and he was young. The lad wrote back in anger, saying he saw what stuff philanthropists are made of, only to get an inimitable letter from Mr. Riis telling of his own experiences when he himself was an American in the making.

He did not give offense; he did not take it. He entered into the boy's scheme of life, and let the youth enter—wide—into that of his own. Whether the young man walked or not is no matter; he got west, working his way and carrying with him a new vision. Two years later a letter came from him to Richmond Hill telling of his success in one of the prairie states, and thanking his fellow Dane for the biggest help that ever man gave to man.

One of the men present at this Brooklyn meeting was an editor of standing who had been stirred by *The Making of an American* when he was living in one of the cheap lodging-houses of Paris.

AMONG readers of *THE SURVEY* there must be scores who know unwritten stories of the man Riis. There must be scores who cherish letters that breathe his spirit, like that precious package which Mrs. Bacon tells of in "Beauty for Ashes" and which—the household well understood—was to be saved next after the babies should the house catch fire. An effort is to be made to collect such letters and to draw out such fragmentary evidences of Mr. Riis's social evangelism as may be fitted by friendly hands into the mosaic of a book. Will readers of *THE SURVEY* join in sending letters and experiences to Mrs. Riis, Pine Brook Farm, Barre, Mass.?

In a message to a friend recently Mrs. Riis spoke of the glow Mr. Riis left around the heart

of everyone who knew him; and she added:

"Surely the candle he lighted must burn always, until it lights the darkness in uncounted lives to come. There was something so shining about him. He was good, but he was more than good,—radiantly, gloriously good, and so adorably human always. He used to laugh at me when I told him what he was, but I am so glad now I did tell him, and that his nearness did not blind me to his soul."

AN Act has passed Congress which provides a means for extending medical and surgical relief at sea to American deep-sea fishermen. The urgent need for such provisions was pointed out in an article in *THE SURVEY*, November, 1911, and a description was given of the relief to deep-sea fishermen provided by countries which take more thought of the sea-faring man than we do.

Congress was urged to provide a hospital schooner under the United States Public Health Service, and bills for this purpose were introduced in the House of Representatives by Hon. A. P. Gardner, and in the Senate by Hon. Henry Cabot Lodge. The committee on merchant marine and fisheries, composed largely of congressmen from inland states, did not report Mr. Gardner's bill, however, and it seemed best to make a demonstration of the need for such work and the practicability of the plan suggested by having a revenue cutter detailed for this purpose, with surgeons and nurses of the Public Health Service in charge of the work of relief.

The act which has just been passed provides that "any revenue cutter now or hereafter in commission may be used to extend medical and surgical aid to the crews of American vessels engaged in the deep-sea fisheries under such regulations as the Secretary of the Treasury may prescribe.

The captain and surgeon assigned to this duty have an excellent opportunity of showing that the resources of modern medicine and surgery can be successfully taken to sea, and that lives can be saved and permanent disability prevented.

The Public Health Service, under the name of the Marine Hospital Service, by which it was known for more than a century, has been the traditional friend of the American seaman. The duties of this service have been so widely extended that it has become in effect a national board of health; but the uniforms and stationery of the service still bear the fouled anchor—symbol of the sailor in distress.

THE BILL OF RIGHTS

GEORGE W. ALGER

Author of *The Old Law and the New Order*

THE Commission on Industrial Relations is acting wisely in making careful inquiries as it goes along in the examination of recent industrial disturbances, to see to what extent, if any, the law is being violated by executive and police officers and by the courts, in denying to strikers the fundamental protection of the Bill of Rights.

Our constitutions, both state and national, of course, guarantee to everyone freedom of speech, the right of assembly, the right to the writ of habeas corpus, freedom of the press, and the like, all of which are ancient liberties of the English people, considered by our forefathers absolutely essential to an American democracy. In all the recent industrial disturbances, including those in Lawrence, in West Virginia, in Paterson, in Colorado, things have been done which, as given in the press at the time, would indicate that the Bill of Rights, which includes all these constitutional liberties to which I have referred, was not considered "practical." No conservative public opinion has as yet been aroused, since these violations (if they have been such) of the Bill of Rights have applied only to discontented poor people in the course of industrial disturbances. Most of the court decisions by which these constitutional rights seem to have been denied have been made by judges in petty courts, whose judicial opinions as such are quite negligible from the standpoint of the law but far from negligible from the standpoint of the working people affected by them.

Take, for example, the Paterson decision by the local magistrate in the Scott case. If it had been affirmed in the Supreme Court of New Jersey, the liberty of the press would have been a dead letter in New Jersey. Similar decisions have been made by the police courts in Massachusetts and in New York state on other branches of the Bill of Rights.

These decisions and the action of local executive and police officers, through which these decisions arise, all seem to come from an idea that the Bill of Rights is not practical, in its application at least, to this large class of foreigners who form the striking masses in a majority of these industrial disputes. Colorado has apparently decided in a number of cases that the Bill of Rights is not practical, and outrages upon those rights have been so frequent, if one may judge by recent magazine articles, as to arouse the question whether, so far as the working class is concerned, a republican form of government exists in that state. West Virginia, through its governor, established a military tribunal in defiance of a constitution which clearly declares that no such tribunal should ever be established in the state, and this tribunal denies the writ of habeas corpus in defiance of a constitution which expressly forbids that it should ever be denied. The practical executive saw that action was necessary to re-establish order, and, having reached that conclusion, he concluded that it was advis-

able to suspend the constitution so far as the striking miners were concerned, and the highest court of West Virginia sustained him in what he did.

As conservative an authority as ex-Chief Justice Cullen, of our Court of Appeals, has characterized these decisions in language which a judge rarely uses concerning decisions of the highest court of another state. He declared in an address before the New York State Bar Association in January of this year:

"These decisions exalt the military power beyond any height hitherto known in this country. They assert the power of the military at the uncontrolled discretion of a single man to dispose of the life and liberty of any person within the state, not by way of detention till the termination of an insurrection nor where life is taken in the actual clash of arms, but purely as a punishment for acts which may not be offenses at all by the law, or, if offenses, subject to slight penalties."

If the Commission on Industrial Relations can so far assist us by getting us the actual facts, so that we may judge whether in its fundamentals the Bill of Rights is being disregarded in its application to strikers in industrial disputes, it will aid a conservative body of opinion to crystallize itself and make its influence felt.

It is a true conservatism to regard the Bill of Rights as something fundamental, as belonging to all of us, which cannot exist at all if it is denied to one class and preserved only to a more prosperous class which economically needs it least. There are many of us who have no sympathy whatever with the class of agitators who are today shouting for free speech, believing them to be insincere and lawless in their purposes. The mere fact that we do not sympathize with them is no reason why we should permit any of the fundamental guarantees of citizenship in America to be undermined or destroyed.

The Bill of Rights cost a great deal of blood; it was a thing which our forefathers fought for; it cannot become out of date and impractical unless we agree to its destruction by indirect attack. All the questions which relate to the Bill of Rights in recent times have, of course, arisen in connection with one class only,—working people, mostly foreigners, suffering from economic pressure and distress on American soil. Unless we are agreed that it is possible to Mexicanize America by having a constitution which is a name rather than a reality to a peon class, we must take sides in favor of the Bill of Rights when its protection is denied to any class under any conditions.

It is to be hoped that the Commission on Industrial Relations will throughout its investigations bear the Bill of Rights clearly in mind and will be able to report to us as a people the extent, if any, to which that charter of liberties has been nullified or overruled or cast aside during the industrial disputes of recent years. No part of its work can be of any greater value, as I see it, than this. It is to be hoped that that work will be done thoroughly and impartially.

WHEN THE SHIP GOES DOWN

[Continued from page 363.]

dress in death cases. Under our present federal law the old common law rule that an action dies with the person, still obtains, and it is only by applying the state or foreign law that our admiralty courts can take jurisdiction of an action for damages for death at sea.

3. An amendment of the Harter act decreasing the owner's exemption from liability for cargo loss.

4. The extension of the federal employers' liability laws or future interstate railroad workmen's compensation laws to seamen on vessels in foreign, lake, coastwise and inland river trade.

These extensions of the owner's liability besides doing justice to passengers, shippers and crew, would in all probability have an important indirect effect in preventing accidents at sea. Until a short time ago we were taught to believe that transportation on the water was comparatively safe compared with transportation on land. Lately a large number of serious accidents involving great loss of life, have impressed upon us that there is much to be done to increase safety at sea.

Considerable attention has been devoted to the problem of increasing safety by governmental regulations respecting the construction, equipment and operation of vessels. Senator La Follette's bill, directed particularly to improving the condition and efficiency of seamen, has been passed by the Senate and is pending in the House. The London Conference has prepared a code of rules which are recommended to maritime countries for adoption. The House committee on Merchant Marine has introduced a bill based on this code.

No consideration seems to have been given, however, to the possibility of contributing to this safety movement by increasing the owner's financial responsibility for accidents when they occur.

The movement for prevention has been tremendously advanced by the employer's realization of the economic advantage to him of prevention and the economic cost of accidents. It is not probable that increased liability on the part of the ship-owners will result in increased efforts on their part to devise ways and means of preventing losses? However effective governmental regulation may be, it cannot be so successful as the concerted efforts of the owners to conserve their own property.

No one accuses the owners of deliberate carelessness in exposing the traveling public to unnecessary danger, but there is good reason to believe that the owner's active and positive attention to the safety of his passengers will increase in proportion to increases of his financial liability for the damages suffered by them in case of accident.



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"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"

[Continued from page 371.]

Those stories about the impractical club women must have been started years ago, in the first callow beginnings of women's clubs, I thought, and said as much to a neighbor. She was an Indianapolis woman, and for answer she handed me a register of the Indianapolis Woman's Club beginning with 1875.

Glancing through it with curious interest I found that the first topic on its first program was: "In order to be good housekeepers, is it necessary to devote one's entire time to the work?" Its second program took up Woman's Relation to Man. By '76 they were studying banking systems, and had a lecture from Mary Livermore on Superfluous Women. Their programs went on, taking up history, philosophy, literature, religion and architecture, till '79 brought them to the consideration of Legislation on Public Order and Municipal Government and The Kindergarten Theory. Free Trade and The Charities of Today followed. In 1889 Service came into the club thought with Boshop Faber's words, "The great fact is, that life is a service; the only question is, whom will we serve."

In '92 Out-Door Relief and The Children of Our State were considered. I closed the book with deep thoughts of those women of an earlier day. And now my neighbor, seeing the impression made upon me by this review, pressed upon me a fat volume of the history of the General Federation of Women's Clubs. It was overwhelming. It is a big thought, that of the 16,000 in our Indiana federation. But to think of one million club women, doing, thinking, working out all the things their programs designate! It is stupendous. I looked again, with new interest, at our leaders on the platform, who were prominent in this giant organization and wondered about all the grist its great wheels were turning to grind. Then my thoughts came back to our own organization.

Enlisting the Federation

Any one who strayed into that convention hall would have had to listen attentively to discover whether it was a child labor meeting, a conservation conference, or a congress of mothers. In fact, it was the vital forces of all these interests federated. It seemed therefore perfectly fitting to me and to them that, after I had told them the story of the defeat of the tenement law that year, I should propose as their slogan "the homes of Indiana," and that they should accept it and pledge the whole federation to housing reform. I asked it of them, "because whatever is a menace to the poorest home is a menace to our own; for the sake of all who live in mansions, cottages, farm houses, tene-

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ments, or hovels; that all the 'homes of Indiana' may be safeguarded."

Not only did the federation take up housing reform as a whole body, but it created a housing committee and made me its chairman. It became my part, thereafter, to explain the need and nature of housing reform to the clubs of the state; and so up and down, from the Ohio to the Great Lakes I went, and back and forth across our state, telling the story of "the homes of Indiana." They needed no urging, these women of the federation, to make them take up the cause of those other women who had no voice, who were too weak and ignorant to plead for themselves, or to know how to better their conditions.

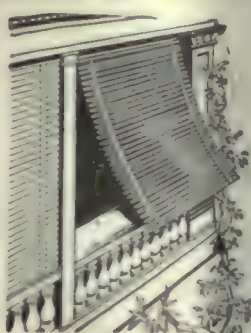
Before I started off on a tour I went again to the homes of the poor, to burn within my mind a more vivid image of their wretchedness, to get the figures of their enormous rentals, and to rouse afresh the anger that blazed within me, that I might kindle it in others.

On many of my trips I had the company of the president of the federation, as her duties called her to many of the meetings. First, this was Mrs. Clarke, and later, Mrs. Felix T. McWhirter, wife of an Indianapolis banker and one of the noblest christian women in our state. Both entered heartily into my work, and gave it emphasis before the federation in every possible way.

In such company I soon saw what it meant to be president of our federation, and enjoyed their honors with them. I must say that the care taken of us has spoiled me for the ordinary lecture field, with its uncertainties. In the larger cities a limousine was waiting for us at the station, and the club woman who had the most palatial home took the duties of our hostess. There were club luncheons and dinners, the mere memory of which will refresh any famishing desert that life may hold for me. At the smaller towns we were met by an auto or, in some places, a sleek country horse and carriage, that conveyed us to the softest bed, the most bountiful fare, and the warmest hearts that could be found. From club to club we went, from home to home.

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It was most interesting to study the different groups of women, and to see what their club life meant to them. It meant occupation and new interests to the women of leisure. It meant rest and refreshing of energy to the busy women. The most noticeable result of all was in the spirit of the women—a spirit of optimism and achievement, of ever renewed and vigorous purpose, which I believe does more to counteract age and illness than any force of the age, except religion. But the greatest thing was not the spirit, nor the work. "It is the women themselves, after all," as Mrs. Clarke said.



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PROMPT ATTENTION

It was inspiring to see how instantly they took up the thought I was trying to bring to them. And if they had been organized only for the purposes of self-improvement, they would not have felt their responsibility so keenly.

It was a sad business, though, to go about the state, thrusting thorns into tender hearts. "No one looks at me without thinking of slums," I told them, "and I almost feel as if my name were Bill, from the constant references to it." I envied the lecturers who could talk all the time about pretty things. I hated the reek and ruin of the slums more than ever. But the truth had to be told. And what a harvest I was reaping! And here was such an opportunity. I might never see this audience again. They *must* know and care.

There is something weird about the effect of turning over to one's subconscious mind the responsibility for a speech, and hearing one's own voice (sounding strangely far off) go on and on, saying things that both entertain and surprise one. And, at the close, to have a friend say "That's the best speech you ever made," gives food for thought.

When I had to pinch my arms to keep alert and had a strong desire to lay my head on the pulpit pillow (when I spoke in churches) I knew the danger line was near. In one city where I stopped at a hotel, after meetings, discussions, conferences, luncheons, callers, and reporters, I went to the hotel desk to give my key to the clerk. His amazed smile made me aware that I had given him my watch, which was in my other hand.

At the end of one tour an invitation was brought to me from the Chamber of Commerce of South Bend to come over next day and speak. Miss Rein, who had charge of the charities there, met me and went with me to the Oliver. Waiting in the parlors with her for the committee of men who were to receive me, I remember trying in vain to write a few notes for my talk, and controlling an almost overwhelming desire to stretch out upon the green velvet davenport for a little nap. But I roused to speak to the committee, and later the snow in my face set my blood a-tingle. A good audience of civic and charity workers awaited me, as well as many members of the Chamber of Commerce. And there was my friend, Judge Howard, president of the Chamber of Commerce, ready to help and encourage. That meeting was worth the whole trip, for, as a result, the board of directors of the Chamber pledged the body to the state housing movement.

And the Legislature was coming nearer and nearer.

I looked across the year, that stretched like a great circle of a race track before me, to January, 1913, and dreaded it.

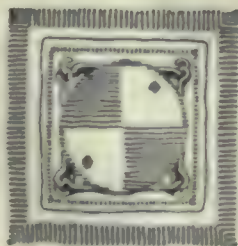
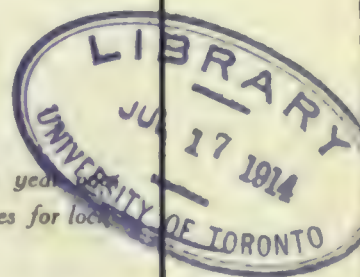
THE SURVEY

THE SAFE FOURTH

Early returns indicate that the Safe and Sane Fourth has gained this year its best records. Later returns always show more deaths, when all the figures for local jaw are in. But for July 5 in each year, the figures are:

	Deaths	Injuries
1914	10	867
1913	25	1032
1912	25	1043
1911	39	1358
1910	44	2485
1905	59	3169
1900	59	2767

Last year 394 cities celebrated sanely. The figures for this year are not yet in. The Chicago Tribune, pioneer of the movement, finds the gun still the most deadly weapon and "the only remnant of insanity."



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SURVEY ASSOCIATES

PUBLICATION OFFICE
105 East 22d Street
New York

INCORPORATED

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WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 15

Contents

July 11, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

STUNTING NEW YORK STATE INSTITUTIONS	385
AN EMPLOYER'S REASONS FOR CLOSING EVENINGS	385
A PLACID VIEW OF A CROWDED PRISON	386
MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT IN NEW YORK STATE	386
PURGING SALEM'S TENEMENTS WITH FIRE	387
THE TREND OF THE SCIENCE OF EUGENICS	388
DEFENDING COOK COUNTY AGAINST FACTION, Graham Taylor	388

CIVICS

REGULATING HEIGHTS OF BUILDINGS	Charles Mulford Robinson	389
WITH THE CITY PLANNERS AT TORONTO	Flavel Shurtleff	390
AROUSING A CITY TO SAFETY	William A. Searle	391
MUNICIPAL ICE: SOME SUCCESSFUL EXPERIMENTS		391
TWELVE MONTHS' RECREATION RECORD		392
NEIGHBORHOOD CENTER COMPETITION		392

SOCIAL AGENCIES

"PIRATES" AND PRISONERS: MUSIC AS A REFORMING INFLUENCE	Mary Caroline Crawford	393
THE LAND PROBLEM IN TEXAS AND THE REMEDIES PROPOSED	John C. Granbery	394
CHICAGO'S COUNTRY CLUB FOR SOCIAL WORKERS		395
CO-OPERATION IN CHILDREN'S WORK IN PHILADELPHIA		395
RECREATION AND A SOUTHERN BUSINESS WOMEN'S CLUB		396
FIVE YEARS OF JUVENILE COURT WORK IN ST. LOUIS		396
CHICAGO SCHOOL OF CIVICS AND PHILANTHROPY		396

INDUSTRY

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AND INDUSTRIAL UNREST	John A. Fitch	397
HEARINGS ON THE RECODIFICATION OF THE NEW YORK STATE LABOR LAW		399
EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES IN PORTLAND		400

COMMUNICATIONS

JOTTINGS		401
		404

Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents. Changes of address should be mailed to us ten days in advance.

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The GIST of IT—

THE Salem fire, working like a surgeon, spared historical and beauty spots and excised the dangerous wooden tenement district. The Red Cross is in charge of relief. Page 387.

THE New York state labor law, assembled on the general plan of a centipede, will be recodified following the recent hearings. Page 386.

STATE charitable institutions fared ill at the hands of the economy program of the New York state administration. Page 385.

PHILADELPHIA children's agencies have surveyed their work and charted a co-operative program. Page 395.

EVEN mere men are to have Saturday nights off in a Buffalo clothing store. Page 385.

WOMEN prisoners at Sherborn gave The Pirates of Penzance, and music is accounted one of the big items in making the reformatory actually reform. Page 393.

MOYAMENSING, even in the cold terms of a half-hearted investigation report, sounds tragically like Sing Sing. Page 386.

MORE than 2,000 descendants of the five Juke sisters are now on record. Curiously enough some of them, through marriage to normal outsiders, show normal characteristics. Page 385.

COOK COUNTY'S infirmary comes out from an investigation with colors flying. It was attacked by the same political forces that tried to wreck the Chicago Juvenile Court two years ago. Page 387.

DR. CABOT'S suggestion that play amid beautiful surroundings is a necessity for social workers led Julius Rosenwald to give the social workers of Chicago a country club. Page 395.

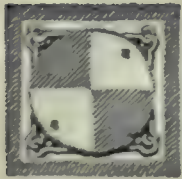
PROHIBITION will probably carry in Texas next fall, so interest centers on the other big issue of the campaign—the land question. Texas is becoming a state of tenant farmers and is seeking a plan to stop it. Page 394.

CANADIAN officials, present in large numbers, gave new flavor to the National Conference on City Planning and challenged the American constitution for protecting individual privilege against community right. Page 390.

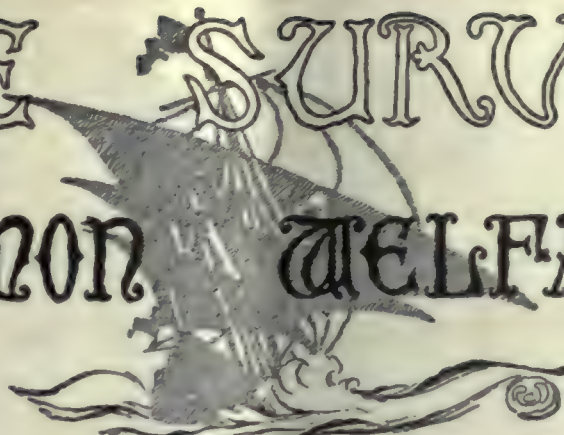
HECKLING by both workers and employers characterized the Philadelphia hearings of the Industrial Relations Commission, but some substantial and interesting suggestions were put into the record. Page 397.

NEW YORK'S report on limiting the heights of buildings does not apply directly to smaller and less congested communities, but it lays down principles which are of service to city planners everywhere. Page 389.

THE SURVEY



COMMON WELFARE



STUNTING NEW YORK STATE INSTITUTIONS

GOVERNOR GLYNN's final action on legislative appropriations affords practically no relief to the unprecedented pressure on nearly all state institutions in New York. The only grant of any importance to receive his sanction was that of \$150,000 to the Rome State Custodial Asylum for feeble-minded. This will be used to erect a hospital in which, it is declared, 300 patients will be accommodated.

That more money was not forthcoming is attributed to the administration's policy of economy by which, the governor declares, he has avoided the necessity of a direct tax this year.

Meanwhile, waiting lists grow all along the line. A published statement of the State Charities Aid Association declares that in May there were 5,584 more patients in the fourteen hospitals for the insane than those institutions could decently care for. No relief to this situation can come for another year.

Similar pressure is declared to exist with regard to the feeble-minded. Out of an estimated total feeble-minded population in the state of 32,000, only 5,000 are cared for in institutions designed for them. Four thousand five hundred are believed to be in prisons, reformatories and almshouses and the rest are at large.

A unique campaign was carried on to bring to the Legislature a sense of the needs of institutions for this class of defectives. A directory of 1,000 diagnosed cases of feeble-minded persons living at large in New York city and needing custodial care was put on the desk of each legislator by the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor, and a similar list of persons outside New York city was furnished by the State Charities Aid Association. A minimum appropriation of \$500,000 was urged as necessary merely to keep the state from slipping back this year, as it did last when no appropriation was made.

Not even Letchworth Village was enabled to proceed with construction. The four dormitories now under way there will accommodate 280 feeble-minded

persons. Over \$200,000 appropriated in 1912 lapsed in April, 1914, because building plans were not completed by the state architect's office, and when this money was reappropriated the governor cut out every item but that for the laundry.



THE GREENWICH VILLAGE COUNTY FAIR

When historic Greenwich Village, New York city, was treated to an old-fashioned county fair recently, one of the most interesting "side-shows" was a marionette performance given by Italian boys. These youths, members of the Seringhaus Dramatic Club of Richmond Hill House, impersonated puppets in the fashion of their ancestors 600 years ago. Like the real marionette of today they enacted an incident of the crusades.

AN EMPLOYER'S REASONS FOR CLOSING EVENINGS

ALTHOUGH in New York, Chicago and Philadelphia some retail stores employing only men close at 6 p. m. on Saturday—at 1 o'clock in summer—an early closing movement for men is practically unknown in smaller cities. In fact, many of them have still to achieve a free Saturday evening for women.

In Buffalo, however, with an alert Consumers' League and an active union of retail clerks, the Saturday half holiday for women has been achieved. And now C. A. Weed & Company, men's clothiers employing only men, have begun closing at 6 o'clock on Saturday. Their reasons for it, as given in display advertisements in the Buffalo newspapers, make interesting reading. "No man has a right to climb to success over his brother's bones," they say.

"The heads of this firm, who engage in no strenuous labor but merely oversee the work of others, are themselves weary and mentally tired at 6 o'clock. What, then, must be the condition of the men who do the work? Personal observation has proved to us that they are close to the point of exhaustion, and when that point is passed, the work of the doctor begins.

"Employers, therefore, are in large measure responsible for many of the physical ills and resultant misfortunes of their employes. Human nature can stand just so much. When it is pushed to the extreme, it balks. And as a rule when employes get sick, they not only lose their salaries but use up their surplus in medicines.

"The actual responsibility of the employer may cease with the payment of salaries, but his moral obligations to those who help him succeed include not only sanitary working conditions but such working hours as the human system can stand comfortably.

"It is almost impossible to estimate the amount of good that would come from a general 6 o'clock closing movement. We ourselves feel so keenly on the subject and we are so confident we are doing right that nothing on earth can pry open our doors after 6 o'clock Saturday night, no matter if every other retail clothing establishment in Buffalo keeps open till midnight and does a land-office business."



THE METROPOLITAN LIFE SANATORIUM

On the southern slope of Mt. McGregor, among the foothills of the Adirondacks, more than a thousand feet above sea level, the new sanatorium erected by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company for any of its employes who suffer from tuberculosis was dedicated recently.

When completed, all the main buildings will be joined by covered open-air passages. Graded walks allow wheeled chairs or food carts to pass easily to and from the buildings.

The sanatorium will have provision for 229 patients. Its equipment is of the most modern and scientific type, and a laboratory for research work is among the plans soon to be carried out. Two miles distant is the farm, of more than one hundred tillable acres and a wooded stream.

A PLACID VIEW OF A CROWDED PRISON

THE REPORT of the Board of Judges on the conditions in Moyamensing Prison (city prison of Philadelphia) leaves some readers in the frame of mind of the man who whacked the spot where the flea had been.

The investigation followed criticisms as to overcrowding, classification of prisoners and sanitation, in the presentment of the Grand Jury in December, 1913, which was referred by the Board of Judges to the Committee on Criminal Business for investigation and report.

Regarding overcrowding, the Board of Judges calmly states that "this fact has been recognized for the past ten years at least." The report does not state how much overcrowding there is. The facts are that from one to four prisoners occupy cells constructed to accommodate one prisoner. New prisoners are placed in any cell with space enough to receive them, so that young first offenders may be put in cells with one or more old offenders.

In mild language the report comments on this point: "We do not deem it wise that a prisoner serving a first term should be confined in a cell with an old offender. . . . The segregation of prisoners according to crime and age, especially of those under twenty-one years of age, is desirable."

The report also admits that the conditions under which untried prisoners and witnesses are held are much worse than those under which convicted prisoners are kept, but the conclusion is that "the

Board of Prison Inspectors is not responsible for the length of time that untried prisoners and witnesses are confined, nor do the present conditions permit such prisoners and witnesses to be treated in a manner different from that of those whose guilt has been established."

The report also states that "the lack of opportunity for exercise of the prisoners in Moyamensing cannot be remedied with the present insufficiency of space for the purpose," but it does not herald from the housetops the fact that many prisoners crowded in these small cells have not had the slightest opportunity for exercise from the day of admission to the day of discharge.

Commenting on the plumbing system, the report says: "While undoubtedly the present system of water-closets, particularly at Moyamensing prison, is obsolete, and should be changed, your committee is of the opinion that much of the criticism of the present system, particularly concerning its unhealthiness, is unwarranted and not borne out by the facts."

MUNICIPAL GOVERNMENT IN NEW YORK STATE

HAVING SECURED the enactment of two-thirds of its municipal home rule program and paved the way for the adoption of the remaining third, the Conference of Mayors and Other City Officials of the State of New York at its fifth annual session held at Auburn early in June took its next progressive step by advocating the enactment of an

optional law under which cities of the state may secure non-partisan municipal elections.

The chief undertaking of the conference during the coming year will be the organization of a national conference of mayors, to be held under the auspices of the New York organization at San Francisco in 1915. The suggestion was made by Mayor Mitchel of New York, and he was made chairman of the Committee on Arrangements.

To strengthen the influence of the conference a committee was appointed to confer with the Organization of Village Presidents of the state to promote a plan of co-operation between the two organizations. The state-wide campaign of municipal welfare begun last year will be continued and a plan for the codification of local laws and ordinances of the state will be formulated.

R. S. Binkerd, secretary of the City Club of New York, discussed the conference's municipal home rule campaign. In the subsequent discussion it was brought out forcibly that the municipal empowering act, passed by the Legislature two years ago at the suggestion of the conference and the Municipal Government Association, had produced the desired results, and that local city legislation last year was materially reduced.

An entire session of the conference was devoted to city planning and a discussion of the city planning survey which the conference is now conducting. Charles Downing Lay, former landscape architect of New York city, presented a program of development for parks and playgrounds, and Prof. James S. Pray of Harvard University discussed the subject of making the survey for a city plan.

Municipal health was the general subject discussed at the last session. State Health Commissioner Biggs presented an efficient municipal health program and told how the state is willing to help. Dr. Donald B. Armstrong, director of the Social Welfare Department of the New York A. I. C. P., discussed public health values and presented a few modern fallacies. It was decided to undertake the coming year a health survey of the cities of the state. State Health Commissioner Biggs, Charles C. Duryee of Schenectady, Dr. John S. Wilson of Poughkeepsie, Dr. G. W. Goler, health officer of Rochester, and Mayor Louis Van Hoesen of Hudson will prepare the questionnaire and direct this health study.

The following officers were elected: President, Mayor Rosslyn M. Cox of Middletown; vice-president, Mayor Louis Will of Syracuse; treasurer, Mayor George A. Brock of Lockport; secretary, William P. Capes of New York city. The next conference will be held in Troy.

Purging Salem's Tenements With Fire



AN EXPLOSION in a leather factory, a brisk wind and a city dry as a tinderbox from a long drought, have combined to give Salem, Mass., such a cleansing and such an opportunity as have come to few cities.

The House of the Seven Gables, Hawthorne's birthplace, and in fact much of the better residence part of the city and its historic landmarks were spared. The French-Canadian tenement section, said to be the most congested spot in any New England city, was swept away. Plans are making for adopting a better city plan, with wider streets and real homes to replace the three-, four- and five-story tenements which were burned.

Loss of property was heavy, but the Naumkeag Cotton Mills, employing 6,000 hands, are typical of the town's buoyant spirit in their announcement that they will rebuild. Loss of life was slight as the fire came in the afternoon, with ample warning. There were but three deaths, one of them from heart failure. Some 14,000 people are homeless, but the Red Cross was promptly on the spot.

The net result to Salem may well be good. It has lost the modern buildings, atrocious in style, sanitation and safety, which have grown about its Colonial center as homes for the working people of this century. And the loss has come in a generation that knows better ways of home-making than piling up rickety wooden tenements.

Relief work was prompt. Governor Walsh immediately called a conference. In twenty minutes Boston business men had subscribed \$70,000. In Salem \$36,000 was raised. At the time of writing, \$250,000 was in hand and funds were still pouring in. Chelsea, Mass., and Dayton, Ohio, remembering one its fire and the other its flood, sent generous checks. A plan has been put in operation by which holders of insurance policies can secure credit on them while awaiting adjustment of their claims.

Mabel T. Boardman and Ernest P. Bicknell, of the American National Red Cross, reached the scene almost as quickly as the social workers representing all the large social and civic organizations of Boston. These were led by Fred R. Johnson, secretary of the Boston Associated Charities, which is the New

England institutional member of the Red Cross. Relief work is in charge of a state Red Cross committee, co-operating

with a local committee, and doing its actual work through a small group headed by John F. Moors, of Boston, who was a volunteer at San Francisco in 1906 and at the Chelsea fire.

The state militia took charge of the city the night of the fire, organized the refugees into three camps in the parks, put up tents, dispensed relief and in general proved themselves efficient social police. The Boy Scouts worked with them.

Perhaps the loss fell most heavily on the people of St. Joseph's French Canadian church. The whole parish of 7,000 souls was burned out, and with it the handsome church building erected at great sacrifice in 1911.



LEWIS E. PALMER of Boston, who took these photographs the day after the fire, writes: "You might imagine that some immense crew of building wreckers had completed a year's contract, done a good job in record time, packed up their tools and left."

At the right, a Polish woman with her children and her meager salvage, a Red Cross visitor and a Boy Scout.

Below, the ruins of St. Joseph's Church, which the French Canadians built in 1911. The whole parish was burned out.



TIME EXPOSURES *by* HINEGUILTY *as* CHARGED

Brothel and mission side by side

THE TREND OF THE SCIENCE OF EUGENICS

THE MOST Pressing Topics for Research in Eugenics, discussed as a symposium at the recent second annual meeting of the Eugenics Research Association, afforded a glimpse ahead in the development of the science.

The symposium brought out as the most urgent needs of the present in the field of eugenics:

That more emphasis must be placed on the study of the mental traits of the individual;

That the psychologist is not willing to grant the proof of the existence of unit characters or traits now used in describing the mental activities of man;

That tests for intelligence need closer standardization;

That a better definition of feeble-mindedness, or, as Dr. C. B. Davenport suggested, "feeble-mindedness," must be made.

Certain comparative studies of the inmates of Bedford Reformatory, groups of working girls, and of some school children in the West, showed that psychological tests in general do not give a clear idea of a person's power of learning and adaptability.

"The necessity of determining the line of demarcation between normality and mental defect will be felt," said R. W. Hill of the State Board of Charities at Albany, "in the new method of commitment of the feeble-minded in New York state." This provides that a person may be committed for feeble-mindedness by a judge on the request of relatives with the certificate of two physicians. It was brought out that there might be great injustice in this method if persons were put away on the word of two practicing physicians, when experts on feeble-mindedness are at sea as

to the determination of the higher grades of mental defect.

The reading of technical papers occupied an entire session of the conference. The inheritance of eroticism, periodic bad temper, wanderlust, and alcoholism, was strikingly demonstrated in a series of charts shown by Dr. Davenport, president of the association.

DEFENDING COOK COUNTY AGAINST FACTION—BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

THE PARTISAN FACTION in the Cook County Board of Commissioners at Chicago, continues its fight, to the last ditch, for the control and perversion of the public agencies and institutions of the county. Although its nefarious attack upon the probation officials of the juvenile court was defeated and discredited, both in the courts and in the report of the thorough investigation conducted by Prof. Willard E. Hotchkiss [see THE SURVEY for March 30, 1912], this same faction has had the hardihood to try the same tactics against the management of the county infirmary at Oak Forest.

As soon as charges, based upon an alleged investigation by one of the commissioners, appeared in the press, President Alexander A. McCormick of the county board, who with the honest and capable minority has valiantly withstood continuous attack, appointed a citizens' committee "to make a thorough and rigid examination and to inform the public of the real situation." On this committee were Miss Addams, Miss McDowell, Miss Low, Miss Breckinridge, Allen B. Pcond, president of the City Club, and representatives of five nationalities.

Their report covers the two points at issue, first, concluding that "there is not the slightest evidence of brutality or of

One of the most interesting features of the conference was a short account of the result of the work he has done on "the Jukes" during the past two and a half years, given by A. H. Estabrook of the Eugenics Record Office. Including those studied by Dugdale, 2,100 individuals have been found descended from the five original Juke sisters. It is a noteworthy fact that certain branches of the Juke family now show normal characteristics. This improvement has been produced mainly by out-marriages into better stock. Others, by far the greater portion, and including some who have sought better environment, show the same traits attributed to their ancestors and described by Dugdale in 1877.

Dr. Howard A. Knox, assistant surgeon at Ellis Island, talked on the present methods of detection of mental defectives among the immigrants.

Miss I. V. Kendig of the Monson, Mass., State Hospital told of an intensive study of a degenerate family of old American stock, which in an isolated community had multiplied until the town became a by-word for alcoholism, immorality and feeble-mindedness.

At the regular field-workers' conference Dr. Gertrude Hall of Albany announced that the State Board of Charities is taking a census of the feeble-minded in New York state.

unkindness on the part of any employe, but unanimous testimony to the high general level of kindness shown to inmates by employes;" second, that "the standard of food served is higher than at any earlier period" and that "there has been more skillful and intelligent attention given to the planning of the meals than ever before." Bacteriological examination of the causes of the sudden illness suffered by some of the inmates is reported to be in progress.

The committee asked permission to extend its investigation in order to determine whether, within the appropriation granted, further improvements and safeguards are possible and in order to suggest "a program of progressively improved care of the aged, sick and infirm poor in the care of Cook county."

This report, which was signed by all the committee, although accepted by the public, was of course treated with disrespect by the factional majority of the county board and its adoption was voted down, with contemptuous reference to the committee as consisting of "more or less radical adherents of President McCormick." Both they and Supt. James Mullenbach, whose efficient and progressive administration is endorsed, are well assured of the verdict of the jury of public opinion.

CIVICS

REGULATING HEIGHTS OF BUILDINGS—BY CHARLES MULFORD ROBINSON

THE RECENTLY PUBLISHED report of the Heights of Buildings Commission of New York city is a most thorough and valuable discussion of a limitation of the height, size and arrangement of buildings, and of the division of cities into districts. The thoroughness and value of this report lies even more in its supplementing of wide investigation by sane interpretation than it does in the concrete suggestions. This is because New York city, for which the suggestions of the commission are made, presents exceptional conditions of structural congestion to such degree that regulations there must be more liberal than is necessary in most smaller cities.

To model the regulation of building heights generally on the recommendations of this commission for New York would be to repeat the too familiar error of accepting the New York tenement code as a model housing regulation for smaller cities. It is well to emphasize this danger, for it may prove very real. Yet so clear and enlightening is the commission's discussion of principles that there is not the least necessity for such a mistake. Not simply New Yorkers, but careful students everywhere, of the subject under discussion, are indebted to the Heights of Buildings Commission.

The commission, which was appointed to be advisory to a committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment, was composed of twenty well-known men. Fully to indicate the scope of the investigation, one must turn to the chairman's letter of transmittal:

"Many organizations took a great interest in our work, appointed conference committees and in some cases had counsel prepare careful briefs for our consideration. All of the title companies and many of the large lenders on real estate securities freely gave us the benefit of facts, figures and opinions. Owners and managers of buildings, both large and small, developers of vacant land, builders, engineers, architects, insurance men, fire fighters and fire protection experts, housing and factory specialists, lawyers and physicians, city officials having to do with streets, building construction and tenement houses, manufacturers and transportation men attended our conferences and gave us an opportunity to check up from every angle the work of our committees and the staff.

"Special investigations were carried on in a number of large cities of our country, Canada and Europe. Furthermore, our staff has corresponded with officials of almost every large city of the world that has taken up the subject of building regulation. Statutes and ordinances were collected and a record of

the experience of other cities obtained, so far as possible at first hand.

We carried on our work with much diversity of opinion. . . . Continued study of the facts and conditions brought us to a harmonious and united opinion."

With regard to the report's definite recommendations, these contain necessarily an amount of detail that renders them somewhat complicated. Since they should be modified before adoption elsewhere, it is enough to say here that pending the adoption of a districting plan, to make possible the acceptance of different regulations for different parts of the city, the commission recommended a proportioning of building height to street width, with the fixing of a maximum limit. After reaching this limit, it is proposed that buildings may be carried higher by setting the street walls above such limit back one foot for each four feet of increased height. In order that the proposed height regulations may be effective in securing a maximum of light in the streets, it is recommended that no cornice project over more than 5 per cent of the street width.

Advocating legislation, which has now been secured, that will permit the division of the city into districts having different building regulations, the commission tentatively suggests that there be in New York eight classes of districts.

The proposed regulations are given for each of these, and the portions of the greater city which would be included in the different districts are roughly indicated.

Cities outside of New York have, therefore, only to determine which portion, from lower Manhattan to Richmond and parts of the Bronx, they most resemble or wish to resemble in order to ascertain the nature of the restrictions they should adopt.

On one important point, which will suggest itself to readers of THE SURVEY, the commission says: "While we know of no immediate practicable remedy for the existing congestion of population on the lower East Side, we believe that appropriate restrictions, varying with the district, can prevent the repetition of these conditions in other parts of the city."

The commission adds: "It is clear that any system of building control would be defective unless in addition to regulation of height, yards and courts, regulations be imposed on the location of industries and of buildings designed for certain uses."

The chairman of the Heights of Buildings Commission was Edward M. Bassett, and the staff included George B. Ford, secretary and director of investigations; Robert H. Whitten, editor of the report and special investigator; Herbert S. Swan, statistician and special investigator, and Frank B. Williams, writer on districting methods in Europe.



CITIZENS OF TOMORROW

Civic work by children has grown apace and the youngsters have taken effective part in many a "swat the fly" campaign or "clean-up" day. The American Civic Association has recently organized a Department of Junior Civic Leagues under the chairmanship of Maude Van Buren. It aims to develop good citizenship by emphasizing the spirit of civic service and familiarizing the children with the simple municipal ordinances which affect the child's every-day life. Home gardening is promoted by the department. The picture above is published by courtesy of the People's Gardens Association of Washington, D. C.



A RECREATION PARK WITH PROVISION FOR ONLOOKERS

A people's park and recreation center has been established in East St. Louis, Ill. In addition to the usual provision of playground, swimming pool, tennis courts, ball field, wading pool, sand piles and rest house, there is recognition of the enjoyment which spectators may have. Very few playgrounds and recreation centers make provision for them, but Jones Park, East St. Louis, opened June 12, has a concrete grand-stand seating 1,000 people and costing \$10,000. It faces the ball ground and athletic field and underneath it are lockers and shower baths for athletes of both sexes.

WITH THE CITY PLANNERS AT TORONTO—BY FLAVEL SHURTLEFF

SECRETARY, NATIONAL CONFERENCE ON CITY PLANNING

IT WAS a wonderfully good thing for the National Conference on City Planning to hold its sixth annual meeting in Canada. With a keen desire for material results in the cities of Canada, the Commission of Conservation for six weeks previous to the conference sent a very persuasive herald to the larger Canadian cities from Winnipeg to Halifax and St. John, to invite the city governments to send the right kind of men to participate in the conference at Toronto. The registration roll reads like pages from a Canadian municipal year book, mayors, city engineers, members of city plan commissions, the men who must be convinced if city planning is to be an every-day practice.

The provincial governments of Canada, ever alert for legislative measures of material benefit, sent their representatives to join in the discussion of a proposed Canadian town planning act which had been drafted for the conference by a committee of the Commission of Conservation: from British Columbia the minister of lands, Hon. W. R. Ross; from Saskatchewan the minister of municipal affairs, Hon. George Langley; from Ontario the provincial secretary, Hon. W. J. Hanna, and from Quebec the provincial treasurer, Hon. P. S. G. MacKenzie.

The delegates from the United States were equally representative of official municipal life and particularly of the

new administrative agency in American cities, the city plan commission.

Previous meetings of the conference have stuck closely to set papers; discussions have been somewhat lifeless. The Toronto meeting was a conference of rapid-fire questions, of short pointed discussions, of statements challenged and explained. The Toronto harbor commissioner, Robert Gourlay, was on his feet two hours before he had satisfied inquiries into the plan for the development of Toronto's waterfront. Whatever the subject discussed, whether transportation in general, or the advantages of the auto bus, both subjects in which Toronto is interested, the sessions were ended only by luncheon, by dinner, or the approach of midnight.

Great inspiration came from the broad social vision, the strong emphasis on community rights, which dominated the sessions from the opening words of the Duke of Connaught. It was an inspiration to the American delegates to breathe the pure air of Canadian freedom, without the restraint of the federal constitution. It was evident in the discussion of Mr. Veiller's paper, *Protecting Residential Districts*.

While the American lawyers who discussed the paper were struggling with the constitutional difficulties which prevent regulating the use of land in the interest of the community, the impatience of the Canadians grew until finally it

was expressed in no uncertain terms in a challenge of the right of the United States to boast of its democracy when individual privilege was protected by the federal constitution at the expense of community right. There was evidence also of this Canadian freedom in the draft of the Canadian town planning act, where city planning was frankly interpreted as a measure of community protection, a health measure as Dr. Hodgetts put it, and as such, its mandatory features which had met with much adverse criticism in the discussions were to be justified.

It was an inspiration to have one of Canada's ablest administrators bring home the grave responsibilities of those who guide the policies of the conference.

"We have many theories for the redress of social evils. Government ownership of public utilities, socialism, and single tax are illustrations. The advocates of each claim that their particular theory will set everything right. Yet when we divest ourselves of the enthusiasm which people are apt to acquire when they take up one particular idea, it takes very little serious consideration to lead one to the conclusion that while perhaps each one of the remedies suggested has some merit and may under certain circumstances accomplish some good, yet that no one of them would radically alter the law that has heretofore obtained with inexorable regularity, namely, that the growth of poverty, misery and crime accompany industrial and commercial expansion on a large scale on the march of what we call modern progress.

"I put it to you that the real problem that is up to the intellect of this twentieth century is whether we have brain and capacity enough to free ourselves from the prejudices and the shibboleths with which our minds are encumbered and to grapple with these problems so that society shall control its own destinies and avoid the evils which have dogged the foot-steps of progress in the past. . . . It is a composite problem, and it requires a composite answer. But a part and the more important part, of the answer is to be found in a rational system of town planning, a rational system of providing conditions in which the people in our great cities shall live."

The impression of Mr. Sifton's address was very evident when the Executive Committee met on the morning after the close of the conference and a formal vote was recorded to endeavor to meet the responsibilities of guiding the city planning movement in proper channels, by making a study of the fundamental questions involved in city planning. For this year there will be conducted two lines of study: first, into the administrative machinery needed to facilitate city planning; second, into the proper methods of land subdivision to produce the greatest community benefit.

The Executive Committee remains the same, except for the addition of Dr. Charles A. Hodgetts, medical adviser of the Canadian Commission of Conservation. The officers of the conference were re-elected: Frederick L. Olmsted, president; Nelson P. Lewis, vice-president; Flavel Shurtleff, secretary.



EASTER SUNRISE SERVICE ON MT. RUBIDOUX

This service, suggested by Jacob A. Rus when visiting in Riverside, Cal., some years ago, has been held on Easter morn for six consecutive years. 5,000 people were in attendance this year when the photograph was taken. The year before, Henry Van Dyke read his God of the Open Air.

AROUSING A CITY TO SAFETY—BY WILLIAM A. SEARLE SECRETARY, ROME (N. Y.) CHAMBER OF COMMERCE

WHEN THE Chamber of Commerce of Rome, N. Y., was confronted with the problem as to how to arouse the city to a realization of individual responsibility in accident prevention, the effort was made to do so in a spectacular way, which would compel attention.

A careful survey was made of conditions, and the population was roughly divided into the following classes to be reached: Employers and employes, children, and the home dwellers and women. Before the campaign started the newspapers gave out just enough information to pique curiosity.

Without warning one morning shortly before the campaign week opened, citizens were greeted with "safety first" signs painted on the ornamental electric light poles of the city. In the course of the following night on the sidewalks a few feet from each crossing huge signs in green (the safety color) were painted cautioning "safety first." Then the people began to wonder what was going to happen next. The following day all the street cars bore illustrated half sheet posters calling attention to careless practices.

Then the campaign began, and the

people were ready for it. Local speakers assisted by a safety engineer from out of town gave noonday talks in factories. Where there was a sufficient number of foreigners a speaker talked to them in their own tongue.

A week before the regular campaign talks were given in the public and parochial schools of the city by the writer. These were really chalk talks, suited as the case might be to kindergarten or high school pupils. About three-fourths of these children promised that for the next two weeks each morning as their father went to work they would ask him: "Father, will you remember 'safety first' today?"

Each evening of the week pictures and charts on accidents were thrown on a screen in one of the public parks, a lecturer explaining the pictures and giving a brief talk on safety. The evening's program concluded with one or more safety films.

Touching the people as widely as possible in these three general ways in factories, schools and evening lectures, it was yet realized that many would not be reached. The idea of an imitation accident insurance policy was evolved, giving

in an attractive and popular way many safety suggestions—from avoiding rusty nails to the way to pull a fire alarm box.

On Thursday of Safety Week members of the Junior Chamber of Commerce, boys of high school age, in a whirlwind campaign, placed one of these policies in every dwelling in Rome. Each team was known as a flying squadron, and was assigned to a ward. The first team reported back, its work completed in eighteen and one-half minutes. Automobiles were used, and the public, prepared by newspaper stories, in many cases met the boys at the door to receive the policy.

MUNICIPAL ICE: SOME SUCCESSFUL EXPERIMENTS

MUNICIPAL ICE is the very seasonable subject discussed in a report submitted to the president of the Borough of Manhattan a few months ago and recently published. At his direction an investigation was undertaken last summer by Jeanie Wells Wentworth. It was pointed out that a few years ago agitation became general throughout the United States for the establishment of municipal ice plants. The increasingly high prices charged by ice dealers led to the feeling that municipalities could not only supply ice for their

own institutions, but also provide it at cost to citizens.

The report presents data concerning the municipal plants successfully operated by the city of Weatherford, Okla., the first and only city to undertake the manufacture of ice on a commercial basis. It describes fully the ice plants operated by the federal government for the federal buildings in Washington, and the profitable ones at Panama and the Philippines. Municipal and governmental plants in England, Germany and northern Italy, all operated at profit, are also covered.

More than a dozen states have either home rule legislation enabling them to own and operate municipal ice plants or have secured enabling acts in regard to specific cities. The efforts of various cities to secure ice for their citizens at lower cost and of some of them to engage in the manufacture of ice, are presented in letters from mayors and directors of public works.

The use of exhaust steam from power plants in the manufacturing of ice is shown to be an important factor in reducing the cost of making ice. Figures are given covering retail prices and the costs at the various plants described.

New York city, it is shown, uses about forty tons of ice per day during the summer, paying prices which vary from 16 to 65 cents per hundred pounds. The report comments vigorously on the fact that "the city of New York, consuming such enormous wholesale quantities of ice, should be obliged to pay the highest retail prices, especially when it has been shown that other municipalities and government stations can manufacture ice at the low figures given in their official reports. The city of New York has in operation a number of power plants where the exhaust steam could be utilized for the manufacture of ice at a nominal price in sufficient quantities to serve the needs of the various departments. Any surplus ice might well be sold at actual cost to the poor people of the tenement house districts."

TWELVE MONTH'S RECREATION RECORD

THE SPREAD of organized and supervised recreation is shown in the list of cities, which during the past year have had the assistance of field secretaries of the Playground and Recreation Association of America. There are eleven of them: Tampa, Fla.; Birmingham, Ala.; Red Bank, N. J.; Wheeling, W. Va.; Dayton, O.; Montreal, Canada; Scranton, Pa.; Lynchburg, Va.; Kansas City, Mo.; Sioux City, Ia., and Ishpeming, Mich.

The association is now aiding campaigns for all-the-year recreation in twenty cities, with the probable result that secretaries will be appointed and organized recreation systems established ere long.

Every city to which field secretaries go to organize forces for recreation presents its own peculiar problems. The situation at Birmingham, Ala., was not unusual. A year ago Birmingham had never spent a cent for playgrounds, and while the city was prosperous the city

government was restricted by an arbitrary tax limit and was running behind \$500 a day. Although the tax limit remains unchanged, a city appropriation of \$7,000 and a fund of from \$5,000 to \$10,000 raised by private subscription, has been secured and a permanent department of recreation legalized. This has made possible the employment of a trained superintendent of recreation, with twenty assistants, and the opening of sixteen playgrounds during the past year.

A similar situation was met at Scranton, where a change in the city's fiscal year complicated things so that the city faced 1914 with a \$20,000 deficit. The adoption of an ordinance creating a Bureau of Public Recreation was the first reward of the plans, proofs and facts amassed by the playground people. Then came the announcement of an appropriation of \$6,000, conditional upon the raising of an additional \$4,000.

In some cities it is not possible to secure a city appropriation when the help of a field secretary is enlisted. This was the case in Tampa, Fla. Through the Board of Public Works, sufficient funds were secured to operate a model recreation center, and to pay the salary of a trained secretary. This enabled a certain amount of recreation to be provided at once, which was most desirable, as a large foreign and industrial element makes Tampa's recreation problem a pressing one. The city is planning to take over on its own budget this summer the support of the larger and more adequate system mapped out.

In Wheeling, W. Va., and Red Bank, N. J., popular campaigns were carried on to raise money to establish recreation systems which should demonstrate the necessity of municipal support as soon as such a step is possible. In the former city, as in many others, a vital problem is the lack of available land. This may be either through topographical peculiarities or through lack of foresight in city planning, and it means more money to acquire facilities.

Many cities in Michigan might well profit by the example set by Ishpeming, a city of about 13,000 people. The state law now in operation requires the Board of Education to employ a physical training director for the schools. The plan, introduced by the association's field secretary, includes the employment of a permanent worker to handle the physical training work in the schools and also take charge of the recreational activities of the community. As the system is developed, a full-time worker will undoubtedly be required, but the present plan is working out successfully for the first year of the recreation program.

NEIGHBORHOOD CENTER COMPETITION

A COMPETITION for plans for a neighborhood center is announced by the City Club of Chicago. The success which attended the club's competition held in connection with its Housing Exhibition last year for plans for the laying out of a typical quarter section of land in the outskirts of Chicago, has led to the arrangement of the present effort along

similar lines [See THE SURVEY for June 7, 1913, p. 343].

The object is "to bring before the public, in graphic form, the practical possibilities of enhancing neighborhood life in our cities by better, and especially better grouped, buildings and grounds for neighborhood activities. The drawings submitted in the competition will be shown as the special feature of an exhibition and a series of conferences on neighborhood centers, to be opened at the City Club, February 9, 1915.

The competition has been prepared with the co-operation of the Illinois chapter of the American Institute of Architects. One of the past presidents of the City Club has offered \$600 to be divided equally among the authors of eight drawings selected by the Jury of Awards, as covering in part the expense of preparing the drawings.

The problem before contestants is to "produce plans for a neighborhood center suitable for an actual or an assumed neighborhood in Chicago or, in case a competitor so elects, in some other community." This will involve decision as to the sorts of institutions to be included in such a center, and especially whether commercial as well as social; the size of the neighborhood to be served, which would perhaps vary with the density of population; the sizes of the institutions to be included; the most efficient interrelation among these institutions; the adjustment of the composition to the general frame-work of the city—street system and means of communication; and the landscape and architectural treatment of the center in its various parts and as a whole.

The club has issued a pamphlet giving the program and conditions of the competition. It also presents a discussion of the problem designed to be of suggestive value to the competitors. A map of a typical foreign community is shown with the location of neighborhood institutions indicated and with pictures of some of them.

The multiplicity of the various social institutions in Chicago—from branch postoffices and libraries to moving-picture "palaces"—is pointed out and the conditions of neighborhood life are briefly described.

The preliminary competition closes November 9, 1914. Eight plans will then be selected whose authors will be asked to make additional drawings. The final competition closes January 25, 1915, and the exhibition and conferences will open on February 9, 1915.

A MUNICIPAL SCRUBBER

With soap and water, broom and mop, a strong armed Negro woman is visiting the tenements which house Louisville's colored population. She was engaged by the Department of Public Safety on recommendation of the Department of Health.

In enforcing the tenement house laws it was often found impossible to get the cleanliness necessary to health merely by inspection and the giving of orders, so it was decided to put a municipal scrubber to work in the worst tenements.

The appointment of the scrubber was largely due to the efforts of Marie Durning of the Health Department, under whose supervision she will work.

SOCIAL AGENCIES



INMATES OF A MASSACHUSETTS PRISON GIVING GILBERT AND SULLIVAN'S PIRATES OF PENZANCE

“PIRATES” AND PRISONERS: MUSIC AS A REFORMING INFLUENCE—BY MARY CAROLINE CRAWFORD

SECRETARY FORD HALL MEETINGS, BOSTON

WE HEAR a good deal, all over the country today, about prison reform, but at Sherborn, in Massachusetts, it can be seen at work. Since Jessie D. Hodder took charge of this institution over two years ago, a veritable revolution has been effected in the daily life of the inmates and in the attitude of the officers toward them. Formerly the women were not allowed even so much of God's out of doors as could be seen through a window; ground glass and bars prevented this. Now they work out of doors whenever the weather is favorable, play out of doors on holidays, and stroll out of doors, under proper supervision, every evening in summer.

All these things Mrs. Hodder accomplished before she had been long at Sherborn. But it took her some time to discover just the person needed to develop these women inmates by means of that most potent of all powers "to soothe the savage breast,"—music.

"Can't you help me to find someone who will just flood this place with music?" she asked the writer about two years ago. "I shall not feel as if I had done all that I might for these women until I have exposed them to the constant influence of good music. I believe music will do for them what nothing else can, and I shall not rest until I have given this conviction of mine a full and fair test."

The very person to carry this experi-

ment to a successful issue was recently found in Mrs. Perle Wilkinson, a good musician who had already proved at Randall's Island the influences of music on women under restraint. On a recent June Saturday, the women of Sherborn, under Mrs. Wilkinson's direction, gave Gilbert and Sullivan's opera, *The Pirates of Penzance*, with such poetic feeling, musicianly power and dramatic skill as I have seldom seen equalled in an amateur performance.

There were sixty women in the cast, including the choruses. All were absolutely raw material when rehearsals started, six months previously. Yet some of the solos were sung with real beauty, the quick and often difficult choruses were attacked with fine precision and there was poetry throughout in the business of the play.

The scenery was designed and executed within the institution, the women made their own costumes and in no essential particular did the performance differ from those given constantly by girl-students at our leading colleges for women.

"How did Mrs. Wilkinson accomplish her difficult task?" will be asked. "And what has been the effect of this musical training upon the women themselves?"

The answer to the first question is exceedingly interesting. Mrs. Wilkinson is an enthusiastic farmer as well as an accomplished musician. She owns a

farm, had worked it herself and so found the out-of-door work at Sherborn extremely congenial. She got on intimate terms with her opera singers, working with them in the fields. When she had become friendly with the women, it was easy to interest them in her plans.

As to the effect of the project upon the women themselves—since the rehearsals began not one woman out of the 300 inmates of the institution has been started on a period of punishment, so constantly has the thought of the place been focussed on intelligent activity and the desire to co-operate in the opera. The reform possibilities of such a social interest as the production of this opera have been found to be almost unlimited.

For even the women who had no part in the play had a share in the pleasant preparations for the big event. In the evenings, while rehearsals were going on, the women inmates brought their sewing and acted as an audience. At the dress-rehearsal they, with an invited company of probation officers, saw the opera in all its glory.

As for these probation officers,—men, mark you, who had already decided that the women now acting before them were not fit to be put on probation one more time—they leaped to their feet at the end of the final chorus, and cheered the actresses to the echo. One man, more emotional than the rest, shouted at the top of his voice, "Let's put them all on parole!"

In the audience of 200 invited guests who saw the final performance there were many social workers, all of whom

congratulated Mrs. Hodder on what she had accomplished. The Massachusetts Prison Commission was represented by Chairman Randall and Mrs. James M. Carret; the bench by Judge McManus; the Lyman School by Mrs. Glendower Evans, and leading institutions for the feeble-minded by their most socially alert physicians.

The Police Department of Boston had showed itself most interested. It will be remembered that a chorus of policemen is an important part of the "Pirates"; and though these Sherborn women are very clever at making things, they could not make policemen's helmets. Accordingly, Mrs. Hodder threw herself for this detail of properties on the generosity of Commissioner O'Meara with the result that the Sherborn "policemen" were equipped with imposing headpieces which formerly crowned the charms of Boston's "finest."

For the dress rehearsal all the invalids

at the institution were taken off their beds and all the people who were being disciplined for various offences were taken out of punishment. "We broke every rule of the place," said Mrs. Hodder joyfully. And then she told me an incident which shows how shut in, even at best, are the lives of women in prison.

"Do you know," she said, "we had got as far as the dress rehearsal without realizing that the major general in the opera had no sword, and should have one. But the woman who was to take this part saved the situation. She reminded me that, two years before, a man who was preaching here on patriotism had spoken of the emotions which were always stirred in him by the sight of his father's sword hanging over the mantelpiece in his library. 'Don't you think he would lend us that sword?' she queried. I got busy with this last detail. That was the sword you saw her wearing."

aged to get out of debt. The farmer puts his cotton in a bonded warehouse and then borrows money with the warehouse receipt as collateral. He has mortgaged his property on the chance that the price will rise, and has not now the same control of it as formerly. At the same time he must be paying for storage. He had better provide his own storage facilities.

As for the tenants, the old-fashioned doctrine of temperance and thrift is by no means ignored by those who are discussing the question. The part played by indifference, lack of energy, and thriftlessness is recognized. Some tenants are by no means eager to own land. Many of them once did so. The desire to acquire, own, and keep a home must be created in them. Rural education and compulsory attendance (at present we have no compulsory school attendance law in Texas) would accomplish much. The question is a moral one. Honest, industrious, and sober farmers, self-respecting men who have been impoverished by misfortune, may get a home before long by their own unaided effort. But while conditions are not altogether due to lack of opportunity, it is possible to open the door of opportunity a little wider by legislation.

One of the prominent candidates for the Democratic nomination for governor, James E. Ferguson, farmer, and banker of Temple, came forward early with a bold proposal in behalf of the 225,000 tenant farmers of Texas. He proposes to make it usurious and unlawful for an owner of land to receive or collect a rent of more than one-third of the value of all grain crops and more than one-fourth of the value of all cotton crops. "For fifty years the good old rule of cropping on the third and fourth and on the halves has been the custom in Texas." "Take away today the abuses of the present rent system and the Socialist would not have a leg to stand on." "It is the immediate relief which a restriction of rentals will bring about that the farmer needs. This will not only prevent oppression, but will destroy the incentive to own lands except for home occupation."

The first cry to be raised in protest was that the proposal was Socialistic, but this scarecrow is fast losing its efficacy. Then it was pronounced illegal—an infringement of the right of private contract. But the underlying principle of legal interest and legal rents is the same. The rate of interest which a man may charge for the loan of his money is fixed by law; so also the rate charged for fire insurance, for transporting passengers and property, etc. The sale of drugs, liquors, and pistols is regulated by law, regardless of private contracts between the parties. The only question involved is one of policy. On that score it is said that to charge a third and a fourth would be too much in some instances and too little in others, and that the law would not be enforceable, as shown by the notorious failure of the usury laws.

The program of the other leading candidate for governor Thomas H.

THE LAND PROBLEM IN TEXAS AND THE REMEDIES PROPOSED—BY JOHN C. GRANBERY

PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY AND ECONOMICS, SOUTHWESTERN UNIVERSITY

THE TWO LEADING issues in the campaign now being conducted for state offices in Texas are prohibition and the land question. The questions involved in the former issue are not new and are well understood, though the introduction of the question of federal prohibition by constitutional amendment has confused the situation somewhat. However, it seems to be generally recognized that the days of the saloon in Texas are numbered, and the people are turning to other issues.

Papers and candidates are giving more attention possibly to the land problem than to any other single subject discussed in the campaign. Yet there is an impression that all the factors involved in this question are not fully understood.

It is agreed, however, that there is a land problem. Some years ago most of the farmers owned their homes and the ground they tilled, while today the tenants outnumber the owners. Some states are apparently in a worse condition in this respect than Texas, as may be seen by the following comparison, showing the percentage of farm tenants:

	1880	1890	1900	1910
United States.....	25.6	28.4	35.3	37.0
Mississippi	43.8	52.8	62.4	66.1
Louisiana	35.2	44.4	58.0	55.3
Texas	37.6	41.9	49.7	52.6

Texas ranks seventh in the percentage of tenant farms. This decline in farm ownership is accompanied by an increase in the number of farms mortgaged.

Our people feel that we are strong, prosperous, and happy in proportion as we occupy homes of our own. Many things we may do without, but we cannot dispense with the use of the land, air, water, and light. One candidate for

In Texas, as in many of the southern states, the only real contest is in the Democratic primaries and not in the November elections. The date of the coming primary in Texas is July 25.

the Democratic nomination for governor declares that this is "the biggest question in Texas," while the other says: "Texas should enter upon a fixed and definite land policy which will discourage land monopoly, encourage the breaking up of large holdings, and the acquisition by our good people of homes and small farms."

In his *Principles of Economics*, page 526, Prof. Henry R. Seager says: "It follows that the suitability of the present system of private property in land to present conditions hinges largely upon the question whether absentee landlordism both in town and country is coming to be the rule or whether this condition is still exceptional." Many of our tenant farmers are discontented and shiftless, moving from place to place to better their condition, their children growing up in ignorance.

The first of the leading suggestions made has reference not directly to the tenant farmers but to the matter of marketing agricultural products. The establishment of a system of bonded warehouses with power to issue negotiable receipts, all under the sanction and supervision of the state, is advocated by both candidates. At present the cotton crop, valued at over \$200,000,000 a year, is exposed to the weather, the yearly loss running into millions, and is forced on the market at prices below normal. The farmers are at the mercy of those who would buy their cotton at low prices; they should be enabled to store and hold the cotton until the right time comes to sell, and should be provided with authentic information so as to know what is the right time.

It is objected that this public warehouse system would make 90 per cent of the farmers gamblers. The spinners also would know how much cotton is withheld and be able to dominate the situation. The practice of holding cotton or other farm products on credit is dangerous. Farmers should be encour-

Ball, a lawyer of Houston, designed to make it less difficult for the average farmer to become a home owner, is too elaborate to admit of description here. He appears to have an open mind toward the whole subject, and much that he says he offers only by way of suggestion. He would exempt improvements on farm land from taxation, on the principle of the single tax, tending to induce land owners to sell surplus holdings. He would have the state lend to the farmer on easy terms, the sources of such funds being indicated in ways that cannot be here detailed.

There are now millions of acres of land in Texas that can be secured at reasonable prices. The University of Texas has about 2,000,000 acres of land, much of it suitable for homestead purposes, which the state might buy, giving bonds therefor, and cut it up into small farms. In East Texas there are millions of acres of fertile timbered land that might be made available. Farm building and loan associations might be authorized to buy, subdivide, and sell lands to home-buyers.

The trouble does not seem to be that there is not land enough, but that there is not rich black land enough for all who prefer to farm where farming is easy. But the price of such land puts it beyond the reach of most tenant farmers. Owners of lands in the Trinity Valley are now offering a million acres to 200,000 tenant farmers "without payment for one year, and allowing forty years thereafter in which to make payment." Details have not yet been furnished.

The Dallas News has probably made as large a contribution to the discussion of this subject as any other agency. For example, it applies to Texas the proposal of Lloyd-George that not the use made of the land but its possible use be regarded the criterion of its value and of the tax to be imposed. We tax idle land less than land in use, putting a premium on holding land in idleness for speculation, and penalizing the enterprise and labor of the man who uses his land to help clothe and feed the country. We discriminate in favor of the man who, instead of making his land serve society, makes society serve his land.

The chief significance of it all is that the people realize that there is a condition demanding a remedy. Many proposals are, of course, more radical than any of those just mentioned. But conservatives keen to catch the scent of Socialistic innovations, individualists jealous of any extension of the exercise of governmental authority, under the exigencies of a political campaign find themselves warmly advocating just such radical schemes of social control. They are coming to see that although a man may hold a title to his land, the control of it is conditioned and limited by considerations of social welfare; that while land may afford a legitimate opportunity for investment, it does not for speculation; and that the co-existence of the landless man and the manless land is intolerable.



COUNTRY CLUB GIVEN TO CHICAGO SOCIAL WORKERS BY JULIUS ROSENWALD

CHICAGO'S COUNTRY CLUB FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

JUNE 20 was "recognition day" to the social workers of Chicago and in the annals of the city's public and volunteer social work. Then it was that they received the first and very substantial recognition of appreciation for their work and of their personal need of friendly consideration. They had long since gotten together in their Social Service Club—now numbering more than 500—to give and take comfort and aid to each other in its good fellowship. Good as this has been, something still better, in the form of a country club house at Riverside on the Desplaines River, had been planned and was now presented by their friend and fellow worker, Julius Rosenwald.

In accepting the gift on behalf of the trustees, Jane Addams said it would be entrusted gladly to the care of the Social Service Club so long as it really represented all the social workers of Chicago without discrimination against any. By adding two dollars to its one dollar membership fee, all the privileges of the Country Club for Social Workers can be secured.

The house which, with its 14 acres of rolling wooded land, cost \$50,000, is situated on a beautiful bend of the river. A large living-room with a great open hearth and a hospitable dining-room occupy most of the first floor. The second floor has 24 dormitory rooms. The basement is well equipped with bathing and locker facilities. As many as 200 day visitors can be accommodated. The house is to be kept open the year round, with Mr. and Mrs. James Minnick as house father and mother.

CO-OPERATION IN CHILDREN'S WORK IN PHILADELPHIA

PHILADELPHIA HAS MADE much progress toward co-operation among its 75 institutions and agencies caring for more than 10,000 children at an annual cost of nearly two million dollars. Two round table conferences organized by the Children's Bureau, one for colored institutions and one for white, have developed into permanent conferences. The one is known as the Round Table Conference for Work Among Colored

People, and the other as the Conference of Institutions for the Care and Training of Children.

Four years ago the colored institutions reorganized their age and sex requirements for admission, so that all overlapping is avoided.

During this past winter the Conference of Institutions for the Care and Training of Children made a study of their work. This disclosed that nearly all of the institutions, caring for Protestant children, restrict their admission ages to from four to nine years. This means that instead of placing children in family homes at the age when they are most placeable, they are taken into institutions and kept there until older, and, therefore, more difficult to place. It also means that when older children must be removed from their homes they have to be placed in family homes, when in many instances they should go to institutions for industrial training. It was also disclosed that no institution is giving high grade industrial training.

Based on these facts, the conference adopted the following recommendations, and appointed a committee to endeavor to carry them out:

1. That no normal child under eight (or ten) years of age, should be placed in an institution except for temporary care, or unless family placement would necessitate separating children of the same family.
2. Each institution should employ a trained investigator, or have its investigations made through a central agency.
3. Each institution should have a systematic record system which will give the family history and necessary information concerning each child.
4. More aggressive efforts toward family placement should be made either by the institutions themselves or through a central agency.
5. One institution should discontinue its present work and give temporary care (one month to three months) to children, pending permanent disposition.
6. Another institution should discontinue its present work and become a working-boys' home.
7. Two other institutions should equip themselves to give trade training to older children, one to boys and one to girls.



FOR REST AND RECREATION, HOME OF MOBILE BUSINESS WOMEN'S CLUB, FAIRHOPE, ALA.

RECREATION AND A SOUTHERN BUSINESS WOMEN'S CLUB

ORGANIZED BY working women for working women, the Mobile Business Women's Club is an interesting instance of what may be accomplished by a group of energetic women in solving their recreation needs. Truly self-reliant and independent, these women made no effort to get large gifts for the club, but determined to swing the project absolutely on their own resources.

With the object "to provide and maintain a place where the self-supporting women and girls of Mobile can rest and recuperate during their summer vacations and when recovering from illnesses at a price within reach of their purses," the club must first of all have a home. The story of how a stretch of three acres of land at Magnolia Beach, on the eastern shore of Mobile Bay, eighteen miles by water from Mobile, was acquired, a spacious club house which accommodates 200 guests was built in about eighteen months' time is a story of real business efficiency.

The land was scarcely paid for, the club members, all working women, could not give large amounts, and there was the club principle against soliciting outside financial help, but to have a club house these business women were determined.

They decided that the club should issue bonds secured by deed of trust on the land and improvements to be made thereon. These bonds were to sell at \$10 and bear 6 per cent interest. When the bonds did not sell as well as expected a floating debt was assumed and a building costing \$8,000, was erected.

The comforts of this country house are given to members for \$4 a week. Club dues are \$6 a year, payable 50 cents a month. And there is a bit of philanthropy practiced. The club hopes to be able to provide rest and comfort to a number of self-supporting women who, because of limited earnings or heavy responsibilities, cannot afford membership. Such women, in increasing numbers as the club debt is decreased, will be entertained as guests of the club.

In the conduct of the club affairs the same efficiency is shown as marked the efforts to get a clubhouse. A governing committee, composed of president, vice-

president, secretary, treasurer and eleven directors, handles the club's business. The club's secretary is a stenographer and the treasurer is a bookkeeper and neither they nor any of the club officials are paid. Not even the housekeeper receives a salary. She and her husband, in return for living quarters and the use of the ground for garden and chickens, care for the house and furnish meals for the profit they make on them. Average current expenses of the club are not over \$10 a month.

The Mobile Business Women's Club has attracted members from the professions, trades and business—lawyers, physicians, saleswomen, stenographers, dressmakers, nurses, teachers and bookkeepers. They work, or rather play, together in the club in most friendly relationships, apparently recognizing that their work in life is but a matter of different education and that all work is useful to society no matter how humble.

FIVE YEARS OF JUVENILE COURT WORK IN ST. LOUIS

The St. Louis Juvenile Court has just issued a report of the court's work, covering the five year period from 1908 to 1913. The report was prepared by Hugh M. Fullerton, chief probation officer.

The number of cases, the proportion of boys to girls, of colored to white, the percentage of children put on probation and committed to institutions have varied but little during the five years, though the judges in the court have changed frequently. One striking fact is the decrease of the number of cases brought by the attendance officers of the Board of Education, due to the fact that the public schools have made extensive provision for dealing with truants and exceptional children in the schools. During the last two years the court's jurisdiction was increased to include children sixteen years of age, which naturally resulted in a large increase in the number of cases brought before the court.

The statistical tables were prepared through the assistance of the St. Louis School of Social Economy. The report furnishes extremely valuable information for students. It is not being generally distributed but will be sent to interested persons upon payment of four cents postage.

CHICAGO SCHOOL OF CIVICS AND PHILANTHROPY

FIFTY-FIVE STUDENTS received the certificate for having completed the full year's course at the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy in the eighth regular class to be graduated. Of 139 who registered for the regular course, 64 per cent had previously taken college training. The 137 who registered in extension courses were almost exclusively on the paid staffs of public or private agencies.

The 276 students thus far enrolled, with the registrations of the summer session, will mark the present academic year as far in advance of any other, both in the number of students taking credit courses and in the exactions required of them.

The demand of the field for those trained in the full course is such that almost all the graduating class had positions offered them before the completion of their year's work. The class of 1914 contributed to the school a students' loan fund, which promises to grow by similar gifts from other classes. Judge Julian W. Mack's address to the graduating class was on The Social Worker in Relation to the Immigration Problem.

The announcements for 1914-15 include a second year course, to which students having pre-professional college courses will be admitted on entering the school. Those not thus specially prepared but whose capacity has been tested by practical experience, are eligible to the first year's course, for which a certificate will be given. All who have not had academic discipline or who in college have not been trained in economics and related subjects are urged to take two years of training in the school.

Eight research studentships and two research scholarships have been awarded for 1914-15. The honorary senior research studentship was received by Helen R. Wright, Smith College, 1912, Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, 1913.

The new feature for the coming year is the elaborated course for playground workers, who will receive much of the regular first-year training and will take their technical work in the public playgrounds and field-houses, at the Hull House gymnasium and at Chicago Commons and other settlements.

EASIER NATURALIZATION

There are 3,500,000 unnaturalized men in this country. Usually a county's clerk office is open only during the hours when these men are working, so that they are met by an obstacle at the very outset of the naturalization process.

Newark and Cleveland have sought to remove this obstacle by opening the clerk's office one evening a week. A petition asking for such an arrangement in New York, where the clerk's office is open only from 9 to 4 five days a week and from 9 to 1 on Saturday, has been sent to the clerk's office under the auspices of the Citizenship Bureau of the South Harlem Neighborhood Association.

INDUSTRY

COLLECTIVE BARGAINING AND INDUSTRIAL UNREST —BY JOHN A. FITCH

FEELING RAN HIGH at the hearings before the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations at Philadelphia last week. There were times when if shillalahs could have been used, instead of mere language, there might have been scenes reminiscent of an old-fashioned Donnybrook Fair.

Sharp differences of opinion between witnesses were frequent. The situation grew tensest when John M. Tobin, vice-president of the Blacksmith's Union, was permitted to heckle and cross-examine Alba Johnson, president of the Baldwin Locomotive Works, and when on another occasion a representative of the Pennsylvania Rapid Transit Company was given the same chance at William B. Fitzgerald, an official of the Amalgamated Association of Street and Electric Railway Employees, when the latter had gone on the stand to criticize the Philadelphia street railway management.

Evidence of industrial unrest cropped up frequently and more than at any preceding session the commissioners asked witnesses to give their opinion as to its cause.

John Wanamaker gave it as his opinion that it is due to misunderstanding which could be done away with if employers and employees would get together and develop mutual sympathy.

W. P. Barda, general manager of the Midvale Steel Company, blamed it on the newspapers. He said that if the papers did not emphasize so much the differences of opinion that exist, employers and employees would cease to draw up in opposing camps as they are now. They must learn that the interests of capital and labor are absolutely identical. When they learn that, they will work together harmoniously and there will be no more unrest.

Prof. Scott Nearing of the University of Pennsylvania intimated that there were too many people living without working. If a man happens to have had a grandfather who owned some real estate in the center of a large city and who passed it on at his death, the grandson never will have to work. He will live on the efforts of other men who work and pay him rent.

As a result of inequitable methods of taxation especially, great luxury and great poverty appear side by side. The division between the rich and the poor is accelerated also by labor-saving machinery which tends to decrease the number of skilled men at high wages and increase the number of unskilled who receive low wages. Therefore the tendency is constantly to increase the proportion of the profits that goes to capital and to decrease the proportion that goes to labor.

Probing the Causes of Unrest

VIII

The eighth of a series of interpretations of the hearings before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission by a staff representative of The Survey.



Alba Johnson, president of the Baldwin Locomotive Works, had a categorical denial for Nearing's charges against the existing social order.

"The principal cause of unrest," said Johnson, "is the universal craze to get rich quick. Too many people are living beyond their means." Things would be very much better, he said, "if we could inculcate in the minds of the youths, the idea that opportunities for advancement are greater now than ever before in the history of the world." He denied also that labor-saving machinery is bringing down the rate of wages.

"The more complex the machinery," he said, "the better the man required to operate the machine." Then with improved machinery production is cheapened; demand therefore increases and opportunities for employment increase.

James H. Maurer, president of the Pennsylvania Federation of Labor, who was referred to by Commissioner Weinstock as the "highest and finest type of the intelligent labor leader," dissented most vigorously from the statements of Johnson and Barda.

"We do everything up-side-down in Pennsylvania," he said. "We go after the effect, but we very seldom attack the cause. We have learned better with regard to contagious disease. We try to prevent disease instead of curing a man after he gets sick. But we haven't learned that about other things.

"The state spends millions of dollars to run down and punish criminals—many of them fifty-year-old men with six-year-old brains. In the same spirit we make raid after raid on the red-light districts. We want to drive out these wicked people, harass them, persecute them, but all the while we are doing nothing that will affect the cause of crime. All the while we are pursuing

criminals we are making more criminals. We spend so much money attacking the effect that there is nothing left with which to find the cause of crime."

The entire problem of social unrest, he said, is due to fundamental economic changes resulting from the development of steam, which has made it possible for a few men to amass enormous fortunes while vast numbers of men are always on the border line of starvation. "This is true," he said, "in spite of the fact that our production is now the greatest ever known in the history of the world. The only remedy I can suggest is the government ownership of all the machinery for producing the actual necessities of life."

"Isn't that Socialism, pure and simple?" asked Mr. Weinstock.

"Pure, but not simple," answered Maurer, while the audience applauded.

The labor of women and children, minimum wage legislation and vocational training came in for a good deal of discussion.

John P. Wood, vice-president of the Pennsylvania Manufacturers' Association, spoke in bitter opposition to the minimum wage idea. He said that it would throw out of employment thousands of people who are not capable now of earning the minimum that might be established but who can earn something. It would be a terrible injustice to these people, he felt. As to restricting the labor of women and children, he favored it with regard to certain industries. Indeed, there are some industries from which he would exclude them altogether on account of their hazards or on account of the lack of adaptability of women and children to the work. Aside from that, he said, if he were a woman he would resent having his liberty so entrenched upon.

The chief differences that arose between union men and the employers had to do with the question of discrimination. The union men alleged that this exists very widely, especially in the Baldwin Locomotive Works where, they declared, men had been discharged for belonging to a union. The same charge was made regarding the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company. These charges were denied by representatives of the companies.

Out of the maze of conflict there were three important lines of constructive testimony. One had to do with eight-hour legislation; the second with the administration of laws regarding child welfare; and the third was a new kind of working agreement between capital and labor.

It was an employer in an industry that has gained a wider notoriety than any other for its long hours of labor who proposed an eight-hour law. W. P. Barda, general manager of the Midvale

Steel Company of Philadelphia, was asked whether he favored a universal eight-hour law.

"Absolutely, yes," replied Mr. Barda. He went on to explain that his company does a certain amount of work on government contracts. In these they are obliged to maintain the eight-hour day. Experience in the eight-hour day in this line of work has demonstrated, he said, that in jobs where strength or skill are necessary there has been an improvement in the amount of work done. On other jobs, such as in a machine shop where the work necessarily involves a great deal of waiting, no improvement has been noted. However, it is inconvenient to have one-sixth of the force working eight hours and the other five-sixths working a longer time.

Costs in general would be higher, he said, if they put all their employes on the eight-hour basis, but it could be done if their competitors did the same. He could see no way of accomplishing this end except by law and, therefore, would favor having the government establish by statute an eight-hour day in the industry. When questioned further, Mr. Barda said that while this would equalize competition in the United States, it would severally handicap American manufacturers in foreign markets. As to local markets, however, there would be no difficulty. Costs would increase somewhat but the burden would be passed on to the consumer.

The problems of the child who leaves school to enter industry between the ages of fourteen and sixteen were discussed from several angles. The child's problem of securing the right kind of a job and society's responsibility in assisting him were made clearly apparent. It was made apparent, also, that there is much duplication and wasted effort.

James S. Hiatt, formerly secretary of the Public Education Association of Philadelphia, testified that there are no less than five public agencies dealing with children during this period. First, there is a Compulsory Attendance Board having jurisdiction over all children,—the sick and the well and the delinquent. Then there is a medical bureau dealing with the sick; a probation board dealing with the delinquent; a vocation bureau having responsibility for the children who wish to go to work; and finally the State Bureau of Labor and Industries which has jurisdiction over all. These agencies are working independently without very much regard for each other.

Mr. Hiatt recommended that there should be a department of child relations, and in this single department should be centered all the authority having to do with the welfare of children. The authority for issuing working certificates should rest there also; and he suggested further, that instead of issuing a certificate to the child, who then could work or not as he saw fit until the compulsory attendance officer happened to catch him, the certificate should be issued to the employer and granted to him only when he is ready to offer a job to the child. Then if the child quits or is discharged the employer should immediately return the certificate to the

issuing authority which should immediately communicate with the child.

This would make it possible to keep a constant check upon the children who leave school. It would assist in placing them in the industries for which they are fitted and it would make it absolutely certain that the child would be either at work or in school. This centralization of authority has been tried out successfully in Cincinnati.

A unique method of adjusting relations between employer and employe was revealed in the so-called co-operative plan of the Philadelphia Rapid Transit Company. T. E. Mitten, chairman of the Executive Committee of the company, went on the stand and explained the system in detail. He reminded the commission that there had been serious and disorderly strikes of the Philadelphia street car system in 1909 and again in 1910. Not only was there conflict between the employers and the employes, but there was conflict between rival labor organizations—two of them at first and before the trouble came to an end, three.

Mr. Mitten was at that time connected with the Chicago Street Railway Company and had had some experience in handling labor troubles. The Philadelphia management asked him to come and see if he could work out a solution. After helping to solve the financial troubles of the company, Mr. Mitten said that he began to examine the labor situation and found that the wages that the men had been receiving amounted to 21.8 per cent of the gross passenger revenue of the company. This included besides wages certain benefits that were paid by the company.

Mr. Mitten said that he felt that with the co-operation of the men, an improvement in service could be secured that would increase revenues. Therefore, he worked out a plan for putting 22 per cent of the gross receipts into a fund from which wages would be paid, and for a co-operative committee, consisting of the men and superintendents to adjust whatever difficulties might arise. No attempt was made to enforce the plan from above. Instead the men were asked to decide by vote whether they would deal with the company collectively through a union or whether they would accept the co-operative plan, which would do away with unions but would give the men representation on the co-operative committee. The company stated further that a two-thirds majority would be required to carry either proposition. The co-operative plan was adopted by the men by a vote of almost exactly two-thirds.

Accordingly, the plan went into effect early in 1912. Several changes have been made since then in the method of selecting the co-operative committee. At first they were appointed by the superintendents. In April, 1912, it was decided that the men should vote for representatives, two to be selected from each of fourteen depots. At first 80 per cent of the men voted, but in the last ballot 98 per cent of them did so. At first the ballot was not secret, but by the use of a machine it is claimed

that a secret ballot is now had.

The success of the plan, Mr. Mitten declares, is demonstrated by its results. The men have a keen interest in making the 22 per cent fund as large as possible. Therefore, motormen are not inclined to run by a group of people waiting on a corner and conductors are on the alert to secure each fare. The men try in every way, he said, to improve the service. Smoking and spitting on the cars has been practically eliminated. There are 80 per cent fewer complaints from passengers than used to be the case. There has been a 25 per cent decrease in all accidents and a 35 per cent decrease in fatal accidents and at the same time there has been a 25 per cent increase in the number of passengers.

On the side of the men wages have increased from the maximum in 1911 of 23 cents an hour to a maximum in 1914 of 30 cents an hour. The average of 1911 was 22 cents and a fraction; it is now 28 cents, and 47 per cent of the employed are receiving the maximum wage, since there is a sliding scale dependent upon length of service. This tends to show that the men are remaining in the service of the company. The number of men dismissed has dropped from 1,635 in 1911 to 536 in 1913 and 334 so far in 1914. The number of men voluntarily resigning has been cut from 1,390 in 1911 to 956 in 1913 and 337 to date in 1914.

In addition to improving the service, the company contributes to benefit funds for the men and has made an arrangement whereby about one hundred stores in Philadelphia allow a reduction of 8 per cent in prices to employes of the company.

Two employes of the company, one of them a member of the Co-operative Committee, went on the stand and endorsed the plan highly.

Representatives of the union and leaders of the 1910 strike, however, denounced it and claimed that under unionism wages would have advanced just as much, while certain grievances which now exist would have been adjusted.

William B. Fitzgerald, member of the Executive Board of the Street Car Men's Union, charged that material abuses have grown up and that the so-called Co-operative Committee has no power whatever to deal with them. It can only act in an advisory capacity. This charge was practically admitted by Mr. Mitten when he told the commission that in the last analysis he acted as a supreme court to pass upon the decisions of the Co-operative Committee.

It was charged by Mr. Fitzgerald that the ballot employed in electing members of the Co-operative Committee is not secret. While this point was combatted by representatives of the company, the matter seemed to be left in some doubt. The plan, however, seems to have possibilities. Stripped of its defects, real or imaginary, there seems to be no reason why it could not be worked out effectively in many industries.

The inquiry into conditions prevailing in the garment trades revealed the bitterest kind of feeling. When Morris

Bernstein, president of the Women's Garment Manufacturers' Association of Philadelphia, told the commission that last year's garment strike was caused solely by imported labor leaders and that 85 per cent of the workers went out unwillingly, jeers came from every part of the room. And sarcastic laughter, taunts, and "boos" from the workers greeted his statement that in Philadelphia higher wages were paid than in any other American city. He asserted that the average was \$20 a week and that women piece workers made from \$18 to \$30 a week.

"They're so avaricious that they'd give up their sleep to do it. If we didn't close up our shops and turn off the light and power, we'd have some of them working all night."

If the testimony of Max Amidur, president of the Joint Board of the Cloak and Suit Makers' Union, was to be believed, avarice might not prove to be the only factor. According to him, conditions had been so much worse since last year's strike of twenty-six weeks that it would "take very little to ignite one of the worst industrial explosions in the history of Philadelphia." Wages had been reduced 20 per cent and only 10 per cent of the workers were earning a living wage. The home-work system prevailed largely and living condi-

tions were especially bad, he declared.

"Mr. Bernstein charges that this was a manufactured strike and that the workers had no grievances," said Amidur. "I tell you that men and women do not stay out on a strike for twenty-six weeks if they have no grievances."

Asked to propose a remedy for the industrial unrest, he said:

"Laws should be enacted which would make employers fear strikes. There should be a law which would make it an offense for either employers or unions to violate their agreements."

Most of the textile manufacturers' representatives who testified placed themselves on record as favoring a workmen's compensation law. None of them was in favor of collective bargaining.

Arthur Spencer, managing director of the Dobson mills, was ready to admit that if an agreement could be formulated between employers to pay higher wages and remove competitive bidding for labor, it might result in better conditions. He doubted the possibility, however, of making such an agreement. He was upheld by W. P. Moore, manager of the Brown Knitting Mills Company. But Mr. Moore confessed that he has as little confidence in the ability of manufacturers to keep faith among themselves.

lating to fire prevention in mercantile establishments was emphasized by Anna Phillips, who investigated the fire hazard in eighty department stores throughout the state for the commission. She found that in 50 per cent of the stores the elevator shafts, and in 75 per cent the stairways, were unprotected by fire-resisting material. She called particular attention to the risks in the basements of department stores.

Of the twenty or more laws passed last year at the instigation of the State Factory Investigating Commission, several came in for criticism, especially by manufacturers who found themselves hampered by the new measures. Joseph Rowen, representing the artificial ice manufacturers, thought that the law requiring one day's rest in seven should exclude ice manufacturers as well as ice gatherers. Hugh Frayne of the American Federation of Labor contended that there was no reason why the request of Mr. Rowen should be granted if he paid sufficient wages to command more men, and he further urged the extension of the one-day-of-rest-in-seven law to telephone girls, cashiers, telegraph operators, waitresses, girls in offices and ticket agents on elevated and subway lines.

The new law prohibiting the work of women in factories between 10 p. m. and 6 a. m. also had its opponents. Judge Amend, attorney for the Charles Schweinler Company, which is now testing this law in the courts, appeared with four women employed in the printing trade. They declared that they preferred night work and that they could make as much money working three nights as they could working a whole week by day. Again, the American Federation of Labor rose in protest and Rose Schneiderman, vice president of the Women's Trade Union League, retorted

HEARINGS ON THE RECODIFICATION OF THE NEW YORK STATE LABOR LAW

CLOSE ON the heels of the hearings before the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations has come a similar group of public hearings in New York city before the State Factory Investigating Commission. While lacking the interest of a forum where employe and employer confronted each other with their grievances, the hearings before the Factory Commission were of definite value since each bit of testimony focused on the proposed recodification of the New York state labor law.

For nearly a year the commission has been trying to remodel the present cumbersome law into an orderly code.

The most insistent criticism of the code was the duplication of inspections and the issuance of conflicting orders by city and state authorities. Like L. B. Prahar, a Brooklyn iron manufacturer who was ordered to build a ladder to the roof of his factory by the Fire Department and told to remove it by the Labor Department, many of the witnesses were "all muddled up." The remedies suggested for Mr. Prahar's dilemma ranged from that of James Lynch, commissioner of labor, who would give the Department of Labor complete jurisdiction over factories and eliminate other inspections, to that of Rudolph Miller, superintendent of buildings in Manhattan, who would create a new department of public safety consolidating the present departments of labor, tenement house inspection, health, fire and the bureau of buildings.

To many, the Industrial Board of the Department of Labor presented a means of solving the complexities and injustices of the labor law. "The statutes should

lay down general principles," said Maurice Wertheim, a member of the board, "and the Industrial Board should work out details and make individual application of the law. The board should, however, be given power to modify as well as amplify the statutes."

The need for more stringent laws re-



Courtesy of Factory

FLORA AND CANARY BIRDS PART OF THIS FACTORY'S EQUIPMENT.

Flowers and birds serve a very useful purpose in the workshop, H. F. Porter of Chicago, tells us. It has been proved that where these do not flourish and thrive, conditions are not what they should be for human beings.

Flowers are a test of the humidity; if the air is too dry, as is frequently the case in steam heated interiors, plants will wither and wilt.

Bird life, on the other hand, like human life, needs oxygen; and if there is a deficiency of oxygen, the fact is speedily evident in drooping spirits, lessened activity and stilled song notes.

that it seemed absurd to repeal a law benefitting thousands of women workers for the sake of about one hundred and fifty women employed at night in the printing trade.

Another Factory Commission measure criticized, not its stringency, but for its leniency, was the law restricting home work on certain articles of food and clothing and prohibiting the work of children in tenement manufactures. Lillian D. Wald of the Nurses' Settlement, George Hall of the New York Child Labor Committee, and Elizabeth Watson all testified that the only way of regulating home work was by total prohibition.

Miss Watson exhibited a newspaper of May 15 wherein 185 firms advertised for home workers, seventeen of which advertised for workers on prohibited articles. She also told of visiting a girls' reform home where the matron said 70 per cent of the girls had venereal disease, and finding the inmates at work on infants' boots and sacks.

The enactment of new laws for the protection of women workers was recommended by several witnesses. Nell Swartz, of the Consumers' League, and Elizabeth Dutcher, of the Retail Clerks' Union, urged the abolition of the Christmas exemption in department stores, the posting of state regulations of working hours in department stores and the increase of mercantile inspectors. Miss Dutcher also recommended a law prohibiting blacklisting, such as already exists in twenty-three states.

Frederick Cunningham, chief counsel of the Department of Labor, James Gernon, chief of the Mercantile Bureau, and Marie Orenstein, special investigator for the commission, all emphasized the long hours and hard work of women employed in hotel laundries and in restaurants over which the Labor Department has no jurisdiction. Mr. Gernon pointed out the incongruity of a law that prevented women working more than fifty-four hours in the finest mercantile establishment and allowed her to drudge seventy-two hours in the poorest hotel beside it. He did not agree with Frank Bolen, attorney for the Hotel Association, who asserted that, while hotel owners were ready to comply in every way with the labor law regarding machinery, they themselves could decide "reasonable hours" for their women employees.

Marie Orenstein produced statistics showing that in thirty-five restaurants which she investigated fifteen women worked from sixty to seventy hours; fifty-five worked from seventy-one to eighty hours; four from eighty-one to ninety hours; and two worked ninety-eight hours, being employed seven days in the week from seven a. m. to nine p. m.

"Women who work in canning factories," said Mrs. Orenstein, "are now subject to state supervision, yet the woman who opens the cans and gets them ready for table service is not protected by law."

Members of the State Factory Investigating Commission who conducted the hearings are Robert Wagner, lieutenant governor, chairman; Alfred Smith, Charles Hamilton, Edward Jack-

son, Cyrus Phillips, Robert Dowling, Simon Brentano, Samuel Gompers, Mary E. Dreier, and Abram Elkus and Bernard Shientag, counsel.

EMPLOYMENT AGENCIES IN PORTLAND—By Edwin Anders Instructor Washington High School, Portland

In Portland, Ore., workmen may get employment through labor agencies run for commercial gain or through a municipal free labor bureau. The city free labor bureau furnishes, for the most part, odd jobs of a few hours or of a day or two,—not of much service to laborers but a convenience to people who want work done.

The private business agencies furnish employment to workmen with contractors, in and out of the city, for street paving, railroad building, logging and other kinds of work where more than a few hours of work is needed. These agencies furnish most of the jobs to the workmen, and in some cases, are the only mediums of information between the workmen and employers.

To get jobs, workmen walk from one agency to another, reading the bulletins written in crayon upon black painted walls and traveling back and forth until they find a job they want, or which they think they can get. Upon a blackboard is written: "Wanted—25 Tunnel men—soft dirt—\$3.50." Men gather and discuss the sign. "Soft dirt" may mean that they will have to work in mud and water. A few workmen are urged to come into the office for information. The clerk says the fee is \$2.50 in advance, to be remitted if the job is misrepresented. A description of the work is given, but before the place is made known \$2.50 must be paid. Then the workmen are asked to be at the office at some stated time, a few minutes before train time, and as they get on the train they read on their tickets their destination.

Each man must have a "slip," so called, a receipt from the employment agency showing that he has paid his fee and obtained his information from a certain agency. The agencies and the employers seem to work together. A "split fee" system is said to be practiced. The employer gets part of the

fee charged the workmen at the employment agency.

One owner of an employment agency told the writer that he has lost several chances of placing large groups of workmen because he refuses to "split fees." He stated, further, that contractors employing hundreds of men make money by discharging small groups of men, from time to time, and collecting "split fees" from new recruits or perhaps the same men who return to the same job through the agency. Municipal ordinances are in effect to prevent this practice, but through inability to get sufficient proof, the practice is apparently continued. Laborers are loud in their condemnation of the present employment system, but employers and agencies deny that any crooked work is being done.

Workmen, in Portland, may go to the city free employment bureau, get odd jobs and so gradually sink from the dignity of regular workmen to casual laborers. If they desire permanent employment, they must risk their chances with the fee-charging agencies, be employed, dropped, re-employed, work long hours on day or night shifts during the busy season, and be dropped again during the dull season. The workmen are treated as brutes. Their time and services are bought and sold by the men in control. Under present conditions, with about ten men for every job, it is not easy to find work. The agencies are not organized to co-operate with each other for the convenience of workmen. The only co-operation is that between the agency and the employer.

BOOKBINDING FOR WOMEN IN PHILADELPHIA

To supply data for a program of vocational education and guidance, the Consumers' League of Eastern Pennsylvania is publishing a series of pamphlets, *Occupations for Philadelphia Girls*, the third of which describes women's work in the bookbinding trade in Philadelphia.

The facts were secured through interviews with 108 employers, 158 workers, and a pay roll study in six binderies. Nearly half the workers studied were members of the trade union, although not more than a quarter of the women in the trade are union members. A comparison of the wages received by union and non-union workers shows higher earnings for the union girls, and it may be doubted, therefore, whether in view of this undue proportion of union members in the group interviewed, it is fair to regard as typical the surprisingly long tenure of service and regularity of employment among them.

The author of the pamphlet does not compare conditions in Philadelphia with those revealed in a recent investigation in New York, but in form of tables and schedules used the data are comparable with the facts presented in the Russell Sage Foundation study of this industry. On the basis of such a comparison wage rates appear to be higher in New York but employment less steady.

LABOR PROBLEMS vs. BRIDGE BUILDING

I believe that it is more important for a senior to gain a good comprehension of present-day labor problems than to spend six or eight hours per week in detailing a plate-girder bridge; and, as an academic means to equip an engineering graduate for intelligent citizenship, it would be more profitable for him to consider the fact that between 10,000,000 and 20,000,000 people in our prosperous America are near the poverty line and design measures of relief for them than to design a gas engine.—W. H. Raynor, Instructor in Civil Engineering, University of Illinois.

Communications

The latch-string of the Communications Department is out to all readers of THE SURVEY. Lively debate and good cheer are to be had within. But the space available for the department makes necessary the following house rules:

1. Communications of 250 words or less, criticising, protesting against, or developing something published in THE SURVEY, will be published, so far as possible, in the first issue after receipt.
2. All other accepted communications will be published in the order received, if space remains *after* the letters described in paragraph 1 have been used.
3. The maximum length of communications is 500 words, except in cases where the writer convinces the Editor that more is needed. The extreme limit is 1,000 words.
4. Contributing Editors and authors of signed articles will be given an opportunity for rejoinder in the same issue in which letters of criticism are published.
5. In discussions back and forth between readers, each succeeding letter is limited to half the length of the previous one from the same contributor.
6. The Editor reserves the right to reject letters which he regards as libelous, letters of spite, letters on subjects outside the field of THE SURVEY; and for other good and sufficient reasons which he would be prepared to defend.

GEORGE

TO THE EDITOR: I fail to see in the decision of the boards of directors of the George Junior Republic, and the board of judges, vindication of Mr. George that is claimed in your editorial of May 16. Does not the responsible position of Mr. George as a leader of young men and women justify the demand that his moral character should measure up to the most exacting standards?

ERIC L. ALLING.

Princeton, N. J.

HYMNS

TO THE EDITOR: You were good enough to forward, at the request of Rev. T. Albert Moore, a sample copy of THE SURVEY to me. It so happened that a committee preparing a new hymn book for the Methodist Church in Canada was in session at the time, and, finding so many excellent hymns referring to labor and social conditions in the issue you sent me, I handed it over to a member of the committee. I am very glad to say that quite a number of the hymns will be placed in the new hymn book, and be sung by about a million and a half people.

S. D. CHOWN.

Vancouver, B. C.

SEGREGATION

TO THE EDITOR: May I call your attention to a criss-cross of usage that has often occurred to me, but which was conspicuous in your recent report of the

social hygiene section of the National Conference of Charities and Correction? Namely, the use of the word "segregation" to indicate first, an exploded theory of dealing with the social evil, and second, the most up-to-date and humane way of handling the recalcitrant or weak victims of that evil. I suggest for general usage, or at least in articles in which both are mentioned, the use of the word "colonization" or "isolation" or "rustication," to indicate the second meaning of the word.

THOMAS D. ELIOT.

[Pacific Coast Secretary American Social Hygiene Assn.]
San Francisco.

OLD AGE

TO THE EDITOR: I notice that recently you have been giving considerable space to a discussion of old-age pensions and I thought the following excerpt from More's Utopia would be interesting. He is referring to the treatment accorded by society to the aged poor.

"But after it hath abused the labors of their lusty and flourishing age, at the last when they are oppressed with old age and sickness, being needy, poor and indigent of all things, then forgetting their many painful watchings, not remembering their many and so great benefices, recompenseth and acquitteth them most unkindly with miserable death."

This was written over 400 years ago and yet appears to fit into a description of things existing at present. In fact, there are a good many suggestions in More's Utopia, that might well be taken

advantage of by reformers of the present age.

WILLIAM O'CONNOR.

[Inspector, Neglected and Dependent Children.]
Toronto.

ABOLISH THE SLUMS

TO THE EDITOR: The universal use of the word "slums" is unfortunate. It has an unsavory meaning to most people. But who can define it? Does it apply more to things than people or more to people than things? One may say it applies to both things and people. People make "slums."

There are many good and intelligent people who live in those districts commonly called "slums." And yet these people are stigmatized by this term which connotes so much and may mean so little. It is not a democratic word. If it is a reproach to any one, those who do not live in the slums may be quite as reproached by contributing directly or indirectly to their existence as those who live in them.

A great packing house with all its noxious odors is a place where many good people earn their daily bread, and many of them live in the vicinity of the abattoir. There are those who refer to such a locality as "slums." This is wrong. I think we should limit the use of this term, make it apply specifically to certain conditions or drop it altogether. Indeed, there may be a term which would serve our purpose better.

C. S. WOODS.

[Dept. of Public Health,
State University of Iowa.]
Iowa City.

EPISTLE TO IRISHMEN

TO THE EDITOR: Yesterday I had a letter from a man who has been in my employ for many years, and who has during those years found great enjoyment in reading every issue of THE SURVEY. Last year he fell ill, and the doctor advised a visit to his home in Ireland, for some months. So he went last October, and as he is an American citizen he hopes to return later. He has found much enjoyment in THE SURVEY, and I will quote from his letter, written in a tiny Irish village, May 18:

"I find many changes here in 20 years—that is, my old friends have all gone from here—but I wonder how the young people live without one bit of enjoyment—nothing but work, all the time. There isn't a place within six or seven miles where they can get together for even a dance or party."

"A bright lad just out of school, a neighbor, comes here evenings and reads THE SURVEY from beginning to end; and in the issue of November 22 was an article Redeeming Rural Recreation in a Big Red Barn. We couldn't find a barn, but we got a site for nothing, and a gentleman who owns a large estate started our subscription paper with five pounds."

"The fund has been growing all winter and now it amounts to about one hundred pounds, and we are going to

build a village hall. The work will start next week—and the whole idea came from THE SURVEY."

This seems to me a splendid result, and especially so to come from a man who is at present physically disabled, yet whose mind has been filled with inspiration from your paper.

M. W. F.

Lexington, Mass.

COMMUNAL FACTORIES

TO THE EDITOR: In view of the conditions under which some clothing particularly, and often food products, are manufactured in the tenements of New York and other great cities it should be a law that no clothing or food should be manufactured anywhere without thorough inspection and the articles so branded that purchasers will know the conditions are satisfactory.

Our government does not permit tobacco to be worked or sold without government license and something like this should be adopted for clothing and food, for if the manufacturers were not permitted to send out such goods except with a government label it would greatly help conditions. This might work hardship temporarily for tenement workers, but out of such a law there will come the following plan to remedy the tenement working conditions.

A great many enterprising municipalities have buildings in which small manufacturers can rent floor space under most favorable conditions. Why should not our own municipalities put up, in proper localities, sanitary factories for the very poor who make clothing and flowers and prepare nuts and other foods, the city government collecting a very small rent?

Surely some multi-millionaire might well perpetuate his memory in the gratitude of hundreds of thousands of people by erecting such buildings, the difference between the rent and cost of operating being borne by a fund for the erection of such buildings.

The ability to do more and better work will always leave some reasonable sum for the rent of the machine upon which the work is done.

Such a plan will cause a great mental and moral uplift of tenement conditions and might well revolutionize them.

S. W. HAMILTON.

St. Paul, Minn.

HALVING THE TAX RATE

TO THE EDITOR: In your issue of April 18, Prof. E. R. A. Seligman states: "There is not a single economist of note who approves, or who has ever approved, of the single tax. We may have our sins, but that heinous charge, at all events, cannot be laid at our doors."

We are not discussing the single tax nor anything approaching it, as Professor Seligman is aware. Measured by Professor Seligman's eminence in the economic world, economists who favor untaxing buildings, or halving the tax rate on buildings, may not be "of note," but among them are: Profs. Irving Fisher, of Yale; T. N. Carver, of Har-

vard; Walter E. Clark, of City College of New York; E. A. Ross, and John R. Commons of Wisconsin; E. T. Devine of Columbia; C. Linn Seiler of the University of Pennsylvania; Franklin L. McVey of the University of North Dakota; Royal Meeker of Princeton University. We have their written statements in our office.

A number favor entirely exempting buildings from taxation. Professor Commons, for instance, says: "I have long been strongly convinced that a gradual reduction of the tax rate on buildings, leading finally to exemption of all improvements, will be one of the most important gains that could be accomplished in our system of taxation. This is peculiarly true as a city grows in size, and, of course, my judgment would apply to New York more than any other place in the country."

Professor Seligman must realize that there is a middle ground between taxing every object, in and out of sight, and the single tax. That middle ground, heavier taxation of land values, the people of this city have reached. This fact is appreciated by land speculators. Hence their frantic efforts to prevent a referendum on this question.

F. C. LEUBUSCHER.

[President, Society to Lower Rents and Reduce Taxes on Homes.]
New York.

SKILLED LABOR?

TO THE EDITOR: I must differ somewhat with Mr. Fitch in his opinion that the hearings of the Industrial Relations Commission on department stores were entirely contradictory and inconclusive. After attending all these hearings as an outsider, unfamiliar with the details of store conditions, I formed several well-defined opinions.

First, that store managers and members of the union were looking at the situation from such different viewpoints that the objections of the latter were seldom met or understood by the former. The sore points were apparently not low wages, but rather compulsory benefits, the firing system and discharge without notice, and usually without information as to the cause of dismissal. These were none of them satisfactorily explained by store managers.

Questioning by the commission brought out the fact that managers recognize no good reason for having employees represented on a "grievance committee" or similar body in which questions at issue might be discussed impartially and to which complaints might be brought. Separation between the government and the governed could not be more complete, yet the management, often benevolent in its intentions, seems to rest in sublime ignorance of the bitterness now evident as the result of this separation. Employees can always appeal "higher up." No notice has been taken of the fact that they almost never do appeal from the decision of their immediate superiors.

Although the other testimony was conflicting at times, the side-lights were most illuminating. If department store

work is a skilled occupation, as claimed by the union, it has a low average wage. If unskilled, the wage compares favorably with that of other kinds of work in the same class. Its specialized functions may demand skill, but the ease with which positions are filled and the lack of any control on the part of employees of the conditions of employment bring it into the class of the unskilled. No standards are discoverable whatever and in spite of the higher average intelligence of its members, department store work approaches very nearly that much maligned occupation, domestic service.

E.

A FEW QUESTIONS

TO THE EDITOR: In your issue of April 11, Bertha Bradley Warbasse, answering critics of minimum wage legislation, makes this statement: "Either it is desirable that all who work be given enough of the wealth they produce to live on, or it is not."

This suggests to me a few questions that I wish Mrs. Warbasse or some reader of THE SURVEY would answer.

Mrs. Warbasse evidently assumes that the workers produce all wealth which is correct, because if not, then some of the wealth must be produced by those who do not work, which is absurd.

Therefore, granted that the workers do produce all wealth, and, also, that "he who labors is entitled to the full product of his labor," why is it that the workers are dependent upon others for enough to live on, and are unable to take care of themselves?

If all who work are given enough to live on by others, the others must be non-workers. These others being non-workers, the wealth they have to give is not a product of their labor, and as Mrs. Warbasse correctly states, it is the product of those who work. But how, then, do the non-workers come to possess it?

Producing no wealth themselves what do they give the workers in exchange for the wealth they receive? Or, do the workers freely and joyfully give away to the non-workers the most of what they produce, retaining for themselves so little that the non-workers are moved to return to them enough to enable them to live?

If the wealth possessed by the non-workers is not their own product, is not theirs by exchange of service for service, and is not theirs by gift, how do they get it, and by what right is it theirs? Like the Japanese school-boy, "I ask to know."

As to whether it is, or is not, desirable that the workers be given enough to live on, I would say that it is not. Would it not be more desirable to allow every worker to retain directly the full product of his labor? Taking nothing from him, there would be no need of giving anything back to him.

I think this could be accomplished, not by strikes, employers' agreements, or by government regulation, but by the public appropriation of ground rent.

JAMES B. ELLERY,

Erie, Pa.

SAFETY AT SEA

TO THE EDITOR: The London *Graphic* of June 6 says: "Everything that modern science has invented for the safety of life at sea, every appliance by which the greatest risks might be eliminated, had been given to her [the *Empress of Ireland*]."

Yet the picture of the *Empress*, published in the same *Graphic*, shows equipment of obsolete type: roundbar davits and open wooden life-boats along the deck on both sides. One change, hardly an improvement, was a number of collapsible canvas boats, the value of which has not been demonstrated at sea.

I agree with the New York *Evening Post* that it would be unreasonable to expect shipowners to rebuild or reconstruct all their old ships because it is still an open question whether ships constructed in accordance with the latest recommendations—the so-called unsinkable ships—will prove unsinkable. Since practically the same authorities vouch for the unsinkableness of the new construction as claimed that the *Titanic* was unsinkable, there is reason for doubt. It will scarcely be practicable to build merchantmen as unsinkable as men-of-war, yet even these sink occasionally.

It seems, therefore, that safety appliances should be taken more seriously than heretofore. Because marine insurance companies give better premiums and rates on ships properly equipped, there is a monetary inducement to ship-owners to install wireless and submarine signals or other instruments for protecting the ship and cargo. But the human cargo is not insured by the shipping companies.

Life-boats are white elephants which do not pay dividends on capital, but are carried as fire-escapes are placed on buildings—to meet the requirements of the law. Governments must, therefore, go very far in their requirements for life-boat equipment to force ship-owners to try out the best appliances, in a businesslike way, on the high seas.

The regulations proposed at the International Conference on Safety at Sea were principally based on recommendations of the Departmental Committee of the British Board of Trade, who submitted their report after conferences in offices and experiments in harbors and swimming pools in England. But at no time did they go out to sea and actually try out any equipment. Instead, the Departmental Committee left loopholes in their articles for equipment to be later invented. They ignored reports submitted to them of experiments and tests conducted by the United States government. They paid no heed to the lessons taught by the *Volturno* disaster, immediately before the conference. They gave preference to old-fashioned wooden and collapsible canvas boats, notwithstanding that it had been so recently shown how little these can withstand the waves when being launched. ALICE MATTULLATH.

New York City.

TO THE EDITOR: Kindly allow me space in which to reply to the letter in your issue by J. W. Walton, the ship

chandler, of Cleveland, regarding the LaFollette bill. The statistics he offers are misleading, to say the least.

It is true that during the past five years there has been comparatively small loss of life among passengers on the Great Lakes. But I am sure Mr. Walton will not deny that several passenger vessels have been involved in serious disasters during that period, and that loss of life was avoided by only a narrow margin.

There was the *Iowa*, sunk in a collision with the *Sheboygan* at the mouth of the Chicago harbor last July. Both were passenger steamers, but fortunately, the *Iowa* had no passengers on board at the time. The *Pere Marquette* foundered on Lake Michigan in September, 1910, drowning 27 of her crew, just four days after the vessel had been taken off the excursion run in which she had been carrying as many as 2,000 people daily. Several vessels have been destroyed by fire, among them the very best on the Great Lakes.

Let one of these disasters take place with a full passenger list on board, and the catastrophe will overshadow any sea horror that ever occurred, because the passenger steamers on the Great Lakes carry larger crowds per ship than is permitted anywhere else in the world, except, perhaps, in China.

The number of these vessels is small but the toll they will gather in human life, if permitted to continue their present methods, will be tremendous. It is inescapable so long as vessels of that type are permitted to jam as many as 4,000 human beings on their decks. The LaFollette bill, by requiring life-boats for all, will compel them to reduce the number of passengers to reasonable safety limits.

The Great Lakes are not regarded as particularly safe waters even by ship-owners. Mr. Walton does not tell the story of the twelve ships, ten of which were steamers, that foundered during a gale on the lakes last November, about 240 seamen losing their lives within half a day. During the past nine years twenty-eight vessels have foundered with all hands on the lakes, and in most instances they were steamers. Only a few weeks ago the *Benjamin Noble*, a comparatively new steel steamer, foundered on Lake Superior drowning her entire crew of nineteen men.

Most of these steamers were better fitted to encounter bad weather than is the average passenger vessel on the lakes. Mr. Walton is certainly familiar enough with marine affairs to know all this. He should have told you about it so that you could get a clear view of the situation.

The steamer route between Sandusky and Cedar Point, with which Mr. Walton is much concerned, is not affected by the LaFollette bill. The route is entirely within the harbor known as Sandusky Bay, and the bill excludes harbors.

The claim that the bill will require a certain vessel to have a "crew of 450 and to carry 183 life-boats" was evidently not intended to reach the eyes of practical seamen familiar with the Great Lakes. Mr. Walton fails to give the name of the vessel he refers to. Let me

supply it. It is the excursion steamer *Put-in-Bay*, running between Detroit and Sandusky. Her regular passenger allowance is about 1,000 persons, which however, is extended to 3,200 on an excursion permit. She has life-boats for just 120 persons.

If Mr. Walton wants that condition to continue he should say so frankly, without juggling figures. Under the LaFollette bill that steamer would be limited to her regular allowance of about 1,000 persons, and 17 life-boats of 60 persons capacity each would accommodate that number, and the number of able seamen combined with men of higher rating required for the boats would total 34.

I have sailed the Great Lakes most of my life. I know those waters, their ships, their sailors, and even their ship-owners. Mr. Walton knows that I do.

V. A. OLANDER.

[Secy., Lake Seamen's Union.]

DR. SPINGARN

TO THE EDITOR: The brief account in *THE SURVEY* for May 30 of the meeting held by the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People in Avery Chapel in Memphis during the sessions of the National Conference of Charities and Correction, is so incomplete that it makes it possible to misunderstand entirely the real spirit of that meeting and the motive of at least one of its speakers, our chairman, Dr. Spingarn.

Dr. Spingarn did not say at Memphis what he has been quoted as saying. At his request an account of the meeting was written in our New York office and released to the press. Since Dr. Spingarn had not prepared a speech, and sent with his request from Memphis no notion of what he would say, some impressions of conversation with him were incorporated in the article by its author.

Dr. Spingarn did not go to Memphis to raise the red flag. It was far from his purpose and from that of our other representatives there to attack any individuals or organizations. They went, as they printed in the announcement of their meeting, to speak out "to all who love the truth and dare to hear it." Their object was neither to offend nor conciliate but to arouse and to encourage,—more especially to arouse and to encourage the radical South, white and black, in the same spirit so eloquently expressed by Mr. Villard in his widely quoted address at our recent conference in Baltimore, when in commenting on our choice of a southern city, he characterized such reactionaries as Blease and Vardaman as traitors to the South and said that the bearers of its new message, the message of the "Human Way," would never have opportunity to come to their fullest expression if an organization like ours was afraid to preach its propaganda where it was most needed.

In justice to Dr. Spingarn and to our association, I should appreciate your printing this letter.

MAY CHILDS NERNEY.

[Secretary National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.]
New York.

JOTTINGS

Labor Sunday has been set for September 6. Labor Day falls on September 7.

Judge Robert J. Wilkin of the Brooklyn Children's Court announces that children's cases are no longer tried in open court but in a private room. None but those directly interested in each case is admitted.

Dr. Arthur Lankester, a British army officer, has been appointed by the government of India to study the tuberculosis situation preparatory to widespread measures of prevention to be set on foot throughout the country.

The Philadelphia Bureau of Occupations for Trained Women, which has helped college women to find employment, primarily in social work, has extended its work to include volunteers who can spare only a limited portion of their time.

The New York Charity Organization Society announces that on October 1 it will open a new district—the Lowell District. This is made possible by an appropriation of \$5,000 for one year given by the Junior League, a group of society women interested in social service.

Three Orientals, soliciting for a fictitious orphanage in Judea, have been arrested and deported as a result of action by the Associated Charities of Sioux City, Iowa. They bore credentials from Mar Sergius, of Hakari, Asia, and the Rev. A. K. Duff of New York city.

A serviceable reference book for immigrants, *The Immigrant's Guide*, has just been published by the Immigration Bureau of the Department of Public Welfare of Cleveland. The book is printed in eight languages: English, Italian, German, Hungarian, Polish, Bohemian, Russian and Yiddish.

In the annual report of the Board of City Magistrates of New York city, Judge McAdoo calls attention to the increased use of finger printing. Prejudice against it is passing away. Finger-prints are now being taken of all cases of intoxication, vagrancy, "jostling" (professional pickpockets), "mashers" and rowdies.

Representatives from practically every hospital in Philadelphia met recently to plan greater co-operation among hospitals and greater efficiency in their management. A committee of the County Medical Society has been developing methods which will increase co-operation, limit the establishment of new hospitals to proper locations, and seek to secure greater efficiency.

The National Housing Conference will travel farthest west when it goes to Minneapolis, October 21-23. Until a year ago Minneapolis believed it had no bad housing conditions. Since then it has investigated, and as a result the Civic and Commerce Association has four committees working on the problems discovered.

The Committee on Buildings and Grounds of the Board of Education of Chicago has passed a resolution recommending that a new school be named for the late Jacob A. Riis. The school site is in a location largely populated by immigrants, and so to name it for the man who earned the title of "the finest immigrant that ever came to this country" seems particularly fitting.

The National Child Welfare Press Service has organized and elected Bert Hall of Milwaukee, president; Edwin D. Solenberger of Philadelphia, vice-president; H. Wirt Steele of Baltimore, secretary; John A. McCormack, treasurer; James L. Clark of Chicago, director. The object is to furnish to newspapers articles on various aspects of child welfare. An annual budget of \$25,000 is proposed.

Authority has been granted to the Bureau of Municipal Research of Chattanooga to establish a council of social agencies to supervise charitable organizations of the city. It is proposed that the council be made up of two delegates from each organization, and its duties will consist in passing on the work of affiliated members and preventing duplication of effort.

In a company over 1,500 strong the American Nurses Association, the National League of Nursing Education and the National Organization for Public Health Nursing, assembled in annual convention in St. Louis. Among the topics discussed were: standardizing of nursing and nurses' training schools, preparing of students for public health work, uniform laws for the registration of nurses.

Twenty members of the Structural Iron Workers' Association, convicted in the "dynamite conspiracy" cases resulting from the McNamara confessions, began their terms in Fort Leavenworth Penitentiary on June 26, their appeals for pardon having been denied by President Wilson. Four were set free, as having only a minor part in the conspiracy. Action was deferred in the cases of two others.

The Conference on Unemployment Among Women, New York city, has protested against the action of the State Civil Service Commission in excluding women from positions in the new State Bureau of Employment. The protest points out that fully one-third of the wage-earners of the state are women, that women suffer peculiarly from unemployment and that dealing with it has traditionally been considered as a work open to women.

DO YOUR XMAS PLANNING EARLY

THE SURVEY desires to know as many cases as possible in which Christmas gifts have taken the practical form of pensions through the year. Also, wherever plans last year were based upon community interest and developed into new ways of observing the Christmas season.

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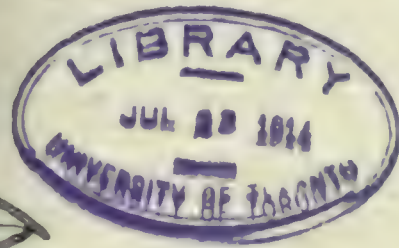
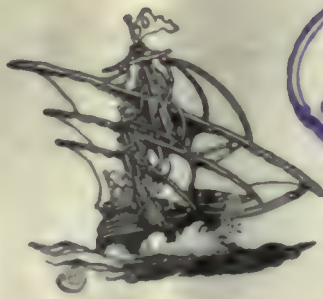
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THE SURVEY



COMPENSATION AWARDED IN OCCUPATIONAL DISEASES

By John B. Andrews

A PLAN TO STIMULATE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN ALL THE STATES

By Winthrop D. Lane

THE NATIONAL LEAGUE OF WOMEN WORKERS

By Beulah E. Kennard

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105 East 22d Street
New York

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WESTERN OFFICE

116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 16

Contents

July 18, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

PITTSBURGH'S BASKET OF FOOD FOR WIDOWS	405
COMMITTEE ON WHITE LIST FOR INVESTORS	405
SOCIAL FEATURES OF THE NEW ST. LOUIS CHARTER	405
CLEVELAND CLEANING UP WITH A WRECKING CREW	406
COUNTY JAILS CLASSED WITH SING SING	406
MISSOURI JUVENILE COURT LAW UNCONSTITUTIONAL	406
WOMEN ELIGIBLE FOR EMPLOYMENT BUREAU	407
A HOUSE-PARTY CONFERENCE ON THE FEEBLE-MINDED	407
RURAL THEATRICALS: EXPERIMENT OF A WESTERN AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE	408
THE PROBLEM OF IMMIGRATION IN MASSACHUSETTS	409

FAILURE, a Poem	Julian Walter Brandeis	409
---------------------------	------------------------	-----

INDUSTRY

THE NATIONAL LEAGUE OF WOMEN WORKERS	Beulah E. Kennard	410
INDUSTRIAL WELFARE WORK IN FLINT, MICHIGAN	Franklin V. V. Swan	411
THE CONSUMER AND THE FEDERAL CHILD LABOR LAW	Anna Rochester	412
IMPRESSIONS OF WOMEN'S WORK ABROAD	George M. Price, M. D.	413

HEALTH

THE DISTRICT NURSE OF YESTERDAY AND OF TODAY	Olive A. Colton	413
OCCUPATIONAL DISEASE COMPENSATION: SOME RECENT VERDICTS	John B. Andrews	414
NEW LIGHT ON THE PROBLEM OF PELLAGRA		414
SANITARY CONDITIONS AMONG THE ESKIMOS		415

EDUCATION

A PLAN TO STIMULATE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN ALL THE STATES	Winthrop D. Lane	416
SAN FRANCISCO AS A BARGAINER AT THE EDUCATIONAL COUNTER		417
UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN UNDER MICROSCOPE		418
IDEALS OF LIFE AND LIVING, By an Immigrant Greek and a Little Italian Girl		420

PERSONALS

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES		421
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Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents. Changes of address should be mailed to us ten days in advance.

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The GIST of IT—

CLEVELAND can go the Gold Dust Twins one better. It not only scours and polishes but tears down unsanitary houses as a part of its clean-up campaign. Page 406.

MISSOURI'S Supreme Court, in holding the state juvenile court law unconstitutional, seems to swing back to the old theory of juvenile crime. The law was based on the theory that a child is the ward of the state, to be protected rather than punished. Page 406.

MASSACHUSETTS has diagnosed its immigration problem, found it pretty bad in every respect and prescribed some remedies. A review of the state commission's report. Page 409.

ST. LOUIS social activities are grouped in a department of public welfare in the progressive new city charter. Page 405.

PITTSBURGH has abolished its public outdoor relief, consisting chiefly of a fortnightly basket of food, and the private charities are handling the situation. Page 405.

THE survey of the University of Wisconsin will turn a modern high-power light on the bookworms, if there be any a year. Page 416.

CALIFORNIA collegiate alumnae show their state as nigher than any Yankee commonwealth when it comes to spending money for schools. Page 417.

PRESIDENT WILSON'S Commission on Vocational Education, reporting ahead of schedule and with one-third its appropriation unspent, has drafted a plan for extending the help of the federal government to the states in providing vocational education for 25,000,000 workers in agriculture and industry. The ultimate cost will run up to \$7,000,000 a year. Page 416.

ONTARIO province has set an example for all North America in including industrial diseases along with accidents in a compensation law. Progressive European countries did it long ago. Page 413.

THE little theater, playing a rural role in the North Dakota Agricultural College, proposes to become a sociological experiment station. Page 408.

IF you buy glass from Pennsylvania, coal from West Virginia or preserved fruits from Delaware—not to explore further South—you are an accomplice in the employment of child labor, no matter how good the law of your own state. Only a federal law can save you. Page 411.

THE Good Samaritan was good enough in his time, but his daughter, the visiting nurse, must be not only nurse but social worker, too, able to diagnose a family as a doctor does diseases. Page 414.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE




PITTSBURGH'S BASKET OF FOOD FOR WIDOWS

ALTHOUGH two months have passed since the Pittsburgh Department of Charities ceased supplying outdoor relief, representative private charities report that their burden has not been increased because of it.

Pittsburgh's efforts to discontinue outdoor relief date back to the last months of 1913 when a number of surveys were made of the city departments. These showed that the Department of Charities spent approximately \$24,000 a year in relief and that to administer this sum six inspectors were required.

It had become a kind of unwritten law in the department that, in addition to coal and shoes, the maximum amount of relief to be furnished in the way of staple commodities was \$1.35 worth every two weeks. It made no difference whether a family consisted of two persons or ten, the amount was the same.

The case of a deserted woman and six children is given as an illustration of the method. Ordinarily the woman and two daughters worked, but when one daughter fell ill the mother was obliged to give up her work. At this time the only income of the family was \$3.50 a week, earned by the second daughter. The Department of Charities allowed the family a basket of groceries every two weeks.

The efficiency company which investigated the Department of Charities recommended that instead of appropriating money for relief to the department, the city should appropriate directly to the Associated Charities. The Associated Charities, however, refused to accept what would practically have amounted to a subsidy. It offered, instead, to make all the investigations of applicants for city outdoor relief and to make requisition upon a fund appropriated by the City Council to the Department of Charities for food, rent and other relief.

Toward the close of December the City Council practically decided to discontinue the administration of outdoor relief by the Department of Charities and to allow the Associated Charities to undertake the work. A new administra-

tion came into office in January, however, and nothing was done. The Council delayed the general appropriation bill for the city until the end of January. Then the exceedingly cold weather was utilized, whether for humanitarian or political purposes, and a public clamor was aroused to demand that the city help its poor. Immediately \$10,000 was voted for this purpose with the provision that all of it be spent in three months.

The Department of Charities announced in the newspapers that it was ready to supply relief. It was at once thronged with applicants and in the succeeding three months more than twice as many persons were aided as during the same period of the previous year. It was felt by many social workers that relief had been given indiscriminately and carelessly. At any rate, all of the \$10,000 appropriation was used.

When the question of a further appropriation for outdoor relief was brought before Council, hearings upon the subject were held. Visitors from the Associated Charities testified as to the inefficiency of the work of the Department of Charities and the Council made no further appropriation for relief.

COMMITTEE ON WHITE LIST FOR INVESTORS

The work of drawing up a "white list" of securities will be undertaken by a committee recently appointed by the Episcopal Social Service Commission, collaborating with a committee of the Consumers' League. The Episcopal committee consists of Bishop Lawrence of Massachusetts, Robert Hay Woods of Boston, and Vida D. Scudder of Wellesley College. Labor conditions in corporations offering securities for public sale will be investigated, and it is hoped through this action to make clear the ethical obligation of purchasers and holders of stocks, especially among church members.

The appointment of this committee was suggested by Mary E. Clarkson of Germantown, Pa. In an article, *The Responsibility of the Small Investor*, Miss Clarkson first put the idea forward in *THE SURVEY* of July 26, 1913.

SOCIAL FEATURES OF THE NEW ST. LOUIS CHARTER

ON JUNE 30 the voters of St. Louis adopted a new city charter drawn along the most modern and democratic lines. It is a popular-government-municipal-ownership-efficiency charter. It displaces a thirty-eight-year-old instrument drawn on the theory of checks and balances, under which St. Louis has had her share of boodle, corruption, inefficiency and spoils politics.

The social features of the new charter are conspicuous. A thorough-going civil service system is provided and the administrative departments are greatly simplified.

A new Department of Public Welfare is created with a commissioner at a salary of \$8,000 a year. Under him are the departments of parks and recreation, health, hospitals, and correction, each in charge of a commissioner appointed by him.

Permission is also given to establish divisions for research and publicity concerning the causes of poverty, crime and disease; free legal aid, a municipal lodging house and a free employment bureau.

Two administrative boards are retained outside the Department of Public Welfare, chiefly because these boards have large discretion in granting public funds to individuals. These are the Board of Children's Guardians, which has jurisdiction over the Industrial School and the placing-out of destitute children in family homes, including mothers' pensions; and the Mullanphy Board, which administers a million dollar trust fund for the benefit of travelers and immigrants. The Mullanphy Board has been reduced in number from an unwieldy membership of thirteen to three.

The new charter puts St. Louis in the front rank of American cities in substituting scientific and stable government for the haphazard and inefficient government of "spoilsmen and the interests." It is hailed by social workers as opening the way to them for public service in many directions and as creating the greatest opportunity the city has ever had for attacking the problems of poverty, disease and crime.



TORN DOWN IN THE CLEAN-UP

Under the viaduct, three stories of it below street grade, this tenement was one of the worst in Cleveland

CLEVELAND CLEANING UP WITH A WRECKING CREW

CLEVELAND'S "clean-up week" went far beyond the usual furbishing of vacant lots and sweetening of garbage cans.

The actual work lasted two weeks at the end of April and the beginning of May when the city Bureau of Sanitation, re-enforced by the city Fire Department and the state fire marshal's men, made a visit through the city's worst housing sections.

The results are now showing in great gaps where ramshackle houses and tenements once stood. For the orders issued as a result of the clean-up fortnight have meant the razing of over 200 dwellings housing 500 families and of 150 sheds and barns, and the repairing of 137 other dwellings.

Parts of Cleveland look almost like Salem after its fire. The Haymarket district, once called "the worst square mile of housing in America," and Franklin Hill, up which rickety dwellings climbed in dishevelled order, suffered most severely, but with most clear justice to principles of right living. Thirty days of grace allowed by law have now elapsed. Franklin Hill is decimated of buildings, and great gaps are being torn in the Haymarket district. The work is proceeding as rapidly as official action can force it.

Meanwhile social agencies are housing the 500 dispossessed families with less difficulty than had been anticipated. Mildred Chadsey, chief of the Bureau of Sanitation, says:

"This housing clean-up will, I am sure, stimulate building enterprise. Builders couldn't and wouldn't compete with the old structures. Many of the families which formerly were content to live un-

der bad conditions now are finding a higher earning capacity which makes better quarters easily available. And, for that matter, it is cheaper for the community to care for these folks than to allow them to live under such conditions as we have eliminated. Moreover, any difficulty we have along this line will prove a means of drawing attention to the scarcity of sanitary, inexpensive homes for workers."

The actual change of living conditions which these evicted families undergo is being made the subject of study by Miss Chadsey. Records taken before the family moved will be compared with records of the same facts to be made a year later. Items to be considered are number in family, adults, minors, boarders, number of wage-earners, income per month, occupations, regularity of work, standards of living and health. Miss Chadsey expects the investigation, when completed, to bring out significant material on the relationship of living conditions to earning capacity.

COUNTY JAILS CLASSED WITH SING SING

SPECIFIC SUGGESTIONS for improving each of the county jails of New York, and urgent recommendations that fourteen of them be abandoned and new ones erected in their places, are the results of inspections made throughout the state by the Prison Association of New York during the past year.

Nearly everything that can render a place unsuitable for habitation was found over and over again by the association's inspectors. Many jails were found to be firetraps, many were found to mingle indiscriminately young and old, first offenders and "repeaters," those convicted and those awaiting trial. Food was often discovered to be of poor

quality or inadequate in amount. Bad ventilation, insanitary sewage, idleness, and inadequate supervision were found in many jails.

Definite recommendations for the improvement of each of these conditions are presented in the report of the inspections. The association declares its belief that the county jail, "in its present form and management, should be abolished." It calls it "the worst institution, generally speaking, in our correctional system," and says that it is "in most instances inevitably a school of crime."

The association has but one recommendation to make with regard to Sing Sing prison: "Abandon it and substitute therefor a modern farm industrial prison." Erected in 1821, this prison was built, says the report,

"at a time when dungeons were used for cells and when the health of the inmate received practically no consideration. . . . The close proximity of the cell house to the river, its slight elevation above the tide water mark, its lack of air space, its heavy mass of stone construction, both interior and exterior of cell blocks, together with the worthless system of ventilation, convert them into vast refrigerators which condense the warm and humid air, causing moisture to be deposited on the cell walls, rendering them damp and watery."

MISSOURI JUVENILE COURT LAW UNCONSTITUTIONAL

THE MISSOURI juvenile court law, applying to every county in the state except the six largest, was held invalid by the State Supreme Court by a unanimous decision rendered in May.

The law, passed by the Legislature in 1913, was modeled on the so-called Rochester law and other recent enactments based on the chancery or equity procedure. It was not a criminal statute. It vested probate courts throughout the state with sole power to act in the cases of all neglected and delinquent children.

The Supreme Court held the law invalid on two grounds: first, because it conflicted with a provision of the constitution which requires that the duties of probate courts shall be uniform throughout the state; and second, because the act, while applying to children who committed crimes, failed to follow the criminal procedure set forth in the constitution.

On the first ground there is very little difference of opinion, although many lawyers think the law might have been held constitutional even as to that.

On the second ground, however, great surprise and chagrin are expressed that the Supreme Court should have held to the antiquated notion that a child is a criminal in the eyes of the law, and that he should be prosecuted under juvenile court procedure in the same way that adults are prosecuted. The court said in substance that although children were



Letting Light into Dark Places

THE picture above shows "before-and-after" rooms in the Child Federation's Baby-saving Show in the courtyard of the Philadelphia City Hall. One room is in model sanitary condition; the other far from it.

D R. W. W. TRINKLE, chairman of the committee on health of the Common Councils, has called upon the mayor to remove this "filthy room" on the ground that it reflects on the good name of the city.

SOCIAL workers, on the other hand, protest against its removal. Philadelphia has many such rooms, they say, a menace to health and to childhood, and it is sound policy that the public should know about it.

dealt with in the Juvenile Court for the commission of misdemeanors and felonies, yet the act denied the right of prosecuting officials to file informations or grand juries to find indictments, and denied the right of trial by jury. The court stated that the act although laudable in purpose, could not be sustained because it would be subversive of "our entire system of criminal jurisprudence."

This decision is entirely out of line with the view that the delinquent child is a ward of the state, not to be punished but to be protected and guided along the road to good citizenship.

Social workers are planning to write a new juvenile court act applying to every county in the state, based even more flatly on the chancery or equity procedure.

The juvenile court law which applies to the six largest counties in the state was not before the Supreme Court, but the court went out of its way to indicate that if it were, it would be sustained, for it permits prosecuting officials to file informations and permits trials by jury.

WOMEN ELIGIBLE FOR EMPLOYMENT BUREAU

The attention of the women in all parts of New York state is called to the examination for the ten offices in the new state Bureau of Employment, to be held on July 25.

An examination for the positions in the new bureau was held on June 27. But by the ruling of the State Civil Service Commission, acting under the direction of Commissioner of Labor

Lynch, the offices in the bureau were declared open to men only. 350 men took the examination.

The exclusion of women from the first examination was challenged as especially reactionary in view of women's recognized ability in the sort of work the new bureau requires, because of the peculiar suitability of women for certain divisions of the new bureau's work, notably that concerning juvenile employment and because it contradicted traditions already established in the State Department of Labor, for the head of another bureau, Industries and Immigration, has always been a woman.

As a result of protests from all over the state and from the Conference on Unemployment Among Women in New York city, Commissioner Lynch has arranged with the State Civil Service Commission for a parallel examination open to women only.

The many women in the state whose ability, experience and interest fit them for these ten positions are urged to take the examination on July 25.

Applications must be received in the office of the commission in Albany on or before July 21. No application blanks will be sent out by mail after July 18.

One director at a yearly salary of \$4,000, and nine superintendents at \$2,000 each will be appointed. The superintendents are to take charge of branch offices in various cities.

The law establishing the bureau provides that the director "shall have recognized executive and managerial ability, technical and scientific knowledge upon the subject of unemployment and

administration of public employment offices and recognized capacity to direct investigations of unemployment and public and private agencies for remedying the same."

Each candidate for the directorship must file with the State Civil Service Commission on or before July 25 a detailed plan for the organization and administration of a state employment office. This paper must be typewritten on paper about 8½ x 13 inches, be of not fewer than 1,500 or more than 4,000 words, and must be accompanied by an affidavit that it is the original, unaided composition of the author.

For the office of superintendent, the requirements are not specifically given. The assumption is that they approximate the requirements for the director, excepting that the nine superintendents do not submit a plan of organization.

The Conference on Unemployment Among Women, 95 Madison Avenue, New York city, offers to suggest material for study and to furnish copies of the bill providing for the new bureau to women who will take the examination.

A HOUSE - PARTY CONFERENCE ON THE FEEBLE-MINDED

THE ASSOCIATION for the Study of the Feeble-minded, which used to be called the Association of Medical Officers of Institutions for the Feeble-minded, held its annual session at Columbus, Ohio, last month.

There is something very charming and homelike about these annual conferences. The meetings are held at the institutions, and for the two or three days, the mem-

bers, their wives and invited guests are entertained in the house.

This means doubling up of the usual number of occupants of bed rooms, and sometimes setting a lot of the men off by themselves in a temporarily vacated dormitory, in which case the grave and reverend seniors sometimes revert to the gaiety and even the pranks of their college days, so that it is a "time of refreshing."

The formal papers and discussions are the least valuable part of these sessions. The members see the new features of the institution and confer about lots of plans and methods.

At Columbus, one of the oldest and largest institutions of the kind in the country, the special point of interest was the splendid new colony farm, reached by a twelve mile auto trip, where 300 moron and imbecile boys are practically earning their own living.

Next in eliciting admiration and praise among attendants at the conference were the fine performances of the orchestra of feeble-minded boys and girls.

Among the topics discussed the two that attracted most attention were those on Classes for Backward Children in the Public Schools by Miss Walsh of New York, and Extension Departments for Feeble-minded by E. R. Johnstone of Vineland, N. J.

A lively discussion followed this latter paper. The extension method proposed and already in practice to some extent was explained by Alexander Johnson who also reported on the details and results of an extension campaign in Virginia late last fall.

The association voted to appoint a committee to consider the extension method and to report on co-operation with the Vineland work. The committee appointed consisted of the following members: Dr. Fernald, Massachusetts, Dr. Rogers, Minnesota, and Dr. Morigridge, Iowa.

RURAL THEATRICALS: EXPERIMENT OF A WESTERN AGRICULTURAL COLLEGE



E. G. ARVOLD

Founder of the Little Country Theater

The little theater idea, for better drama, is not new as a city venture. Privately owned little theaters, in various large cities of our own country as well as abroad, are serving a worthy purpose. The first attempt at carrying the idea into a rural community has been made by the North Dakota Agricultural College at Fargo. This Little Country Theater, however, besides stimulating intelligent appreciation of the drama, purposes to become a center of activity for the people of the countryside which will make city attractions less alluring and induce the people to stay on the farms.

Apparently working on the theory that it is small use to teach farming unless life on the farm is made attractive, A. G. Arvold, founder of the Little Country Theater, has adopted the policy of making the theater a "sociological

experiment station." In the State Agricultural College there are several hundred students, and it is the plan to have them all during the school year do some work in the theater, either as actors, playwrights, stage hands, producers or members of choruses. By this actual participation in things theatrical the students are fitted to go out from the college and establish similar theaters in their own rural home setting.

With what practical foresight this result has been planned is shown in the simple nature of all the physical details of the theater. A room on the second floor of the college administration building, about the size of the average town hall, seating capacity 200, has been fitted up as a model theater for the open country or small village. Everything on and off the stage is reduced to the simplest form possible so that the setting up of such a little theater in a rural community may be accomplished without expert assistance.

The object of the Little Country Theatre is to produce such plays as can be easily staged in the country school, the village hall, or any place where country people assemble for social activity. Emphasis will be laid on the one act play and scenes taken from dramas depicting foreign life.

Since North Dakota has a large population of foreign people, nationality programs—plays, folk dances, and music—will be given frequently. Young people are encouraged to write plays, to be staged by Little Country Theater casts, choosing for their themes subjects dealing with country life and community problems.

An admission fee of from five to fifteen cents is charged for all programs, the money being used for scenery, costumes and promotion work.



AUDIENCE AT THE LITTLE COUNTRY THEATER, WITNESSING PERFORMANCE OF A ONE-ACT COMEDY, CHERRY TREE FARM. NINETY PER CENT OF THEM ARE FROM THE RURAL DISTRICTS OF NORTH DAKOTA

THE PROBLEM OF IMMIGRATION IN MASSACHUSETTS—BY KATE HOLLADAY CLAGHORN

IT IS ENCOURAGING to see some of the interest devoted to foreign immigration turning from the question of exclusion or admission to the question of what to do with the immigrants once they are here. For while we are disputing about the desirability or undesirability of admitting them, in they are coming, year after year, thousand upon thousand, steadily adding to the weight of the "immigration problem"—such as it is.

The care of immigrants after arrival would seem to be particularly a function of the states. They can have nothing to say about the admission of immigrants but must take the consequences of their presence. The federal government, on the other hand, which can admit or exclude, has no powers or facilities for continued supervision.

Yet the states have been slow to take this matter up. Many of them have so-called "bureaus of immigration," but these are primarily for the purpose of attracting settlers of a selected kind, whether native or foreign. Only two states, New York and California, have bureaus of immigration in active operation which have for their object the care of the foreign immigrant. Two more states, New Jersey and Massachusetts, have laid the foundations for such care by creating—New Jersey in 1911 and Massachusetts in 1913—commissions on immigration to investigate and make recommendations.

The Massachusetts report, which has lately appeared, is a thorough and admirable piece of work, and should prove instructive and stimulating to other states which ought to be taking hold of the same problem. For the conditions shown by the careful original investigations of the commission are those that characterize communities generally where immigrants are found.

There are, naturally, characteristic lo-

cal differences. It appears, for instance, that methods of dealing with immigrants at the port of Boston are far behind the methods followed in New York. Inspection is carried on not at a central station where facilities could be made adequate but at the different docks where steamers arrive; the detention quarters are "disgracefully inadequate," and passed immigrants are discharged into a common waiting room immediately after inspection without further care or guidance to fall an easy prey to the various species of vultures which infest such places.

Exploitation by unscrupulous employment agencies seems to be particularly flagrant in Massachusetts. The law affecting these agencies is said by the commission to "lack all the safeguards of a good law" and is poorly enforced.

Housing conditions in which the immigrants are found are generally poor. Dark rooms, overcrowding and bad sanitation are characteristic features. There is no state housing legislation in Massachusetts, except the acts of 1911 and 1912 establishing standard requirements for towns and cities, which take effect only when adopted by a locality. Only fifteen towns and no cities have as yet accepted them as law.

With its educational traditions we should expect from Massachusetts a more adequate recognition of the educational needs of immigrants than is shown by the report. In only a few localities and to a very limited extent is special provision made for immigrant children, who, simply from ignorance of language, are often found in classes with subnormal children—a dreadful state of things. The needs of adult immigrants are most imperfectly met. In 1910-11 there were 224,000 non-English-speaking persons in Massachusetts, and it is estimated that at the very least 200,000 of these persons did not receive the

benefit of any educational means.

These are but a few of the vital topics touched in the report. It is a wonder that so much valuable material could be got together in so short a space of time. For the commission was required by the act constituting it to "make a full investigation" of the general condition of immigrants, "including their way of living, distribution, occupation, educational opportunities and business opportunities and facilities and also their relation to the industrial, social and economic condition of all the people in the commonwealth," and to report their findings and recommendations within seven months of their appointment!

A large order. And that it was filled so successfully was due in large part to the fact that the commission was fortunate in securing as executive secretary, and director of the investigation, Grace Abbott, director of the Immigrants' Protective League of Chicago, to whose "comprehensive grasp, sympathetic understanding, energetic zeal and loyal co-operation" the commission pays especial tribute in its letter of transmittal. It should not be forgotten also that one member of the commission was Prof. Emily G. Balch, whose authoritative studies of immigrant life peculiarly fitted her for this task.

The recommendations of the commission are most comprehensive, touching all aspects of the immigration problem, and range from informal suggestions for the more effective operation of existing agencies to recommendations for further legislation.

The legislative program was not expected to go through at this year's session, as the report was not presented until April, and the financial burdens of the state were particularly heavy. The most important recommendation, however, for establishing a state board of immigration to care for immigrants in various ways, has already been reported on favorably in committee and may be expected to pass at an early date.

FAILURE

Julian Walter Brandeis

I HAIL the man who toiled his days in vain,
Who waged a valiant strife that came to nought,
Who left but hope unblossomed where he fought
Nor reared a single shaft to mark a gain.
His mission such as that of sweet spring rain
That softly falling to the earth is caught
By every yearning living thing, and wrought
In all the splendor coming in its train.
No thunderbolt from him that shook the world;
And yet a flash of light that lit the way
For those who struggled bravely to the crest
Where Victory's banner rested still unfurled.
And if he had a cheering word to say
That spurred them on—what matters all the rest!

INDUSTRY

THE NATIONAL LEAGUE OF WOMEN WORKERS—BY BEULAH E. KENNARD

BIG NEW YORK scarcely knew that 400 girl delegates were being entertained by her a few weeks ago, but it was a memorable occasion to the girls; for the National League of Women Workers was holding its ninth biennial convention, and they were its representatives. This organization is composed of working-girls' clubs in nine eastern states, with seven state associations and a membership of over 14,000. Mrs. Henry Ollesheimer is president, and Jean Hamilton national secretary, with headquarters in New York.

When asked "What is the difference between this league of girls' clubs and other organizations for girls?" I have answered only, "It is democratic. The girls run it."

The earlier organizations for working women consisted of church clubs, Young Women's Christian Associations and Girls' Friendly Societies. The first two included doctrinal religious teaching; the third gave primary emphasis to personal purity by a policy of rigid exclusion. These organizations are still doing fine work, but fail to meet entirely the need of the modern girl for right self-development and for a realization of her share of personal responsibility.

Their influence is limited, because many faiths are represented in any large store or factory. An association having a sectarian character will fail to reach the staunch adherents of widely differing sects. The league, being non-sectarian, does not require religious professions, which it feels belongs rather to the home and church. This freedom has not made club members irreligious, but has developed an understanding and tolerance as fine as it is unusual.

Only last winter in Pittsburgh, the council (representatives from each club who govern the association activities) with a large majority of Roman Catholics, voted unanimously to postpone the ball which had been planned to raise money for running expenses, because the Billy Sunday revival was appealing to almost every Protestant club member, making it inconsistent for them to dance or urge others to in a week of devotions. And these girls, in turn, recognized the equal responsibilities of their Catholic friends during Lent. And so through a spontaneous mutual respect for differing religious obligations, the ball was postponed months—to the detriment of association finances, possibly, but with a splendid gain in spirit.

But sectarianism, though it limits a club's influence, need not withhold the essentials of freedom and self-government which girls earning their own living have a right to expect. The serious defect in these other organizations is

that their leadership is too maternal. Even when a group has a form of constitution and power to choose its own officers, the girls have nothing to say about its larger interests and no part at all in the governing board which decides all questions of policy. If there be any value in democracy, the girls do not get it under these benevolent despotisms. In the League of Women Workers, the National Board with its officers is elected by the club membership.

In all these forms of organization, the girls' lack of responsibility is most clearly shown in the attitude of both girls and leaders toward the question of finances. Though small dues are often paid, there is no expectation that they will meet expenses. Important expenditures are decided by the mysterious "board" in which the girls have no part.

Even the youngest and the weakest of the league clubs are bearing what they can of their own expenses. This gives them a freedom of action and a sense of responsibility for the club which is not found under any other conditions. The power of the purse is the very foundation of independence and democracy.

The value of the ideal of self-dependence was shown in a club in New England, whose original furnishings, large club rental and the constant deficit from an ill-advised restaurant, were met by one wealthy member. The salary of an executive secretary and of class teachers and the expenses of the social activities were the contribution of the remainder of the club members, and in themselves constituted as heavy a burden as the club could shoulder; but through a sense of obligation they sanctioned the plans of their well intentioned benefactress. A sudden change of fortune on her part not only made future contributions impossible, but disclosed an unexpected debt of about \$1,300.

There were 110 club members at the time, an unincorporated body which could have repudiated their debt by disbanding. But the ideal of personal responsibility had underlain all their club life. With few exceptions they signed the constitution again to signify their assumption of this burden. Businesslike arrangements were made to pay all creditors equitably. The expensive quarters were immediately abandoned for one large room up many stairs; and the handsome furnishings sold, realizing nearly \$600.

Classes and social life had to be maintained in some degree to hold the membership together, and this was done. But the chief energy went into money-making—so successfully that two years and five months from the reorganization, the last penny was paid.

The club has lost about one-fourth of its members in the two and a half years, almost all for necessary reasons, and no effort has been made to gain other members; as it was thought unjust to ask new girls to work so hard to repair mistakes not theirs. A membership campaign is now to be undertaken, and the results, with such material, cannot be doubted.

If the league clubs differ from the other groups organized through private initiative, they differ just as widely from the more recent social opportunities provided by municipalities and boards of education. In many cities, public recreation centers are now open where girls and boys may find amusement. These centers have either a sort of school supervision, or such absence of supervision that the young people are not even restrained by ordinary community standards and abuses become flagrant.

In the supervised centers (which predominate) teachers and directors are apt to be those whose experience has been entirely with children, and they treat the members of their classes as pupils only. Because of this, the interest often flags before the end of the course. The classes are not self-supporting and the groups are so shifting that they cannot develop common ties. The self-organized groups soon fall to pieces for lack of definite aim. In either case, the majority of those who use these municipal centers, are taking advantage of benefits for which they make no return.

The fault in all these plans is that they fail to develop self-dependence and initiative; the powers of natural leaders remain undeveloped; benefits easily obtained are lightly appreciated, and the prevailing irresponsibility of our time is fostered rather than controlled. There is too wide a gulf between those who are trying to teach or entertain, and those who receive such help.

The mission of the League of Women Workers is to sound the note of democracy. We would emphasize our freedom and substantial equality to those who may be unconsciously aristocratic in their spirit, and call attention to our duties, where privilege without service has resulted in social pauperization.

If our municipalities are to provide recreation for the people, the social spirit must have its roots in the community instead of being bestowed by a paternal government or school system. This spirit can only exist where the people have some form of efficient social organization and for such the self-governing, self-supporting, non-sectarian club forms the natural basis. Democracy is not merely a theory, it is an achievement. In a self-governing club, moral qualities are tested and spiritual values discovered. It is a school of character, and character is the foundation upon which democracy must finally rest.

INDUSTRIAL WELFARE WORK IN FLINT, MICH.—BY FRANKLIN V. V. SWAN

SECRETARY, MANUFACTURERS' ASSOCIATION OF FLINT

SO FAR AS it has been possible to ascertain, Flint has a system of industrial welfare work maintained by the Manufacturers' Association which is unique, so far as this country is concerned, in that the benefits offered to employees are not available unless the employees first protect themselves by carrying industrial, sick and accident insurance in their own mutual company and draw benefits therefrom for a period of thirteen weeks.

The first united local work along welfare lines resulted in the organization, September 24, 1901, of the Flint Vehicle Factories Mutual Benefit Association by the combined efforts of the management and the employees of the Associated Factories. These employees were much above the average in intelligence, and quick to appreciate the advantages of a mutual insurance wherein they could change their place of employment from the factory of one associate to that of another without invalidating their insurance, so long as the premiums were duly paid.

Briefly stated, the Flint Vehicle Factories Mutual Benefit Association is managed by a board of trustees, elected annually. Each trustee must be an employe of the factory he represents and also a member of this association. The organization is managed exclusively by the employees and is not dominated in any way by the factory management.

At the first meeting of the trustees following the annual meeting, they elect the officers for one year. The president, vice-president and treasurer must be trustees, but this is not necessary in the case of the secretary.

Every man who enters the employ of any of the Associated Factories is furnished with both an employment application which he fills out and signs and an application for insurance and membership in the Mutual Benefit Association, which he must sign in one of two places, either making application for benefit insurance or giving his reasons for not wanting it. If he does not want the insurance and gives no real reason, the plan is explained to him, but he is never unduly urged.

In case he signs the application for insurance, which 74 per cent of the employes do, he thereby authorizes the time-keeper to deduct his dues from his pay and states that he is in good health. A medical examination is not required, the man's simple statement of good health being accepted.

There are three classes of membership with dues and benefits as follows:

Class	Requirements	Dues	Benefits
AA	Average weekly wage must be \$12 or more	15c.	\$0 \$75
A	Average weekly wage must be \$7 or more	10c.	\$0 \$50
B	Average weekly wage must be less than \$7	5c.	\$0 \$25

An employe with an average weekly wage of over \$12 may take out insurance in either Class AA or Class A.

A member is not eligible to receive benefits until he has been a member for

twenty-one days. He is allowed to draw benefits for thirteen consecutive weeks, and, in case of another sickness within the twelve months, he is entitled to draw an additional five weeks' benefits.

In the thirteen years since organization up to January 1, 1914, there has been paid out a total of \$119,553.93 in sick, accident and funeral benefits.

For the calendar year 1913 the following claims were paid:

Accident	AA	Class	100		
Accident	AA	Class	103	263	\$5,681.85
Sickness	A	Class	151		
Sickness	AA	Class	371	522	14,122.54
Funeral					
Benefits	A	Class	4		
Funeral					
Benefits	AA	Class	11	17	1,025.00
• \$20,829.39					

There were seventeen in Class A and twenty-nine in Class AA who drew the limit of thirteen weeks' benefits, a total of forty-six.

At the present time several plans are being considered whereby the workmen will receive even greater returns from the premiums paid, the intention being to return in the form of benefits as much as the income from the premiums will safely permit.

In 1908, the factory management reorganized as the Manufacturers' Association of Flint. Officers were elected and plans matured for more active work in the interest of the members, a system of employes' records has been developed, a free employment bureau maintained and all advertising for labor has been handled through the office of the association.

The most notable achievement of the Manufacturers' Association of Flint was the action taken March 27, 1912, adopting the supplementary compensation plan and pledging themselves to give it a fair trial and to continue it if found to be feasible. This plan is entirely independent of and different from the Michigan workmen's compensation act, in that our fund is for the aid of the workmen who become dependent as the result of sickness while the state law provides aid for workmen who have been the victims of accidents.

For several years the manufacturers, who are all deeply interested in the development of the Mutual Benefit Association, the employees' organization, have known that after an employe had been sick for thirteen weeks, the limit during which benefits under their policy are paid, his finances were, in the majority of cases, at very low ebb and if he were still incapacitated, there was an urgent need that some means be supplied to furnish aid. In case of the workman's death the death benefit received from the Mutual Benefit Association was needed to defray the funeral expenses, and the family had nothing left for their support during the period of adjustment to the new conditions imposed by the loss of the head of the family.

The plan as worked out, is to pay to the sick workman, while totally incapacitated

from labor, or to the dependents of such workman in case of the workman's death, a certain sum of money each week for a period not to exceed in any case 104 weeks; or for partial disability from sickness, a sum governed entirely by the merits of each individual case and always under the control of the Executive Committee of the Manufacturers' Association of Flint.

On the obverse side of the insurance application is a statement of the rates and benefits, and on the reverse side a circular letter from the Manufacturers' Association of Flint stating clearly just what they propose to do in the matter of financial aid, making it very clear by a paragraph, which states that "maximum compensation both as regards amount paid and time limit of payment will be paid in exceptional cases only, as our intention is simply to relieve suffering and distress temporarily, not to provide support for two years or any part thereof." It is considered as emergency help only, and the desire is to have the beneficiaries become self-supporting as soon as possible.

The workman to avail himself of the benefits of the supplementary compensation plan must fulfill the following conditions:

1. Must be an employe in the factory of one of the members of the Manufacturers' Association of Flint at the time his sickness began.

2. Must be a member in good standing (that is with all dues paid) of the Flint Vehicle Factories Mutual Benefit Association at the time his sickness began.

3. Must have been unable to work for a period exceeding thirteen weeks during which time he shall have drawn all benefits to which he is entitled from the Mutual Benefit Association; or in case of the workman's death at any time, the dependents of such workman are immediately eligible to draw benefits provided their dependence is established to the satisfaction of the executive committee.

4. Must make formal application for compensation to the Manufacturers' Association of Flint and satisfy the executive committee thereof of the justice of his case; or in the event of the death of the workman the dependence of the petitioner must be established.

For the purposes of this plan, workmen receiving compensation thereunder are classified under three heads, viz.:

Class 1. Single man (or woman) or married man (or woman) with no dependent children.

Under this class the dependents are wife (or husband) parents, brothers and sisters, as the case may be.

Class 2. Married man (or woman) with one dependent child under fifteen years of age (or over fifteen years of age if physically or mentally incapacitated from earning).

Under this class the dependents include the dependent child in addition to those enumerated under Class 1.

Class 3. Married man (or woman) with two or more dependent children under fifteen years of age (or over fifteen years of age if physically or mentally incapacitated from earning).

Under this class the dependents include the dependent children in addition to those enumerated under Class 1.

The maximum amount of compensation to be paid each class is as follows:

For death or for total disability from sickness from causes covered by certificate of the Flint Vehicle Factories Mutual Benefit Association: Class 1, \$7; Class 2, \$8, and Class 3, \$9 per week.

For partial disability from sickness from causes covered by certificate of the Flint Vehicle Factories Mutual Benefit Association, such payment will be made as seems fair in each individual case.

The maintenance of the supplementary compensation fund is provided by assessing the members of the manufacturers' Association of Flint whenever the funds in the treasury become low.

As the plan was entirely novel at the time it was put in operation, and for this reason no data was available to ascertain in advance just what the expense might be, the Manufacturers' Association of Flint reserved the right to discontinue its operation at any time it became too burdensome, but in view of the conservative way the fund is being administered by the executive committee, there seems to be no reason why any change should be necessary.

For the twelve months ending December 31, 1913, the cost to the Manufacturers' Association of Flint amounted to approximately \$1.20 per capita for the average number of employees during that time.

The executive committee gives a great deal of time to the careful investigation of each case and handles it in the best way to accomplish the desired results.

The administration of any benefit fund gives an exceptional opportunity to study human nature, and at times severely taxes the patience—as for instance when someone, after receiving all necessary aid, attempts to get additional benefits to avoid going to work. Fortunately these cases are rare. The relief work is being made more practical all the time. For example, we handle correspondence for anyone who is being harassed by credit houses and are often able to make fair settlements of accounts which could not have been accomplished by the debtor himself. We secure for our beneficiaries, when they are ready for work, the sort of employment for which they are fitted; we advise them as to the use of the money they receive from us, if they have debts to pay a word from us often secures leniency from their creditors; in fact our activities are governed entirely by the needs as they are brought to our attention.

As time goes on and the number of beneficiaries increases (up to January 1, 1914, we have served fifty-two and now are paying out benefits to twenty-three each week) it is hoped that the spirit of confidence between employer and employee will make for stronger co-operation.

THE CONSUMER AND THE FEDERAL CHILD LABOR LAW—ANNA ROCHESTER, NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

ALREADY 87,000,000 Americans have registered their belief that fourteen years is the lowest age at which children ought to enter factories. Of the 78,000,000 who live in mining states, 41,000,000 have forbidden their children under sixteen to work in mines. 45,000,000 have on their statute books an eight-hour day for children, and 58,000,000 a night work prohibition for all under sixteen years.

On the fact that the Palmer-Owen bill embodies principles already recognized by a majority of the states, certain advocates of child labor reform have based their opposition to a federal child labor law. They have overlooked, however, two vital considerations: Their conscience as consumers seems to be buried under a monument of state's rights on which is inscribed their own state's righteousness; and they have forgotten that the consumer of child-made products is the ultimate employer of the child and bears a share in the responsibility for evils involved. They may have begun to prevent child labor in their own states, but so long as they buy glass from Pennsylvania, cotton goods from Georgia, canned fish from Mississippi, coal from West Virginia, preserved fruits from Delaware, or any one of a score of other common commodities from any state whose child labor law falls below standard in any one respect they are accomplices in the abuse of childhood.

Among those who have stood for a fair standard in their own states there are many—and their number is growing day by day—who do not wish to buy child labor products, but whom the intertangling of the states leaves with only these alternatives: They may buy the products of child labor and compromise their deepest sense of justice and compassion; or they may demand the enactment of a federal law to exclude from interstate commerce the products made under conditions from which their souls revolt. The children who ripped the bastings from my coat or mined the coal that keeps me warm are nearer to me than the child who lives next door, though they happen to live in another state. I cannot set aside as a foolish and irrelevant whim the impulse to demand that I be not compelled to employ them.

Not merely for interstate consumers but also for citizens who believe that the children of their own state should be protected, the state powers are insufficient. Without federal interference there is no way to meet that interstate commerce in children, by which the children of one state are subjected in another to conditions which the first state would not tolerate.

The most glaring example, of course, is the traffic in families—men, women and children taken from cities having a fairly high standard of protection to work in the canneries of states having no effective restriction of ages and hours. From Baltimore alone hundreds of workers, including very young chil-

dren, are taken for the winter season to pick shrimp and shuck oysters in the coast canneries of Alabama, Mississippi and Louisiana. They return each spring to Baltimore. The children will be citizens of Maryland, exploited, stunted, debased by their work in other states. Not that Maryland's standard for canneries is higher than the letter of the law in these three states; but she is developing an efficient administration of the law unknown there outside of New Orleans.

Less spectacular is the contrast in standards of adjacent states. Ohio has had for several years the eight-hour day and no night work of children under sixteen years, effectually protecting her boys from the worst phases of employment in glass factories. But Ohio boys can, and do, work in the glass factories of West Virginia where no such restrictions exist, and Ohio is powerless to prevent the overwork and moral injury to her sons. Alabama is trying to enforce a twelve-year limit; Georgia feebly protests the employment of children under ten years of age in cotton mills is illegal.

When a state sees its wards slip over the border to work in another state and there suffer from lower standards, what has become of our unity as a nation if that state may not appeal to Congress to set a minimum standard of protection? A federal law, touching only establishments producing goods for interstate commerce, would prevent the most glaring evils—exploitation of young children in canneries and cotton mills, and the night work and the long day of older children in mills and factories of all kinds. The Constitution guarantees to citizens of one state the privileges and immunities of all. This opens a wide field and amply justifies an attempt by the majority of the states to protect their present and their future citizens from the debasement of exploitation and ignorance involved in present conditions.

Twice at least, in the lottery laws and the Mann white slave act, Congress has recognized the moral needs of the consumer or of the public as a call to action. In the matter of child labor the moral appeal is more subtle, but to those whose conscience is aroused it is no less impelling than the business corruption of lotteries or the horrors of the interstate traffic in girls.

Supreme Court decisions on analogous points have opened the way for a discussion of the whole question on its merits without regard to this specter of constitutionality. In *United States vs. Marigold* (9 Howard U. S. 560), Justice Daniel said:

"Such exclusion cannot be limited to particular classes or descriptions of commercial subjects; it may embrace manufactures, bullions, coins, or any other thing. The power once conceded it may operate on any and every subject of commerce to which the legislative discretion may apply it."

Again in *Hoke vs. United States* (227 U. S. 308), Justice McKenna said:

"Our dual form of government has its perplexities, state and nation having different spheres of jurisdiction, as we have said; but it must be kept in mind that we are one people; and the powers reserved to the states and those conferred on the nation are adapted to be exercised, whether independently or concurrently, to promote the general welfare, material and moral. . . . It may be that Congress could not prohibit the manufacture of the article in a state. It may be that Congress could not prohibit in all of its conditions its sale within a state. But Congress may prohibit its transportation between the states, and by that means defeat the motive and evils of its manufacture."

The older decision in the lottery cases (188 U. S. 321, 357) is perhaps even more suggestive, especially if the reader substitutes for "lottery tickets" and "lotteries" the words "products of child labor" and "child labor":

"If the carrying of lottery tickets from one state to another be interstate commerce, and if Congress is of opinion that an effective regulation for the suppression of lotteries, carried on through such commerce, is to make it a criminal offense to cause lottery tickets to be carried from one state to another, we know of no authority in the courts to hold that the means thus devised are not appropriate and necessary to protect the country at large against a species of interstate commerce which, although

in general use and somewhat favored in both national and state legislation in the early history of the country, has grown into disrepute, and has become offensive to the entire people of the nation. It is a kind of traffic which no one can be entitled to pursue as of right."

In none of these cases is the analogy complete, but note these words published in 1908 by so conservative an authority as Frederic Jesup Stimson, professor of comparative legislation at Harvard University:

"It is perhaps obvious that we intend to withhold the right of conducting interstate commerce from any corporation not conforming to a federal standard. Whether we shall go further and deny it to individuals; whether, indeed, Congress has the constitutional right to deny it to individuals; and whether, on the other branch of the definition, we shall extend it from commerce, in the sense of interstate traffic, to manufacturing, mining, or producing goods intended to be sold outside of the state where they are manufactured, mined, or produced; and to the returns, or the profits, or the fortunes, or the disposition of the fortunes derived therefrom; and still more, to the contractual relations, the conditions of labor, etc., of the persons so engaged, are all matters for the future to settle."

The future has arrived. What will the decision be?

IMPRESSIONS OF WOMEN'S WORK ABROAD—BY GEORGE M. PRICE, M. D., JOINT BOARD OF SANITARY CONTROL, NEW YORK

WHEN I FIRST saw women hod-carriers in Paris I was rather shocked, as it was a sight that one is not used to in the States. The Parisians, however, seem to take it as a matter of fact. I have seen women carrying hods, laying bricks, and, in one place on the outskirts of Paris, I saw two women digging trenches. All these women were rather healthy specimens and did not seem in the least to mind the hardships of their work.

In a Paris factory which makes clothing and uniforms for government employes there were about two hundred women working at machines operated by foot power. These women were paid for nine hours' work from 1½ to 3 francs a day.

The sanitary conditions of this factory, as well as most of the other factories which I inspected in France and Belgium, left much to be desired. Wash-room and toilet accommodations are apparently matters which receive scant attention. The toilets were in such miserable condition that they would not be tolerated in any of our factories, even in those on the outskirts of the city, where factory inspectors do not often get around. But the French factory inspector who accompanied me did not seem to notice especially the lack of cleanliness and sanitary accommodations. There was no privacy whatever in the toilets. They were used by both sexes, and their construction would be considered obsolete even in our villages.

In a large cloak and suit factory in Vienna I found fifty to sixty women working, most of them quite young. This factory belonged to the so-called *Kartellierten Firmen*, consisting of sixty-two firms in the cloak, suit and dress industries, which made a sort of protocol agreement as to wages with the labor unions, and over which protocol the industrial inspector of the state has some jurisdiction. According to this protocol the minimum daily wage of a woman worker after passing her apprenticeship period was set at 2 Kronen-10 Hellers (39 cents); after one year's assistanceship, 2 Kronen-40 Hellers (about 46 cents); after two years' assistanceship, 2 Kronen-70 Hellers (about 52 cents); after three years, 3 Kronen-10 Hellers (59 cents); after four years, 3 Kronen-40 Hellers (65 cents); after five years, 3 Kronen-70 Hellers (71 cents); after six years, 4 Kronen (about 76 cents). No payment is made for holidays. A control commission, consisting of five workers and five employes has charge of the workings of this protocol. This commission acts also as a grievance board. In case of failure to agree the industrial inspector acts as chairman and has the deciding vote. The protocol was made for five years and its term expires March 1, 1916.

In most of the factories abroad an hour and a half is given for pauses, and the practice is for women and children to get two additional pauses for a quarter of an hour each at 10 a. m. and 4

p. m. In some places the midday pause is only one hour, the additional half hour being divided between the morning and afternoon pauses. It was interesting to see how eagerly all the workers took advantage of the breaks in the day's monotony to go outside, get a bite and frolic. It seems to me that this practice could advantageously be adopted in this country with profit to workers as well as employers.

In a large clothing factory in London I found five to six hundred women. Many of them seemed very young,—indeed, some of them did not seem more than thirteen or fourteen. I know that the sanitary conditions of this factory, if found in New York, would be rated as in Class D. The toilet accommodations were all on the top floor, necessitating much loss of time to reach them.

I was surprised to find in this factory that the pressing, even on very heavy clothing, was done almost exclusively by women. The pressing irons were heated on gas stoves, with no provision made for carrying off the heat or gas generated. In this factory I also found a new kind of pressing and ironing machine for pressing very large and heavy pieces of cloth, also operated by women. During the pressing a large amount of steam is generated which envelops the operator. The temperature also seemed very high—at least eighty degrees Fahrenheit—at quite a distance from the irons. According to the statement of the owner, the workers in this factory are paid from twelve to thirty-four shillings a week.

In a large shirt and collar factory inspected in Berlin I found nearly a thousand women and girls at work. The women were of all ages—some of them as young as thirteen. A few looked like grandmothers. The safety and sanitary conditions of this plant were excellent, and the management also provided a lunch at cost to the employes. Wages ranged from two to five marks a day.

In a shirt factory in Brussels nearly six hundred women and girls were found at work in very light, well ventilated and scrupulously clean workshops. Model machinery well safeguarded was used in every process. The laundry was one of the best I have ever seen, not surpassed even in this country. Not only was the floor well drained but it was covered with cork mats, and the women employes wore shoes with rubber soles. Because of the splendid ventilating apparatus, there was hardly any steam in the laundry, nor was there excessive humidity. Three pauses, an hour at noon and a quarter of an hour each during the forenoon and afternoon, were given to the employes. Splendid wash-rooms, dressing-rooms and bathing places were provided for the employes, and a large, fully equipped restaurant, where food was sold at cost.

The general conditions in the Berlin and Brussels collar and shirt factories were very favorable in comparison with the conditions in the same kind of factories at Troy, N. Y.

HEALTH

THE DISTRICT NURSE OF YESTERDAY AND OF TODAY—BY OLIVE A. COLTON, TOLEDO, O.

"PUBLIC HEALTH can be bought." The death-rate of any city indicates the intensity of that city's struggle between disease and dollars plus brains.

In the development essential to all things progressive, there has been in the last few years a radical change in the province of district nursing. Formerly nurses were sent forth to alleviate suffering; now they must also promote health by enlightening and protecting the public.

Our original idea of a district nurse was the proverbial angel of mercy who entered the destitute home of the typhoid victim, gave her a refreshing bath, combed her neglected hair, and made the bed with clean linen. She left milk tickets to secure proper nourishment for her patient, told her not to worry about the rent as the Relief Committee would attend to that; and after a kind scolding to Sammy for not being in school, and a few cheery words to rheumatic grandpa behind the stove, she departed with a "God bless you!" ringing in her ears. Thus she continued her rounds, this Good Samaritan. But lo, the poor we still have with us always.

Formerly restorative, our task is now also preventative. The nurse who cares for one sufferer does well; but the real helper of today is she who closes the polluted well, or exposes the untrustworthy milkman, so preventing the rest of the neighborhood from disease.

As an example of the change of method in substituting thoughtful plans for spasmodic relief, take two sisters, one blind, the other crippled and weak-minded. The nurse had visited them three times a week for years. They belonged to no church, nor lodge, and the neighbors for months had denied themselves to feed them. They had refused to go to the Infirmary. Limping Mandy had led her blind sister from door to door selling needles; but now the rent was months overdue, they were aged, cold and hungry.

"Now God help us," they wailed, "we're too beat out to work!"

Surely here was a worthy family for the District Nurse Association. Then a social worker appeared on the scene. In the corner grocery she heard a vague reference to "property." After a whole week's investigation she tracked down a sacred lot which, in spite of all advice, Mandy had refused to sell, obsessed with the idea it was worth more. These two old women had lived on charity for years, instead of helping themselves.

This was evidently a case for the court. A reputable guardian was appointed who sold the lot at the best

possible price and now pays in weekly installments to the poor old creatures the sum placed for them in the bank. The blind committee, the Sunshine Society and a friendly visitor pilot them through the shoals of old age, with a kindly but not monetary interest in their welfare.

Here a necessity presents itself that unfortunately the public is but slowly coming to understand. The district nurse of today should be more than a hospital graduate; she should also have had a course of social training.

Too much stress cannot be laid upon this point. Only first hand knowledge of social conditions can give her the point of view of the poor. The racial tendencies of the immigrant must be known to her. The early traditions bred in the bone in his own land may not protect him against exploiters ready to prey upon his ignorance here; and the quickest way to develop him is to understand what to him is sacred and worthy of honor.

No cure can be found for the ills of our civilization until the basic causes of poverty are mastered, and we learn that the remedy for destitution is not giving to, but considering, the poor. We used to think that penury came from drink and laziness; now we have irrefutable statistics to prove that but 17 per cent of the dire want of our day comes from alcohol, and that non-employment, feeble-mindedness, sickness, occupational diseases, child labor, ignorance, bad housing, family desertion, widowhood

and old age, are contributing and often interlocking causes.

Poets may be born, but a district nurse must be made. Miss Wald says, "We not only need her trained, we need her inspired." The only desirable nurse is *she* who has high ideals and the efficiency to carry them out; who, while her mother heart and soothing hand relieve the patient, can also untangle domestic knots and teach the family the laws of health. The doctor will diagnose the patient's sickness; the nurse must diagnose the household.

None but a nurse equipped with the social knowledge of today will understand how to lift her families to the level of normal living. Family building is the district nurse's particular privilege. A good home life is the greatest factor in race betterment. The nurse must know the housing laws of her city; the health officer is her fellow worker, and the juvenile court, probate judge, and all that represent that authoritative word, Law, must not fill her with awe. She should have sufficient address to command the respect of these men, for co-operation with other civic agencies is her daily duty.

The quickest way to eliminate disease-breeding conditions is to create public opinion on the subject, to quicken the civic conscience. To fulfil her highest purpose the district nurse must testify of the evils of child labor that she sees in the arrested development and darkened future of little workers. She must urge the longing of youth for wholesome pleasures, the need of school laws, of instruction for blind, sick or backward children. Who can bear truer witness to the persistent spread of tuber-



THE MOTHER OF THIS FAMILY, USED TO ECONOMIZING, PRAYED, "MAY THERE BE NURSES ENOUGH TO GO AROUND"

culosis? To the actual peril of white slavery? To the horrifying increase of mental defectiveness? Who sooner than the nurse finds the father of a little family, a spent toiler at fifty? Who realizes more keenly the number of deserting fathers?

Her opinion is valuable on the success or miscarriage of mother's pensions. She knows the results of our lax labor laws and the necessity of humanizing industries. Foreigners are building our great cities above and underground. They are developing our resources and doing the hard work in conquering space and time. Shall our gratitude to the immigrant be to reduce him to a drunken, anarchistic, disease-racked outcast?

In creating public opinion against these and other evils the district nurse's new activities will enlist the strongest champion for reform. Her voice will rouse humanity from its evasion of duty and help the world advance farther than Cain's time, who did not understand that we really must be our brother's keeper, if we, ourselves, hope to make progress.

If then this field of work is so fertile, why do not more women enter it? Because they cannot afford the preliminary courses. Tuition in the Boston, New York, and Chicago Schools of Philanthropy is not prohibitive, but the cost

Flies carry unnamable
filth to food. I counted
_____ flies in your place
of business.

Date _____ A CUSTOMER

The Kansas State Board of Health
issues this little card, 1 1/4 x 3 inches.
Wouldn't it be serviceable elsewhere, too?

of living in these large cities must be considered. Few nurses after three years in hospital training without remuneration, can take more time for study before becoming self-supporting.

Endowments and scholarships in these schools, or money to maintain nurses while there, would not only help the nurses and be a blessing to the giver, but would go out in an ever-widening circle of benefit throughout the whole community. People give generously to help the poor. Where is the foresighted philanthropist who will do the double good of helping helpers?

OCCUPATIONAL DISEASE COMPENSATION: SOME RECENT VERDICTS—BY JOHN B. ANDREWS

SECRETARY, AMERICAN ASSOCIATION FOR LABOR LEGISLATION

JUST BEFORE THE legislature of Ontario adjourned recently, it did a new thing in America. It made a law "to provide for compensation to workmen for injuries sustained and industrial diseases contracted in the course of their employment."

The federal government and twenty-three of our states have already covered accidents by legislation more or less inadequate. But "industrial diseases" compensation by special mention, right in the title of the law, is worthy of your respectful attention. It hasn't happened before on the American continent.

This means that in Ontario victims of industrial trade maladies are to be compensated just like sufferers from sudden and obvious accidents. The law mentions by way of introduction half-a-dozen work diseases about which we have been learning lately,—poisoning from lead, phosphorus, mercury and arsenic, as well as anthrax and the miner's ailment, spelled "ankylostomiasis."

Of course, in Europe, progressive countries like England, Germany and Switzerland, long since made definite provision for this sort of thing. But our United States Congress, with a carefully drafted bill before it this long year and more past, and in spite of a favorable recommendation from the House Judiciary Committee, has still failed to provide similar protection even for the government's own employees in shipyard, arsenal and printing office. Belgium, for example, did that years ago.

Readers will remember the technical

decisions of the federal government attorney who refused compensation to victims of lead-poisoning in government navy yards, because lead-poisoning is an occupational disease and "is not an injury" under the law. But now comes Massachusetts with a law that is working well and an industrial accident board that guessed her victims of lead-poisoning should be paid. And the Supreme Court of the great Commonwealth of Massachusetts, upon being asked pointedly upon several separate occasions, has recently said to the board, "You guessed right. Go ahead!"

Thus, Massachusetts compensated Otto Johnson, incapacitated after working as a lead grinder for twenty-two years, and William Hurle, totally blinded after working several years in a power-house where his work required him to breath poisonous gases as he looked for a moment seventy times each day through the peep-holes of a gas-producer installation.

In Michigan, the Industrial Accident Board thought compensation should be paid to the widow of Augustus Adams, who died in June, 1913, from the effects of lead-poisoning contracted during his work at the Detroit plant of the Acme White Lead & Color Works. But a year later the liability company in which the employer had insured, although admitting all of the facts, was still fighting the case and had appealed to the Supreme Court on the ground that Adams didn't die by accident but was killed by industrial disease in the course of his duty. An early decision is expected.

The Ohio law, also, uses the words "personal injury;" but when Louis Plasko, who sandpapered white lead paint in the Cincinnati shop of the American Carriage Company, asked indemnity for lead-poisoning, the Ohio Industrial Commission "read into the act words which were not placed there by the legislature" and announced that their interpretation was that the law meant "personal injuries by accident."

Since then the courts, including the Superior Court in a decision by Judge Robert C. Pugh, successor to William Howard Taft and Judson Harmon in the professorship of constitutional law in the Cincinnati Law School, have held that in law the term "personal injury" is used to differentiate injury to the human body from injury to property, and have reversed the interpretation of the Industrial Commission, made up of a labor leader, a lawyer, and a professional economist. To quote the words of the *Lancet-Clinic*, they have rendered "a decision which interprets the law literally, in accordance with the intent of those who wrote and passed the law, and in consonance with the dictates of common sense."

Can it be that the economists and representatives of labor are becoming more conservative than the judges?

Probably some of the existing laws must be amended, and undoubtedly new legislation in unmistakable terms must be passed before victims of occupational disease will be treated sanely and justly. But surely the time is soon coming when advocates of compensation for industrial accidents must realize that a logical consideration of the facts leads likewise to compensation for industrial diseases.

NEW LIGHT ON THE PROBLEM OF PELLAGRA

A NEW REPORT on the causation of this puzzling disease has just been published by the Thompson-McFadden Commission of the New York Post-Graduate Medical School, and though the problem has not by any means been solved, it is brought somewhat nearer solution by the studies of this commission. Briefly stated, the following are their conclusions:

Pellagra is probably a communicable disease, conveyed from person to person by some means, perhaps by the biting fly, perhaps by the contamination of food with the excretions of those suffering from the disease. No food in itself, either fresh corn or decayed or blighted corn, could be found to have any connection with the occurrence of pellagra.

It seems rather a house disease. It was impossible to find that any cases of pellagra had originated in two villages having a complete water-carriage sewerage system, and the disease was found to be most prevalent in houses provided with primitive open privies. It was also found that new cases spread from old ones and develop in houses formerly inhabited by pellagrous cases.

All this points to a communicable infectious disease, a disease of probably microbic origin. The thing to work for now is the discovery of the germ.

SANITARY CONDITIONS AMONG THE ESKIMOS

TWO HEALTH SURVEYS have recently been made in Alaska. One, by our government, included the Eskimo villages along the coast, where some 2,000 natives live.

Dr. Krulish, who writes this report, was especially interested in tuberculosis, the most important disease among the people, and in the factors which favor its spread, and he therefore describes in detail the houses in these villages.

Extreme cold and scanty fuel make them construct houses as nearly air tight as possible. These "igloos" are made of logs covered thickly with sod. They may be lighted by windows or by a skylight, the intestine of the big seal being used for glass. There are two rooms, one used as a store-room and the other, connected with it by a low narrow tunnel, is the living-room, about twelve or fifteen feet square. The door may open into the store-room, which serves to keep the cold from getting into the living-room, or there may be only a trap door into the roof of the store-room. This arrangement keeps out dogs and prevents the entrance from getting blocked with snow.

All the activities of the household are carried on in this one room; and during the long dark months of the Arctic winter the family is packed into this overheated, ill-ventilated space. The Eskimos are very sociable and once a week during the winter in every village they meet for an all-night dance in one of the larger igloos, where some sixty persons crowd into a room not more than sixteen feet square. Fortunately during the two or three months of summer they leave their houses and live in tents on the shore.

These natives are, according to Dr. Krulish, decidedly above the average of Alaskan natives and of the Eskimos of the Siberian coast. As usual, contact with civilization has resulted in a certain amount of syphilitic infection. Dr. Krulish traces this to the whaling ship crews. Trachoma he did not find,—a matter of surprise, for along the southern coast of Alaska it is common and is responsible for a good deal of blindness. He believes that this is due to the fact that southern Alaska was settled by Russians from Siberia, who brought trachoma.

Diseases due to exposure, rheumatism, bronchitis and pneumonia, were reported and much indigestion, caused by the diet of meat and oil and by poor preparation of food. Many of the children have adenoids.

Dr. Krulish recommends the establishment of hospitals for the treatment of the infected, the improvement of the igloo, the enforcement of sanitary measures in the villages and the education of the people in hygiene. He also hopes that outdoor sports may be encouraged by the teachers and the all-night dances abolished or conducted under better conditions.

The second health survey, of one small Alaskan community, was made by



Courtesy U. S. Public Health Service

A GROUP OF ESKIMOS, THEIR SUMMER HOME AND WINTER RESIDENCE

Dr. Harold N. Craig, a physician in charge of the Presbyterian Hospital at Haines, Alaska, together with Captain Lambe, of the U. S. Army. These doctors examined the 170 Indian inhabitants of this little town, including 49 men, 62 women and 57 children. The report states that the fact that 33 1/3 per cent of the entire population are children is enough to mark the race as a dying one. Among 657 children, no less than 12 cases of tuberculosis were found and 3 of blindness. Only 21 of the 57 children appeared to be in really robust condition.

Mortality in infancy and early childhood must be large, for only 43 per cent

of the children of the younger women had survived and only 22.8 per cent of the children of the women over 40.

Ten of the younger women or 27 per cent have pulmonary tuberculosis, and of the older women 24 per cent, making an average of 26 per cent for the women. There were no less than 10 cases of blindness among the women. Of the 51 men, 15 had tuberculosis. The larger tuberculosis rate in this report is explained by the fact that in this village all the inhabitants were examined, while Dr. Krulish was able to examine only those who presented themselves for medical treatment.

EDUCATION

A PLAN TO STIMULATE VOCATIONAL EDUCATION IN ALL THE STATES—BY WINTHROP D. LANE

WITH UNUSUAL promptness and economy the Commission on Vocational Education appointed early this year by President Wilson completed its work last month. Its bill providing federal aid for vocational education in the states has been introduced into both branches of Congress—into the House by Representative Hughes, of Georgia, and into the Senate by Senator Hoke Smith, of Georgia. In each branch it has been referred to the Committee on Education. This measure is the constructive outcome of the commission's work. If made into law, it will end several years' effort to accomplish the object for which it stands. In a supplementary report of many chapters the commission summarizes the arguments for the bill and points out the need for vocational education in the country at large.

The two large aims of the commission's bill are to extend the help of the federal government to the states in providing vocational education and in training persons to teach it. These are to be attained by grants of money and by the establishment of a Federal Board for Vocational Education to work with state boards. In extending the help of the federal government the desire of the commission is to stimulate rather than to support vocational education in the states.

The appropriations of the bill are as follows:

In 1915-16, \$500,000 for salaries of teachers of agricultural subjects, this sum to be increased at the rate of \$250,000 annually until it reaches \$2,000,000 in 1921-22, and then at the rate of \$500,000 annually until it reaches \$3,000,000 in 1923-24. Three millions are to be appropriated annually thereafter. This money is to be allotted to the states in the proportion which their rural populations bear to the total rural population of the United States.

In 1915-16, \$500,000 for salaries of teachers of trade and industrial subjects, this sum to be increased at the same rate as that for teachers of agricultural subjects. This money is to be allotted to the states in the proportion which their urban populations bear to the total urban population of the United States.

In 1915-16, \$500,000 for training persons to teach agricultural, trade, industrial and home economics subjects; in 1916-17, \$700,000; in 1917-18, \$900,000; in 1918-19, and annually thereafter, \$1,000,000. This is to be allotted to the states in the proportion which their total populations bear to the total population of the United States.

In the interests of the smaller states it is provided that of the two funds for

salaries of teachers no state shall receive less than \$5,000 annually prior to 1922, nor less than \$10,000 annually thereafter, and that of the fund for training teachers no state shall receive less than \$5,000 annually prior to 1918, nor less than \$10,000 annually thereafter.

To administer these funds in the states each legislature is required to designate or create a state board of not fewer than three members. The existing state board of education may be so designated.

To administer the act for the United States the bill creates a permanent Federal Board for Vocational Education, to consist of the postmaster general, the secretary of the interior, the secretary of agriculture, the secretary of commerce and the secretary of labor. This board is to elect one of its own members chairman. The commissioner of education is to be its executive officer.

Co-operation with state boards is to

The two large aims of the commission's bill are to extend the help of the federal government to the states in providing vocational education and in training persons to teach it. It is stimulation by the federal government, not support, that the commission wants.

be, however, only one of the duties of the federal board. It is to act as a central investigative and publicity agent in the field of vocational education. The commission early agreed upon the need for such a body. In the reports of the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the Department of Agriculture, the Department of Commerce and the Bureau of Education there is much material of value to the cause of vocational education. But the activities in this field of these departments necessarily lack plan and are without relation to each other. Moreover, except for the work of the Department of Agriculture, Congress has not supported this service liberally.

Accordingly the new board is to be a clearing house for these departments and bureaus in making studies and publishing data. The board may conduct investigations of its own, but it is directed to work with or through the departments so far as practicable. This phase of its work must include, the bill says, "studies, investigations and reports on agriculture and agricultural processes

and requirements upon agricultural workers; trades, industries, and apprenticeships, trade and industrial requirements upon industrial workers, and classification of industrial processes and pursuits; commerce and commercial pursuits and requirements upon commercial workers; home processes and problems and requirements upon home workers; and problems of administration of vocational schools and of courses of study and instruction in vocational subjects." To pay for investigations and maintain its office, the board is granted \$200,000.

Before it can receive federal money, each state must meet certain "conditions of efficiency." For the most part these are left to be determined by agreement between the federal board and state boards. The bill itself fixes some of them, however.

It is stipulated that the controlling purpose of all education on which federal money is spent must be to "fit for useful employment." It must also be of less than college grade and designed to meet the needs of persons over fourteen years of age who have entered upon, or who are preparing to enter upon, farm work, a trade or other industrial pursuit. This rules out so-called prevocational instruction, the purpose of which is not to fit for specific employment but rather to liven the traditional elementary curriculum with touches of the actual environment of life.

It is required also that at least one-third of the money given to any state for trade and industrial education shall be applied to part-time classes for those who have already entered upon employment. Before money for training teachers can be received, each state must show that such training will be given only to persons who have had "adequate vocational experience or contact in the line of work for which they are preparing themselves," or who are acquiring such experience or contact as a part of their training.

The creation of the commission which framed this bill came as the result of six years' efforts to secure federal aid for vocational education. Under the leadership, first, of Representative Davis, of Minnesota, and later of Senators Dolliver, of Iowa, and Page, of Vermont, the struggle progressed. It met the steady opposition of those who objected to such an extension of federal activity as well as of those who questioned the wisdom of its specific purposes. The Page bill passed the Senate at the last Congress. Meanwhile the Lever bill which granted federal aid to extension work among farmers, passed the House and the two measures died in joint conference.

After the passage of the Lever bill at the present session, and its signing by the

'See THE SURVEY, Jan. 18, 1913.

president, Congress authorized the creation of the commission, appropriating \$15,000 for its work.

The president appointed the members about March first. The commission held its first meeting April 2, two months before the date set by Congress for its final report. Not only did it complete its work in the allotted time, but returned nearly a third of its appropriation unexpended. The five lay members of the commission went to Washington and there gave all of their time for two months to its work.

Two methods of getting information were adopted. One was that of public hearings, at which representatives of national, educational, labor and industrial bodies and organizations of farmers appeared. The other was the use of questionnaires. In this way state superintendents of public instruction, 564 superintendents of cities and towns over 10,000, five county superintendents in each state, 115 national labor organizations and 120 employers representing skilled, semi-skilled and unskilled occupations gave their assistance to the commission.

In its report the commission declares

that of more than 25,000,000 workers in agriculture and industry, less than 1 per cent have had adequate preparation for their jobs. "As a solution of the problem confronting the nation," the report continues, "vocational training is needed to conserve and develop our natural resources, to prevent waste of human labor, to provide a substitute for the old apprenticeship, to increase wage-earning power, and to meet the increasing demand for trained workers."

The commission included four members of Congress and five others, as follows: Senator Hoke Smith, of Georgia, chairman; Senator Carroll S. Page, of Vermont; Representative D. H. Hughes, of Georgia; Representative S. D. Fess, of Ohio; John A. Lapp, director of the Bureau of Legislative Information, Indianapolis, Indiana; Florence M. Marshall principal of the Manhattan Trade School, New York city; Agnes Nestor, president of the International Glove Workers' Union, Chicago; Charles A. Prosser, secretary of the National Society for the Promotion of Industrial Education, New York; Charles A. Winslow, Bureau of Labor, Washington, D. C.

SAN FRANCISCO AS A BARGAINER AT THE EDUCATIONAL COUNTER

IN CALIFORNIA, where women vote, they also help to get the facts necessary to an intelligent exercise of citizenship. A vivid picture of San Francisco bargaining at the educational counter has been drawn by a group of members of the California branch of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae.

Their report, which fills nearly 100 printed pages, and is based on the researches of an experienced investigator, first undertakes to show that San Francisco is a poor "spender" on schools. It is stated that "among 195 cities of over 30,000 population which are listed in the United States Census report on the financial statistics of cities for 1912, there are only five which spend a smaller proportion for schools than San Francisco." This expenditure is in great contrast to the fact that "San Francisco is the richest city, per capita, of the eleven principal cities of the nation", and the fact that during the last six years, while the city's assessed valuation has increased 45.2 per cent and the tax rate for all purposes has increased 55.4 per cent, the increase in the school budget has been only 24.5 per cent.

This small expenditure, it is pointed out, is in part due to the comparatively few children in the population. San Francisco is declared to be a single man's city—no city of the country except Newport, R. I., having so small a proportion of married men. Among all the cities in the United States the percentage of children under 15 years of age is 27.3. In San Francisco it is 18.9.

But that this is not sufficient justification for spending so little on schools is shown by the fact that in her per capita cost for schools San Francisco stands fifth from bottom among the eighteen cities over 300,000. Moreover, while Pittsburgh is spending \$2.65 for supplies for each child attending school, Los An-

geles \$2.44, Minneapolis \$1.44, and so on, San Francisco is spending thirty-one cents.

Actual conditions in the schools are declared to reflect this niggardliness. Sanitation is not up to standard. One wash-basin was found doing duty for 648 boys and girls. Eight stalls and three small troughs provided for one school housing 694 boys. Twenty sanitary fixtures in another met the needs of 1323 children.

The great majority of the school yards are declared to be totally inadequate in size, lacking in play provision and with bad drainage. No decorations for classrooms have been provided by the Board of Education. Everywhere there is stated to be a striking lack of maps, globes, reference books and other teaching materials. One small globe was found meeting the needs of 613 pupils.

The evil of overcrowded classes is flagrant. Of the 985 classes in San Francisco schools, 41 per cent have more than 45 pupils each.

Progressive features in education already firmly entrenched in the public school systems of many cities are unknown in San Francisco, or scarcely begun. Among these are kindergartens, vacation schools, physical training, school gardens, open-air schools, school lunches, special classes for defectives, trade schools, vocational guidance, continuation schools, and social use of school houses.

With due allowance for setbacks incident to earthquake and fire, the facts presented, declares the report, "warrant the assertion that San Francisco has been busy developing herself commercially and industrially, but that while she has been increasing her wealth and her resources, she has been neglecting her schools."

Among many specific recommendations for remedying discovered defects, one is the establishment of an Efficiency and Publicity Bureau in the school department, "whose duty it shall be to collect scientific and adequate school data, for the guidance of school authorities and the proper information of the public." If this be done, it is urged, such another accumulation of bad things will be impossible. Ills will be discovered as soon as they exist.

UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN UNDER MICROSCOPE

WHEN THE Wisconsin State Board of Public Affairs was continued by the last legislature it was directed to extend its investigations to include the state university. This is in a measure subjecting the university to the same treatment which it has advocated for other institutions, having even released many of its own faculty for investigation of departments of government in Wisconsin and elsewhere.

The university survey is now going on and it is expected that the report of its findings will be published late this year. Its recommendations are required to be in bill form. The directors of the survey are A. W. Sanborn, chairman, William H. Allen, who has been granted a leave of absence for the purpose by the New York Bureau of Municipal Research, and E. C. Branson.

One of the first steps of the board was to submit to the people of the state through the newspapers a list of questions to be answered by the survey, with a request for criticisms and additions. Some of the newspapers have established departments called "university forums" in which the questions submitted by their readers are printed.

Each member of the university faculty has received a long list of questions about his own work which he is expected to answer. Many of these bear on the technical aspects of pedagogy but the wider scope of the inquiry is indicated by such questions as the following: "Please list typical or most gratifying products or results which you wish recorded among your services to productive scholarship, learning, or business or social progress that the people of Wisconsin ought to understand and remember."

Another question is: "State in what respects, if at all, each of your courses is different from what it would be if given in an eastern privately supported institution, that is, in what respects it is modified as a result of your analysis of Wisconsin's social, industrial and educational conditions and needs or your study of the students who are in your classes."

MAKING THE MOVIES EDUCATE

Visual instruction, carried on by the University of Wisconsin extension division for several years in embryonic form, has become so important as to warrant the creation of a special bureau for the promotion of this work. William H. Dudley, formerly of the department of biology in the State Normal School at Plattsville, Wis., heads the bureau.

Under Mr. Dudley's charge will be the formation of various kinds of exhibits of an educational nature running all the way from ornithology to social center development.

"This department," states Mr. Dudley, "has been established for two purposes: to make a thorough and systematic study of all the various materials that may legitimately be employed in illustrative teaching, or in instruction through the medium of the eye; and to devise and organize plans for placing such illustrative material within easy and constant reach of all the schools and other social organizations of the state."

The division emphasizes particularly the vast educational possibilities of the motion picture. It believes that this should be brought into regular use in all departments of school work from the grades to the university.

To that end immediate steps will be taken to provide a library of educational films to lend to schools and social centers throughout the state wherever provision in the way of machines, etc., is made for the profitable use of them.

THE SOCIAL CENTER IN ST. LOUIS

A three years' movement to secure the free use of public school buildings outside of school hours in St. Louis has just been won and the social center will soon be a reality.

In the past no association could use a school-room outside of school hours without the payment of a fee. Under the new rules of the Board of Education school-rooms may be used for all civic, recreation and educational purposes at any time of the year without any charge whatever. Fees will be charged only for use of school-rooms or auditoriums for amusements, entertainment or "social recreation," which means dancing. The school-yards, shower-baths and play-rooms may also be used free.

Plans are now being made for the complete organization of this new use of the schools by neighborhood groups. It is expected that the Board of Education will employ a supervisor to study the different types of use needed in different parts of the city and to stimulate neighborhood organizations to take advantage of the new rules.

PROGRESS IN COMPULSORY EDUCATION

Although six states—South Carolina, Georgia, Florida, Alabama, Mississippi and Texas—are still without compulsory school attendance laws, and four others—Maryland, Virginia, Arkansas and Louisiana—have county local option in the matter, there has been progress during the past decade. Since 1905 eight states have adopted such laws.

Meanwhile the old arguments against this "encroachment upon individual liberty" go merrily on. A knight errant of one of the still "black" states, who signs himself B. F. Harris, writes these sentences among others to the *Dallas Morning News*:

"I am opposed to any form of compulsory school law, for I believe I have the God-given right to enjoy the privacy and sacredness of my home and select the books, teachers and schools for my children, and so strong is my belief that I have this right that I sold



FUTURE CITIZENS OF LACKAWANNA, N. Y.

Eight adjoining houses, furnished by the Lackawanna Steel plant and provided with heat and a caretaker by the Board of Education, serve the citizens of this community of 16,000 as a social center. Dancing and cooking teachers and club leaders are furnished also by the steel plant. Mothers' meetings are held in the rooms at night.

a little home back in the sunny hills of Tennessee and became an exile for liberty's sake, and I thank God and the signers of the Declaration of Independence that I have found here what I want, and I am enjoying it immensely.

"If a compulsory school law were passed in Texas what would the majority of the tenants do when cotton-chopping time and the picking season arrived? . . . They would have to pay out a good portion of the crop to get it picked, when the children ought to be at home where they would be worth so much to the home. . . .

"I am educating my children at home. I know their wants and needs better than any state or individual. They are advancing in their studies as rapidly as many children are in the free schools. I know how to teach them and I am going to have my own way and theirs about it. I love liberty."

MEDICAL INSPECTION

Of 1,300 school superintendents in cities between 2,500 and 30,000 population, replying to a questionnaire submitted by the United States Bureau of Education, only 516 report medical inspection. Of these, only 86 employ a school nurse.

ADULT ILLITERACY

Nothing less than the elimination of adult illiteracy in the United States is the object of a bill now before the federal House of Representatives. The measure, which is only twenty-five lines long, calls upon the commissioner of education to "investigate the methods that have been and are now used in any part of the United States and in foreign countries in teaching illiterate men and women to read and write."

It further calls upon him to "devise efficient and economic methods for teaching adult illiterates and men and women of meager education, both native and foreign," and to "promote plans for the elimination of illiteracy and the extension of education among the adult population, and co-operate with state, county, district and municipal education

officers and others in putting these plans into operation."

Amounts from \$15,000 to \$22,500 are to be appropriated annually till 1925 to carry out the provisions of the bill.

SOCIAL WORK EXPLAINED TO TEACHERS

Arrangements have been made by Martin G. Brumbaugh, superintendent of schools in Philadelphia, to give social workers of that city an opportunity to present their problems to present and prospective teachers. On June 8 and 9 the graduating class of the Girls' Normal School was addressed by Mildred H. Lane, acting secretary of the Consumers' League; Henry J. Gideon, chief of the Bureau of Compulsory Education; Bernard J. Newman, secretary of the Housing Commission and Paul N. Furman, secretary of the Pennsylvania Child Labor Association.

Efforts are being made to have a similar series of talks before the School of Pedagogy, where young men are studying to be teachers. The talks, it is expected, will be continued next fall, and will be extended to include public school teachers.

SCHOOL CHILDREN IN BOSTON

The number of Boston children, between fourteen and sixteen years of age, attending school is at least 20 per cent greater than has been heretofore estimated, according to a study recently made by Supt. F. B. Dyer of that city. On January 1, 1914, there were in Boston public schools 13,509 children of that age; in Catholic and all other parochial schools, 1,705; in other schools, 1,278. This made a total of 16,492, or 70.4 per cent of the estimated total number in the city.

Superintendent Dyer's study indicates also that the new child labor law did not augment the number of children on the street as much as has been declared. A canvass of employers showed that the law threw out of employment 890 children. At the same time there has been an abnormal increase in school attendance this year of 801 children between fourteen and sixteen years.

Ideals of Life and Living

By a Little Italian Girl
and an Immigrant Greek



"What kind of a home I would like to have," was the text set for compositions in one of the classes in English at Hull House. Among the papers turned in were these given below.



By an IMMIGRANT GREEK

IF I had money enough (a few thousand dollars would be sufficient) I would go to a farm somewhere in the United States and I would stay there for a year to learn farming. Then I would go directly to my native country.

When I should go there I would make some repairs on my old house in order to make it more comfortable, then I would buy more land, connect it with that I have already and make a big farm. Then I would have some people work at it, and I would teach them to treat the land like American people do.

Early in the morning I would mount my best horse and accompanied by my two favorite dogs I would go to the farm, wish good morning to the people, give advice if needed, say something about this or that, and I would go and have a look at the cattle. After that I would go to the nearest town on business, on route I would shoot a few hares or rabbits if by chance they would be discovered by my dogs.

On Sundays and holidays in winter time after church I would invite some other people to my house, I would ask them to sit down around my ready table. At that time the little lambs would be pulled off from the oven and everybody would start to eat and drink. After we would start to sing and dance, while we could see the large flakes of falling snow through the windows and hear the merry sound of the burning woods.

In spring and summer time I would once in a while go on the mountains, then I would

climb on the top of a landscape [mountain peak]. There I would stay for hours looking at the splendid panoram which would lay before my eyes, smell the delicious odors of the gay flowers and breathe deeply the pure breeze of the mountains. After I would come down again and if I was tired I would sit down under the shade of an old tree at the edge of the little river, and while my horse would peck here and there some mouthfuls of fresh grass, and my dogs would lay down looking at me, I would enjoy the joyful and happy singing of the birds. This is only part of my ideal home and ideal life and that is what I am always dreaming. May God let the dream be a reality.

By CARMELLA GUSTAFERRE

I SHOULD like to have a nice looking house with a garden like I had it at my old home in Italy. I would like to have a nice educated house and I like to have all the things that I have not got in my house. I would like to have a piano, a parlor and a room full of flowers. I would like to have a empty room in my house so that I could fix it into a stage so that my friends and I could have acting. We have made customs all ready, we played once and all our friends came to see it so that we made fifty cents and we were happy after that. I would like to have a back yard with a swing in it and a sink, and a large tree with branches that I would seat on the bench and read in the summer.

Personals

IT is the social work done in the larger cities that has in the past chiefly attracted attention; but more and more it has come to be realized that not only New York, Chicago, and San Francisco have their social problems, but that the smaller cities and communities of the country present a field no less important.

It has come to be recognized, too, that the best social workers, as well as the best lawyers, not infrequently come from the smaller communities.

The twentieth anniversary of Whittier House in Jersey City calls attention to the fact that not only is Jersey City the home of one of the most important of the settlement houses, but Whittier House is also one of the oldest.

When Cornelia F. Bradford began her work in the First Ward of Jersey City she was better equipped in training and in spirit than in material goods for the work which she was to do. The material equipment consisted of a guarantee of a year's rent, three articles of furniture, and a ten dollar bill. Today Whittier House has two large buildings, well equipped for their work and free from debt.

Although Jersey City was an entirely new field, Miss Bradford had prepared herself for social work by living in the East End of London, and by some months spent at Hull House; but, chiefly, her equipment consisted of a dauntless spirit, common sense, sympathy, and an insight into the needs and the latent powers of the people about her.

Her work has been chiefly in two directions, the one creating organizations or working with those already in existence that were necessary as part of the social machinery. Miss Bradford has been always a co-operator; a member of various state boards; an influential factor in preparing and passing needed legislation; and for several years the only woman member of the Jersey City Board of Education.

A huge map at the rear of the room on the occasion of the testimonial dinner given recently to Miss Bradford showed the now flourishing organizations which had grown out of the little work that had begun twenty years before; and perhaps the most important result of the work at Whittier House, although it can never lend itself to measurement or calculation, is the power which its headworker has to a great degree—that power which every social worker must have to some degree in order to achieve the finest results. It is a kind of clairvoyancy which makes the possessor see through the rags and dirt, just as through the frippery and fashion, and get a glimpse of the fine life that the rags or fashion hides.

There is real democracy at Whittier House; and there is, too, real efficient service. One of the young men who



CORNELIA F. BRADFORD
Founder and for 20 years headworker
of Whittier House, Jersey City

spoke of. Whittier House called it his Alma Mater; and those who heard him recognized that he had not only graduated into a successful business life but he had been helped into a real social relationship to the people of his city.

It would be impossible for settlements to have graduations. Perhaps no one ever succeeds in achieving a perfect social relationship; but it is work towards a better relationship that is distinctly the settlement's function, for it must regard the people of its neighborhood not only as the objects of philanthropy and social service, but also as a source from which fine social and civic work can come.



ALLEN T. BURNS
Who is to be director of the Cleveland
social survey

The duty of changing and improving a neighborhood belongs to those living in it more than it belongs to anyone else, and the best and finest way to change a neighborhood is to set the people who compose it working towards that end.

But the neighborhood is not only a charge upon the citizens who compose it, but also on the entire community; and this lesson Miss Bradford, too, has taught. Jersey City used to be ashamed of its First Ward without recognizing that the bad sewerage and the bad houses were the result of bad citizenship throughout the entire city; and if Jersey City has not learned this lesson in all its completeness, like all the other cities of the United States, it is beginning to realize it; and it is such social workers as Miss Bradford who have brought to light the situation and helped to find the remedies. It is no wonder that her city and her state are proud of her.

The great dinner given to Miss Bradford on the twentieth anniversary was therefore an occasion of real importance. The governor of the state, the mayor of the city, and other officials were present; and it was possible to note the effect which social work had had on political life.

The atmosphere of a testimonial dinner is often much like that of a funeral, but on this occasion the sense of a good work done was secondary to the sense of the fine things that were yet to be accomplished.

A fund has been created, to be known as the Cornelia F. Bradford Endowment; and Miss Bradford's girls and boys, and the city in which she works, have been so deeply touched by the power of her purposes, that there was during the evening chiefly a sense of the fine things yet to be.

JOHN L. ELLIOTT.

ALLEN T. BURNS, for five years secretary of the Pittsburgh Civic Commission, is to be the director of the Cleveland social survey. Made under the auspices of a committee of five representative citizens, financed by the Cleveland Foundation and planned as a five-year job, the Cleveland survey promises to be the most ambitious and thorough social stock-taking yet attempted.

Mr. Burns will begin his work in the fall, making first a brief preliminary study of general conditions with a view to deciding the main lines of investigation to be followed later.

When in 1909 Mr. Burns went to Pittsburgh as secretary of the Civic Commission, he carried with him experience in industrial Y. M. C. A. work in Chicago and as assistant warden of Chicago Commons. In five years he has made his influence felt in a score of fields of social, civic and political activity in western Pennsylvania.

The commission early laid the elements of a city plan before Pittsburgh in a comprehensive report of thoroughfares by Frederick Law Olmsted; and enlisted the city administration in commissioning Bion J. Arnold in making an intensive study of traction develop-

ment. It has co-operated in movements for revolutionizing the tax system, for a new charter, for budgetary and administrative efficiency in the municipal departments, for adequate housing laws and health code.

During the past year, as secretary of the Progressive Club, Mr. Burns has been active in directing political movements toward bringing these new agencies of government into the hands of the people. Through the Hungry Club, and other centers of acquaintance and discussion, he has been among the foremost of the younger men who have made the open discussion of public affairs a quickening leaven in Pittsburgh's municipal life.

BESSIE A. McCLENAHAN has resigned as assistant secretary of the Associated Charities of Des Moines, Iowa, to accept a place with the State University at Iowa City. She is to be connected with the social service work of the Extension Division.

Miss McClenahan, who is a graduate of Drake University and the New York School of Philanthropy, has been with the Des Moines Associated Charities for about five years following one year with the Cleveland Associated Charities. She was called to Grinnell in 1912 to make the survey of social conditions which resulted in the establishment of the Social Service League, one of the few charity organization societies organically linked with public relief work. In 1913 she was one of the Red Cross workers at Dayton.

DR. THOMAS SPEES CARRINGTON, for five years assistant secretary of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, has resigned. Dr. Carrington's contributions to the tuberculosis campaign were largely in the field of hospital and sanatorium construction, where his work has done much to standardize the types of buildings being used in such institutions. He is the author of *Tuberculosis Hospital and Sanatorium Construction*, and *Fresh Air and How to Use It*. During this summer he will be in Alaska with a sanitary expedition in the interest of the United States Department of Education.

ON July 1, Dr. C. Irving Fisher, for twenty-three years superintendent of the Presbyterian Hospital, New York city, retired from active service.

Dr. Fisher is a graduate of Harvard Medical School, of the class of '70. He was connected with the quarantine department of the city of Boston as assistant and as port physician until 1875. Eight years of private practice followed; then eight years as superintendent of the State Infirmary at Tewksbury.

Dr. Fisher has remained loyal to his New England affiliations, being a member of the Massachusetts Medical Society since 1872, and a counselor of the same society since 1891. He has written on hospital administration.

His successor is Dr. C. H. Young, former assistant superintendent at the Presbyterian Hospital.



THE LADY UMPIRE OF CHARITY BASEBALL

JESSAMINE S. WHITNEY, field secretary of the tuberculosis forces in Georgia, was official umpire in the ball games played at Memphis during the National Conference of Charities and Correction. The Philadelphia "Morons," mostly executives of social agencies, beat both the All-Southerners and the Memphis Giants, including Jimmy Kranz and two of his socialized policemen. The large figure in the foreground is Pat Witherbee, captain and pitcher of the Morons. Photo by Flanagan, M.D., of the Virginia Board of Health.

THE New Jersey Housing Association has engaged W. Lane Shannon to become its executive secretary beginning August 1. Mr. Shannon is a graduate of the University of Pennsylvania and of the Philadelphia Training School for Social Work.



W. LANE SHANNON
Executive secretary New Jersey Housing Association

He entered social work in 1912 as an inspector, later became chief inspector and assistant secretary, of the Philadelphia Housing Commission. His work as executive secretary of the New Jersey Housing Association follows a year's service on its board of directors. The association plans an energetic campaign through surveys of conditions, illustrated lectures and the organization of local committees.

ALEXANDER FLEISCHER, formerly assistant secretary of the Public Charities Association of Pennsylvania, has resigned that position to accept one with Lee K. Frankel in the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company in New York city. His work will be in the department of public health.

Mr. Fleischer was associated with the Public Charities Association from its inception in 1912, and did effective work as its representative at the last session of the Pennsylvania state legislature in aid of progressive social legislation. Some of the more important accomplishments of the session were the appropriations for establishing the State Village for Feeble-minded Women of Child-Bearing Age, the Woman's Reformatory, and the Inebriate Colony.

ON June 1, John R. Howard, Jr., assumed the duties of superintendent of the New York Orthopaedic Dispensary and Hospital at White Plains. Mr. Howard entered social work as headworker of Welcome Hall Settlement in Buffalo after leaving Harvard in 1904. While in Buffalo he was conspicuous in many community movements, one of the growing list of social workers who have carried into their own careers the spirit and influence of Frederic Almy.

In 1909, Mr. Howard became general secretary of the Starr Center in Philadelphia, leaving in 1910 to become the general secretary of the Thomas Thompson Trust in Boston. In this capacity he had a wide experience, particularly with the problems of the small community. During this time the Thomas Thompson Trust has made some significant contributions to social work especially in the field of sickness. Mr. Howard conducted the standard of living study in Buffalo in 1907-8, the results of which were later incorporated in Chapin's volume on *Standard of Living*, published by the Russell Sage Foundation.

ROBERT C. POWELL has been appointed executive secretary of the Maryland Association for the Prevention and Relief of Tuberculosis, succeeding H. Wirt Steele. Mr. Powell is a newcomer in social work. After his graduation from Amherst, he was engaged for several years in the advertising business. Last fall he entered the tuberculosis field, working with the New York City Committee on the Prevention of Tuberculosis in the management of their Red Cross seal sale.

JOTTINGS

JOHN'S WIFE

At the last New York City Conference of Charities, Bolton Hall told a story to illustrate a single-taxer's idea of how charity workers find work for the unemployed—by taking a job away from one man and giving it to another.

The story was of a boy, a little wild, whose father said to him:

"John, it is time you were settling down and taking a wife."

"Why so it is, father," answered John. "Whose wife shall I take?"

RECENT PAMPHLETS

Co-operative Credit: a Selected Bibliography. Bulletin No. 5 of the Russell Sage Foundation Library, New York city.

List of books for Township Libraries in the state of Wisconsin. By C. P. Cary, state superintendent of public instruction, Madison, Wis.

The Real Snag in Social Center Extension. By Clarence Arthur Perry. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, New York city. Price 5 cents.

Proceedings Fourth International Congress on School Hygiene, Buffalo, 1913. Price \$6. May be secured by addressing Thomas A. Story, secretary, College of the City of New York.

Sources of Information on Recreation by Lee F. Hanmer and Howard R. Knight. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22d Street, New York. Price 10 cents.

Eugenics and Social Welfare, a bibliography of eugenics and related subjects compiled by the Bureau of Analysis and Investigation of the State Board of Charities, the Capitol, Albany, N. Y.

The Family and Marriage, an analytical reference syllabus, by George Elliott Howard, professor of political science and sociology. Published by the University of Nebraska, Lincoln. Price 75 cents.

The Commission Plan and Commission-manager Plan of Municipal Government; an analytical study by a Committee of the National Municipal League, North American Building, Philadelphia. Five cents a copy; \$15 a thousand.

A Guide and Index to Plays, Festivals and Masques, for use in schools, clubs and neighborhood centers. Compiled by Katharine Lord, Alice Minnie Herts Heniger and Howard Broadstreet for the Arts and Festivals Committee of the Association of Neighborhood Workers. Published by Harper & Brothers, New York city.

A List of Private and Semi-private Agencies Providing Summer Recreation or Instruction for Children of School Age within New York city, with intro-

duction and summary. Prepared by Mabel Parker Huddleston, chairman, Committee on Education of the Association of

Collegiate Alumnae. Price 10 cents of Mrs. J. H. Huddleston, 145 West 78th street, New York city.

Calendar of Conferences

JULY AND AUGUST CONFERENCES

HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION, American. St. Paul, Minn., August 25-28. Sec'y, Dr. H. A. Boyce, Kingston General Hospital, Kingston, Ontario.

RURAL LIFE CONFERENCE. Iowa State College, Ames, Ia., July 7-19. Further information may be secured by addressing Dean Charles F. Curtiss, Ames, Ia.

TOWN PLANNING. Summer School of. University of London, August 1-15, 1914. Joint Sec'y, J. S. Rathbone, Fitzalan House, Church End, Finchley, London, N.

LATER MEETINGS

INTERNATIONAL

CHILDREN'S WELFARE. International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstratt 106, Amsterdam, Holland.

CHRISTIAN CITIZENSHIP CONFERENCE, Third World's. First week in July, 1916. Sec'y, Rev. T. D. Edgar, Wilkinsburg, Pa.

DISEASES OF OCCUPATION, Third International Congress on. Vienna, September 21-26, 1914. Sec'y, Dr. Alice Hamilton, Hull House, Chicago.

EUGENICS CONGRESS, International. New York City. About September 30, 1915.

HOME EDUCATION. Fourth International Congress on. Philadelphia, Pa. September 22-29. Gen. Sec'y, Mrs. J. Scott Anderson, Torredale, Phila., Pa.

LABOR LEGISLATION, International Association for. Berne, Switzerland, September 15-17. American Sec'y, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23d Street, New York.

PRISON CONGRESS. Quinquennial. London, England, July 26, 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

SOCIAL WORK AND SERVICE, International Congress on. State, Municipal and Voluntary. University of London, South Kensington, May 30-June 5, 1915. Acting Sec'y, D. R. Sharpe, Denison House, Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S. W.

UNEMPLOYMENT. International Association on. Paris, September 15-19. American Sec'y, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23d Street, New York.

NATIONAL

AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCATION OF AMERICAN BANKERS' ASSOCIATION. Committee off. Fourth Annual Conference. Chicago, September, 1914. Sec'y, B. F. Harris, Champaign, Ill.

CATHOLIC CHARITIES, National Conference of. Washington, D. C., September 20-23. Sec'y, Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

CATHOLIC FRATERNAL INSURANCE SOCIETIES, Conference of. Held in conjunction with American Federation of Catholic Societies.

CATHOLIC SOCIAL REFORM MOVEMENT, Conference of. Held in conjunction with American Federation of Catholic Societies.

CATHOLIC SOCIETIES, American Federation of. Baltimore, Md., September 27-30,

1914. Sec'y, Peter E. Dietz, 43 University Bldg., Milwaukee, Wis.

CONSUMERS' LEAGUE, National. Fifteenth Annual Meeting. Washington, D. C., December 10-11, 1914. Gen. Sec'y, Mrs. Florence Kelley, 106 E. 19th Street, New York.

CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY, American Institute of. Washington, D. C., October 20-23. Sec'y, Henry Winthrop Ballantine, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

HOUSING ASSOCIATION, National. Minneapolis, Minn., October 21-23, 1914. Sec'y, Lawrence Veiller, 105 East 23rd Street, New York.

HUMANE ASSOCIATION, American, Atlantic City, N. J., October 5-8. Sec'y, Nathaniel J. Walker, Albany, N. Y.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, National Society for the Promotion of. Richmond, Va., week beginning December 7, 1914. Sec'y, C. A. Prosser, 140 West 42nd Street, New York City.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY, National Council for. Chicago, October 20-23. Sec'y, W. H. Cameron, c/o Continental and Commercial National Bank, Chicago.

INFANT MORTALITY, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fifth Annual Meeting. Boston, Mass., November 12-14, 1914. Exec. Sec'y, Miss Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

JEWISH WOMEN, Council of. Seventh Triennial. New Orleans, La., December, 1914. Exec. Sec'y, Miss Sadie American, 448 Central Park West, New York.

MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENT, American Society of. Boston, Mass., October 6-9. Sec'y, Charles C. Brown, Wulsin Building, Indianapolis, Ind.

MUNICIPAL LEAGUE, National. Baltimore, Md., November 17-21, 1914. Sec'y, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, North American Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.

PRISON ASSOCIATION, American. St. Paul, Minn., October 3-8. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION, American. Jacksonville, Fla. November 30 to December 5, 1914. Sec'y, Prof. S. M. Gunn, 755 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

WORKERS FOR THE BLIND, American Association of. San Francisco, Cal., 1915. Sec'y, Charles F. F. Campbell, 911 Franklin Avenue, Columbus, O.

STATE AND LOCAL

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Canadian Conference of. Fifteenth Annual Meeting. Toronto, September 16-18. Gen. Sec'y, Arthur H. Burnett, City Hall, Toronto.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Indiana State Conference of. Madison, Ind., October 17-20, 1914. Sec'y, A. W. Butler, 93 State House, Indianapolis, Ind.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Iowa State Conference of. Fort Dodge, Ia., Novem-

ber 17-19. Sec'y, P. S. Pierce, State University, Iowa City, Ia.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Maine State Conference of. Eighth annual meeting. Bangor, Me., October 20-21, 1914. Sec'y, James F. Bagley, Augusta, Me.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Maryland State Conference of. Easton, Md., November, 1914. Sec'y, Wm. H. Davenport, 514 Garrett Bldg., Baltimore, Md.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Minnesota State Conference of. Bemidji, Minn., September 26-29, 1914. Sec'y, Otto W. Davis, Civic & Commerce Ass'n, Minneapolis, Minn.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Missouri State Conference of. Springfield, Mo., November 1-3, 1914. Sec'y, Oscar Leonard, 901 Carr Street, St. Louis, Mo.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, New York State Conference of. Utica, N. Y., November 17-19. Sec'y, R. W. Wallace, Box 17, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Ohio State Conference of. 24th annual conference. Columbus, O., October 21-23, 1914. Sec'y, H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Building, Columbus, O.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Pennsylvania State Conference of. Harrisburg, Pa., November 17-19. Sec'y, James Struthers Heberling, Redington, Pa.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Texas State Conference of. San Antonio, Texas, November 15-17, 1914. Sec'y, R. J. Newton, State Capitol, Austin, Texas.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Virginia State Conference of. Bristol, Va., Fall of 1914. Sec'y, Joseph T. Mastin, State Board of Charities and Corrections, Richmond, Va.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Wisconsin State Conference of. Racine, Wis., September 29-October 2. Sec'y, J. L. Gillin, Madison, Wis.

CHARITIES, Massachusetts State Conference of. Boston, Mass., November 10-12. Sec'y, Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont Street, Boston, Mass.

EXHIBITIONS

INTERNATIONAL

CIVIC EXHIBITION, Linenhall Buildings, Dublin, Ireland, July-August, 1914.

GERMAN ARTISANS' EXPOSITION. Cologne, May-October, 1914.

HYGIENE, Exposition of. Stuttgart, Germany. Middle of May to end of October, 1914.

PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION. San Francisco, Cal., February 20-December 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Alvin E. Pope, San Francisco, Cal.

PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION, San Diego, Cal., January 1-December 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego, Cal.

URBAN EXPOSITION, International. Lyons, France, May 1-November 1, 1914. General Director, Dr. Jules Courmont, Hotel de Ville, Lyons, France.

NATIONAL

SOUTHERN HEALTH EXHIBITION, with American Public Health Association convention, Jacksonville, Fla., November 30 to December 5.

STATE AND LOCAL

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION, Grand Central Palace, New York city. September 5-26. Information may be secured by addressing F. J. Oppenheimer, 500 Fifth Avenue, New York.

INFORMATION DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but membership is not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. *Always enclose postage for reply.*

Children

CHILD LABOR—National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

CHILD HELPING—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence, printed matter and counsel relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS—National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth ave., New York. Charles F. Powlson, Gen. Sec'y, Anna Louise Strong, Director of Exhibits. Bulletins covering Results, Organization, Cost, Construction, etc., of Child Welfare Exhibits. Will assist cities in organization and direction. Exhibit material to loan.

CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE—American Assoc. for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request. Traveling Exhibit. Urges prenatal instruction; adequate obstetrical care; birth registration; maternal nursing; infant welfare consultations.

Health

SCHOOL HYGIENE—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., Dr. Henry M. Bracken, Chairman State Board of Health, St. Paul, Minn. Sec'y, Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York. Yearly congresses and proceedings.

MENTAL HYGIENE—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City. Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

PUBLIC HEALTH—American Public Health Association. Pres., Wm. C. Woodward, Washington; Sec'y, S. M. Gunn, Boston. Founded for the purpose of advancing the cause of public health and prevention of disease. Five sections: Laboratory, Vital Statistics, Municipal Health Officers, Sanitary Engineering and Sociological. Official organ American Journal of Public Health, \$3.00 a year, published monthly. 3 months' subscription, 50 cents. Address 755 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

SEX HYGIENE—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, Tilden Bldg., 105 W. 40th St., New York. H. P. DeForest, Sec'y. 22 affiliated societies. Report and leaflets free. Educational pamphlets, 10c each. *Journal of Social Diseases*, \$1 per year. Membership, annual dues \$2, includes all literature.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Object: to stimulate the extension of public health nursing; to develop standards of technique; to maintain a central bureau of information. Publications: Pub. Health Nursing Quarterly, \$1.00 per year, and bulletins. Address Ella Phillips Crandall, R. N. Exec. Sec., 54 East 34th St., New York City.

LIFE EXTENSION INSTITUTE, Inc., E. E. Rittenhouse, Pres. Gives life extension service to subscribers. Service No. 1 \$3.00 a year; Service No. 2 \$5.00 a year. Consists of periodic health examinations, inspection service, and health bulletins on disease prevention. Head office 25 West 45th St., New York City. Phone—Bryant 1907—1908.

NATIONAL HEALTH—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Exec. Sec., Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

TUBERCULOSIS—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Livingston Farrand, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

SOCIAL HYGIENE—The American Social Hygiene Association (Inc.), 105 W. 40th St., New York. Division Offices: Chicago, 1632 McCormick Building; San Francisco, Examiner Building. Full information on request. Individual and society membership. The Association is organized to promote sound sex education, the reduction of venereal diseases and the suppression of commercialized vice. Executives, James B. Reynolds, Counsel: William F. Snow, M.D., General Secretary.

CANCER—American Society for the Control of Cancer, 289 Fourth Ave., New York City. Curtis E. Lakeman, Exec. Sec'y. To disseminate knowledge concerning symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publications free on request. Annual membership dues \$5.

Employment Exchange

SOCIAL WORKERS' EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE—The Department for Social Workers of the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations registers properly qualified men and women for positions in social, religious and civic work. The needs of organizations seeking workers are given careful and prompt attention. Emma P. Hirth, Manager, 130 East 22d Street, New York City.

Libraries

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION—Furnishes information about organizing libraries, planning library buildings, training librarians, cataloging libraries, etc. *A. L. A. Booklist*, a monthly annotated magazine on book selection, is a valuable guide to the best new books. List of publications on request. George B. Utley, Executive Secretary, 78 E. Washington St., Chicago.

Aid for Travelers

AID FOR TRAVELERS—The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex. For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Sec'y, 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

Remedial Loans

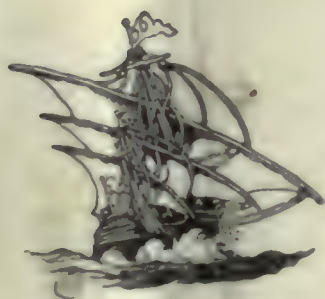
REMEDIAL LOANS—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 130 E. 22nd St., N. Y. Arthur H. Ham. Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

Recreation

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON RECREATION—A classified list of significant publications on recreation giving publisher, price, and printed description. Cities issuing reports on recreation administration are also included. Price 10 cents. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22nd Street, New York City.

RECREATION—Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y. Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

THE SURVEY

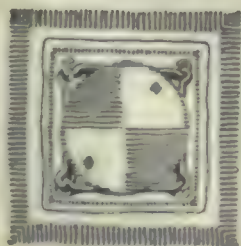


HOW SPAIN HOUSES HER WORKINGMEN

Katharine Coman

CALIFORNIA'S CAMPAIGN AGAINST VICE

Franklin Hichborn



AN ADVENTURE IN
CO-OPERATIVE JOURNALISM



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116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 17

Contents

July 25, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

\$200,000 FOR INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS WORK	425
FORD'S PLAN OF SMALL FARMS NEAR DETROIT	425
DRIVING THE BEGGARS OUT OF PHILADELPHIA	426
THE PEACEMAKER, William Templeton Johnson	426
MOVING MARSHALSEA OUT OF THE MIDDLE AGES	426
PUTTING A STOP TO BATHING IN SEWAGE	427
WAGES OF WOMEN CLERKS IN OHIO	427
WOMEN BEHIND WINNIPEG'S COUNTERS	428
THE RED CROSS ON THE MEXICAN BORDER	429
CALIFORNIA'S CAMPAIGN AGAINST ENTRENCHED VICE, Franklin Hichborn	430

INDUSTRY

HOW SPAIN PROVIDES FOR THE HOUSING OF HER WAGE- EARNERS	Katherine Coman	431
--	-----------------	-----

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY Edited by Graham Taylor

FOURTEENTH INTERNATIONAL SUNDAY SCHOOL RALLY AT CHICAGO		433
STIR AT THE CENTERS OF THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION		434
COMMUNITY SERVICE AND NEW ENGLAND CHURCHES	William Horton Foster	435
RURAL CHURCH SUNDAY PROCLAIMED		436

BOOK REVIEWS

FINGER PRINTS

TEODORO	Florence Cross Kitchelt	438
THE JOB DOCTOR	Edna M. Bonser	439
WHO IS RESPONSIBLE	Mary Gove Smith	440
THE CHIMNEYS, a Poem	Joseph Warren Beach	440

COMMUNICATIONS		441
--------------------------	--	-----

JOTTINGS		444
--------------------	--	-----

Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents. Changes of address should be mailed to us ten days in advance.

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NEXT WEEK!

The Survey for August 1 will publish an article interpretive of
the Australian

ANTIDOTE FOR STRIKES

Based on an interview with

MR. JUSTICE HIGGINS

President of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration

Several social agencies in New York are having reprints made for propaganda
use. Orders will be filled at the following prices if received by August 8

10 to 250 copies	5 cents each
300 or more copies	4 cents each
500 or more copies	3 cents each
1,000 or more copies	2 cents each

The GIST of IT—

CONGRESS has given the Industrial Relations Commission its full \$200,000, but not without a fight in the Senate. Page 425.

PHILADELPHIA has routed 358 beggars from its streets, most of them old offenders. Two had been arrested 100 times. Page 426.

MARSHALSEA, Pittsburgh's almshouse and insane hospital, has had a spring cleaning to rid it of methods that were out of date in the days of Queen Bess. Page 426.

OHIO'S Industrial Commission has reported on the wages of women in mercantile lines. Half of them get less than \$8.00 a week—women, not young girls. Page 427.

WINNIPEG, in a private report, shows an average of about \$9.00 a week. Women workers here shift even faster than in the East. Those who don't go in for matrimony, go on further West. Page 428.

HUERTA'S flight last week, should it mean the end of fighting on the Texas border, will relieve the Red Cross of the hospital service it has steadily rendered on the side lines. Page 429.

SEWAGE so infects the waters around Manhattan Island that the river baths are now filled with fresh water and salted to taste for the million and half bathers who use them. Page 427.

KING ALFONSO of Spain is, by his own jocular confession, risking a jail term through his high-financing of workingmen's homes. There's ample need, for Madrid is one of the most densely crowded capitals of Europe and has earned the name of "the city of death." Page 431.

SIX thousand men with banners, music and calls, marched through the streets of Chicago in a Sunday school rally. Delegates present represented seventeen million Sunday school pupils and teachers. Page 433.

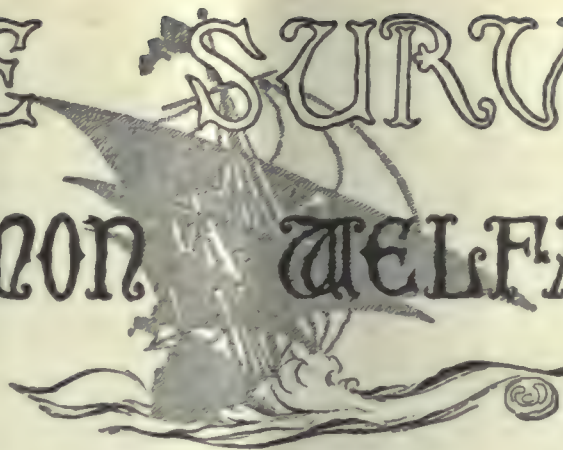
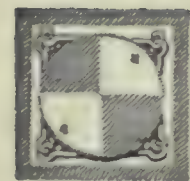
THEOLOGICAL seminaries have been more loyal to history than to prophecy, but the bonds they are entering into with secular colleges promise a development of the humanities along with the divinities. Page 434.

SOCIAL service to the whole community was the keynote at the conference of New England union churches. Page 435.

SOME public service interests and the tenderloin have been in cahoots to head off anti-vice legislation in California. A long fight, in which the decent elements of the state have surely won ground, comes to a pitched battle next election in a referendum invoked to knock out the red light abatement law and keep the town "open" for the world's fair. Page 430.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



\$200,000 FOR INDUSTRIAL RELATIONS WORK

THE FATE of the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations hung by a slender thread for several hours on July 7, while the Senate debated as to whether it would pass the House appropriation of an additional \$200,000 to continue the commission's work.

This commission, SURVEY readers will remember, was created by Congress in August, 1912, through the efforts of social workers and "third parties" interested in the conditions disclosed by the McNamara confessions, to inquire into the causes of industrial unrest and report its conclusions thereon. \$300,000 was to be provided for this work of which the commission has used \$100,000.

The Committee on Appropriations, headed by Senator Martin of Virginia, proposed to cut the remaining appropriation from \$200,000 to \$50,000 which, in view of the wide scope of the commission's program, would have meant practically strangling its activities.

After a lively all day session the original appropriation was passed by a vote of 46 to 18—not, however, before the discussion had provoked some senatorial remarks straight from the shoulder. All in all, the discussion proved a very healthy thing for the commission, and brought out some strong endorsements of its work. Incidentally child labor came in for an airing.

After Senator Kern had pointed it out as remarkable that the only decrease recommended in the sundry civil appropriation bill was the appropriation for the work of this commission, which was dealing "in a very effective way with the labor problem," Senator Borah took a fling at the "spasm of economy" which seized the legislative body whenever it was proposed to investigate "certain conditions in the industrial world and the relationship between labor and capital." He said:

"I know how sensitive some of us are as to the investigation of the conditions of child labor and of the sweatshops and death traps and hell holes in which the lives of the young people of our country are being ground out of existence. I know how thoroughly it stirs the blood

of economy when we begin to 'lift the lid' off of that hole into which we are pouring the young lives of this country year by year."

And to Senator Hoke Smith of Georgia, who strongly favored cutting the appropriation on the ground that the commission's work was unnecessary and a duplication of other investigations, Senator Borah retorted that while he did not wish to indulge in personalities, he nevertheless did not hesitate to say that "for years there has been a powerful influence asserting itself one way and another against the right treatment of the child labor problem in this country, and no one ought to know it better than the senator from Georgia."

In supporting the work of the commission, Senator Kenyon said:

"It is through a spiritual growth and development of the human being that this question will finally be worked out. But at the same time the facts brought before us will enable us, possibly in a philosophy of legislation, to devise some means to help settle this great question that is staring us in the face in this country; that is, of keeping the few from becoming excessively rich while the many are becoming excessively poor."

The Leaden Eyed

[FROM RHYMES TO BE TRADED FOR
BREAD BY NICHOLAS VACHEL
LINDSAY]

LET not young souls be smothered out before
They do quaint deeds and fully flaunt their pride.
It is the world's one crime its babes grow dull,
Its poor are ox-like, limp and leaden eyed.
Not that they starve, but starve so dreamlessly,
Not that they sow, but that they seldom reap,
Not that they serve, but have no Gods to serve,
Not that they die, but that they die like sheep.

FORD'S PLAN OF SMALL FARMS NEAR DETROIT

HENRY FORD, the Detroit automobile manufacturer, having established his \$10,000,000 profit-sharing plan and signed contracts for the Detroit General Hospital to cost \$3,000,000, is now at work on a plan of dividing into small farms to be worked by tenants a large tract of land near his home city.

While in Washington to keep an appointment with President Wilson Mr. Ford gave a representative of THE SURVEY an interview in which he talked of the new hospital which he will not only build but maintain and outlined his farm scheme.

Of the farming project he said:

"In a few words, this is what will be done. I have about 3,000 acres of land near Detroit, 2,000 of which includes good farming land now under cultivation. This will be divided into small farms of fifteen acres. On each farm a family will be established and to the head of the family who runs the farm I shall pay \$1,000 a year and his food supplies which will be raised on the land.

"Besides the food for this family, it is planned to grow on the fifteen acres enough more food for the market to make the whole project pay for itself, \$1,000 salary to the farmer and all. This means, of course, intensive farming under the most approved methods and careful planning all the way."

If Henry Ford can make a success of this problem, agricultural experts who have been taken into his confidence say that he will have taken a long step toward settling the problem of providing an adequate food supply for a rapidly growing population and at the same time giving the food-producers a living income.

Mr. Ford is planning his newest project as carefully as he planned the building of his \$35,000,000 motor car business, with more than 13,000 employes. He is already a good farmer as well as a master machinist. He is not ready to announce all the details of the plan, but that they are practical all who have reason to know his genius for organization are convinced.

DRIVING THE BEGGARS OUT OF PHILADELPHIA

THE PHILADELPHIA Society for Organizing Charity, in close co-operation with the Department of Safety, has been waging war for the past six months on street beggars. For at least thirty-five years Philadelphia has had the unenviable reputation of being a Mecca for beggars, and of having her streets decorated with all kinds of begging cripples.

As a result of this campaign there has been a marked decrease in the number of panhandlers. 358 arrests have been made by the mendicancy squad, and 170 by special district officers and officers from the United States Immigration Department—a total of 528.

Of this number, 273 able-bodied panhandlers, mostly young men, were committed to the House of Correction for terms of from three to six months. Twenty crippled and handicapped beggars were sent to the House of Correction for a similar term. 43 street beggars were sent to the county prison, and 43 others, most of whom were in bad physical condition, were sent to the Philadelphia Hospital and Almshouse.

A great majority of those committed proved to be old-timers and repeaters, with from two to 113 former commitments against them. One had been committed 113 times, one 100 times, one 54 times, one 48 times, and so on down the line.

Twenty-four of the beggars, young men between the ages of 19 and 29 years, proved to be drug fiends. 90 per cent of all blamed their downfall on drink. Many of them have good home connections and friends from whom they have been estranged. The amount of money in their possession varied from 50 cents to \$6, and their average daily income from begging, according to their own statements, was approximately \$1.50 a day.

One man, the "Rev." R. Henry Clayton, a fake collector for the Manasses Industrial School, Virginia, whose book showed that he had received over \$2,000, was sentenced to prison for four years and six months. Twenty-four Assyrians, who were carrying out an extensive begging campaign, were arrested and deported.

One man sent to the House of Correction is an architectural draughtsman of exceptional ability, and was offered a check for \$5,000 and a permanent position at \$100 a week if he would abstain from drink. Another was a salesman, formerly capable of earning \$5,000 a year. Another was a saloonkeeper, who had wasted a fortune of \$56,000 in a few years.

Prior to this campaign if a beggar was sent to the House of Correction he was usually released within a day or two and would be found begging at his

old stand. At present detainers are being placed on the men thus committed, and they are not released without serving their entire time unless the Society for Organizing Charity recommends clemency and has some plan to propose for the man's support.

THE PEACEMAKER

William Templeton Johnson

A FOUR-year-old American boy lived on the top floor of a high-shouldered Paris apartment house.

It was at the time of the last great railroad strike in France. Sabotage was the cry from Bordeaux to Brittany. London trains had ceased to leave the Gare du Nord, for the strikers were in almost complete control, and troops were pouring into Paris to protect the railroad properties.

T—'s father and mother had gone to England for a short time. The child was left with his grandmother who took him out with her to make a visit. They saw soldiers marching through the streets. The old nunnery of St. Sulpice, closed several years ago by the government, was being converted into barracks, beds and supplies carried in, troops arriving and guards mounted at the gates.

To the friend's house a young man came in to call who described how the strike was spreading, how the soldiers were now called upon to move the trains, how the St. Lazare station had been rushed by strikers throwing stones and coal.

T— had been much impressed by what he had seen in the streets, and now sat still taking in every word. That night he was excited, and talked with his nurse about the naughty strikers. Their actions followed him into his dreams. The next day, just after lunch, T— was missed. His nurse and grandmother were frightened, for the door had a spring lock too high for him to reach, and if he had opened a window and fallen from the balcony, it meant death on the pavement below.

JUST then the door bell rang, and there stood T— with trembling lips and tears in his eyes. He had put on his hat and coat, climbed upon a chair to open the door, and dragged his rocking horse, heavier than himself, down a whole flight of curving stone stairs. He had broken the bridle of his horse, and so came back for help. But he was hurrying on his way to do what he could to keep men from throwing stones at each other!

MOVING MARSHALSEA OUT OF THE MIDDLE AGES

THE MOVEMENT to improve the methods of care and treatment of the insane in Pennsylvania, directed by the Committee on Mental Hygiene of the Public Charities Association, has recently expressed itself in a substantial way by bringing about a complete change of management at Marshalsea, the Pittsburgh city almshouse and hospital for the insane.

An investigation of this institution by the Public Charities Association revealed that the medical service was inadequate and inefficient; that two young physicians each receiving \$900 a year were in charge of 702 insane patients; that no attempt was made to keep any sort of case records of the patients, there being sick patients in the hospital department the nature of whose illness no one had any knowledge; that there was no laboratory or department of hydrotherapy; and that absolute authority in all medical matters was placed in the hands of a former Pittsburgh policeman appointed superintendent as a reward for political services.

It was also reported by the agents of the Public Charities Association that the food provided for the inmates was meager and unsatisfactory, both morning and evening meal consisting regularly of a piece of bread, a ladle of molasses, and a cup of coffee; that there was but little provision either for recreation or for profitable employment; that the ancient idea of punishment for the insane prevailed among the employes and an astonishing number of the patients were kept constantly in restraint by the use of hand-muffs, straight-jackets, chains, and other physical devices.

These conditions were called to the attention of the City Council and the mayor of Pittsburgh by James H. Gray, vice-president of the Public Charities Association, Stanley H. Howe, educational secretary, and Rabbi Rudolph I. Coffee, chairman of the sub-committee on the insane.

Resolutions were adopted by the Allegheny county branch of the association consisting of sixty prominent local citizens urging the passage of an ordinance by the City Council providing for an adequate appropriation to secure the services of a qualified alienist as superintendent at Marshalsea. The official visiting alienists to Marshalsea joined in urging the passage of such an ordinance. On June 9 an ordinance establishing a position of medical superintendent at Marshalsea was passed by the Council.

For the new position, the visiting alienists to Marshalsea recommended Dr. C. R. McKinniss, chief physician of the department for men at the State Hospital for the Insane at Norristown, Pa. Dr. McKinniss will take charge early in August.

PUTTING A STOP TO BATHING IN SEWAGE

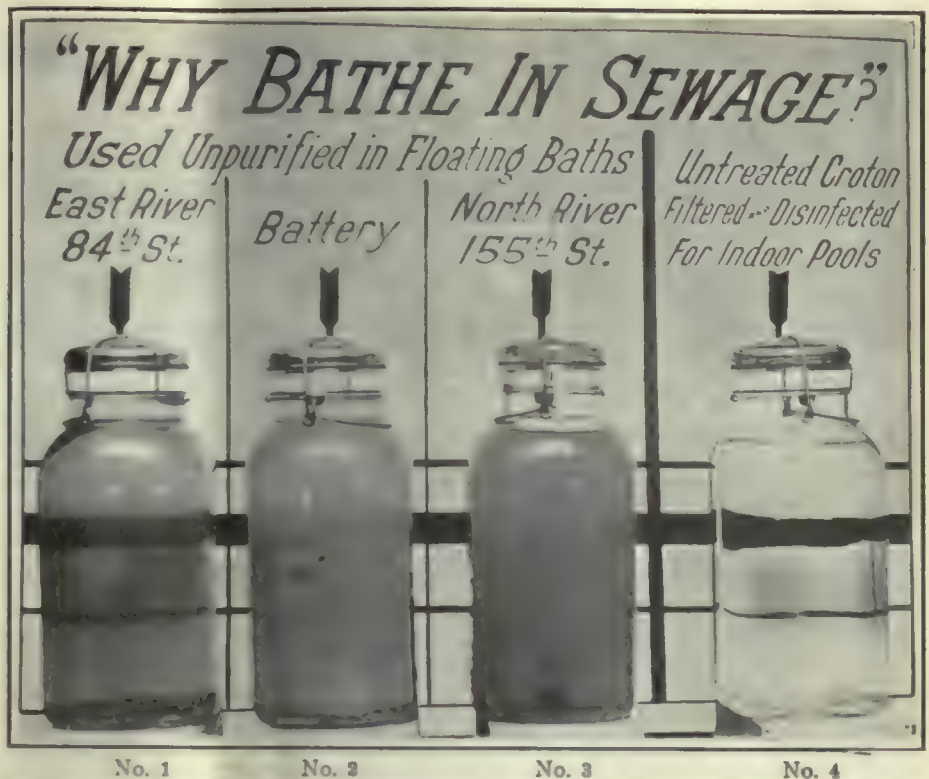
IN MANY quarters the stand against New York city's encouragement of bathing in polluted river waters has been crystallizing. The last of March an order was issued by Commissioner Goldwater, of the Health Department, forbidding the use of the floating baths within a danger zone bounded by the Narrows, the waters of the Hudson and Harlem, and East River below the Bronx Kills.

Immediately the owners of private river baths, entrenched behind city permits and leases, raised a hue and cry. In deference to their protests a hearing was held by the Health Department.

Following this, the order of the Health Department was somewhat modified. An amendment to the sanitary code granted permission to continue river bathing, public and private, provided that the hitherto more or less complete enclosures of river or harbor waters be made entirely water tight; that no river or harbor water be used unless purified; that persons suffering from communicable diseases be excluded and that all bathers be required to use a shower bath before entering a pool.

In order that the million and a half bathers who enjoyed river bathing in the floating baths last summer may not be deprived, the Bureau of Public Buildings and Offices of the Department of Public Works, at the request of the borough president, has arranged to remodel six of the public floating baths so that they will be water-tight. Into these Croton water will be introduced. Salt may be added.

One hundred and twenty-seven sewers empty into the Harlem and East Rivers, and sixty-two empty into the



Jars of water taken in April by the Bureau of Public Health and Hygiene of the A. I. C. P. from the rivers around Manhattan Island, near floating baths. The ease with which the black band can be seen shows the clearness of the water. The water in numbers one, two and three contains 1,500,000 bacteria per pint and 500,000 intestinal types per pint. That in number four, which has been treated, contains 5,000 bacteria per pint and no intestinal types.

Hudson from Manhattan alone. Chemical and bacteriological examinations have repeatedly shown the water to be highly polluted. The 500,000,000 gallons of sewage daily discharged into the waters surrounding Manhattan face the further unhappy prospect of some 150,000,000 gallons of the Passaic Valley sewage from New Jersey soon to be added daily to the waters of New York.

WAGES OF WOMEN CLERKS IN OHIO

OHIO is squarely confronted with a problem in industrial ethics. It is this. Are her women at work in mercantile establishments paid a living wage? Yesterday the problem was vague, theoretical. Today, it is personal, concrete. Yesterday the sums these women received were a matter of conjecture. Today the facts are before the whole state.

Ohio knows, for instance, that out of every twenty women in mercantile occupations, sixteen get not more than \$10 a week; fourteen less than \$10; twelve not more than \$8; ten less than \$8; seven not more than \$6; and four less than \$6.

Can a woman live on less than \$8 a week? The question is open to debate, a debate nevertheless, that is worth waging to the finish when the welfare of half the women in this service to the public is at stake. Can she live on \$6? Or less than \$6? The grounds for debate are dwindling; but the welfare of a fifth of the workers, all of them over eighteen years of age, is still at stake.

This is the problem arising from facts gleaned by the Industrial Commission of Ohio. This commission was created by an act of the last Legislature which felt the desirability of knowing the wages paid female employees prior to consider-



FLOATING BATH (WOMEN'S) BATTERY PARK

The condition of this water is precisely similar to that shown in jar number two.

ing any minimum wage legislation, authority for the enactment of which was granted by one of the late constitutional amendments. A total of 1,086 establishments, employing 15,744 women and girls, submitted answers to the commission's questionnaire seeking the wages and hours of employment of women.

The study covers only weekly wages, not earnings. Some employers pay in addition to the wage a bonus which may be based upon the character of goods sold, or only on the portion of the sales exceeding a stated amount. In some stores, heads of departments receive the premiums and in others the saleswomen. These were not taken into account in the commission's study as a statistical statement could not adapt itself to the rather indefinite variations, and because it was thought that the wage statistics furnished a better clue to the situation of the employe.

Several interesting situations are revealed by the inquiry. One is a remarkable concentration on certain rates of pay measured for adults in even dollars, and in half dollars for those below the age of eighteen. Seventy per cent of the older women fall into eight rates, beginning with \$4 which is paid to 3.6 per cent of the total, and ranging upward a dollar a rate to \$12, received by 5.4 per cent. Eighty-one per cent of those under eighteen fall into seven rates, the lowest being \$2.50, the wage of 7 per cent, and going up fifty cents a rate to \$6 received by 6.9 per cent.

The variations in wages paid in different cities and towns of the state are not prominent. Ten dollars a week appearing as one of the four leading rates in Cincinnati, Cleveland, and Columbus, and not appearing in the other cities and groups of towns, hints that the higher cost of living in large cities may have some influence on wages. Likewise, the absence of the \$5 rate as one of the four leaders in the three cities named and its universal presence elsewhere indicate that the smaller cities and towns have lower schedules.

Generally speaking, however, the commission finds there is no apparent connection between the size of city and its wage scale. Lower percentages held in the low wage groups in Dayton, the fifth city in size, than in its larger competitors, Cincinnati, Columbus, and Toledo.

A third situation of interest appears in the fact that the very low wage groups are found in only a portion of the establishments in each city or group of cities. Approximately, only one-half of the firms indulge in the practice of paying women over eighteen less than \$6; and only 10 per cent pay less than \$4 to girls under eighteen.

It is impossible to show exactly the prevailing rate of wages because of the rather even distribution of employes through a large number of wage groups.

The commission decides, however, "that of the 14,635 employes eighteen years of age or over, 40.7 per cent received weekly wages ranging from \$6 to \$8, inclusive. Of the 1,109 employes under eighteen years of age, 75.5, or 68.1 per cent received wages ranging from \$3 to \$5, inclusive. The prevailing rate of wages for women in Ohio mercantile establishments may therefore be said to be from \$6 to \$8 per week, while for girls under 18 years of age the prevailing rates are from \$3 to \$5 per week."

Having collected no data tending to show the actual needs of female employes in mercantile occupations in Ohio, and the cost of those needs (which would have been a dangerous task for a commission of mere men) the commission refrains from suggesting whether or not this prevailing rate is sufficient, or what should be a minimum wage for those occupations. That is left for the Legislature.

It is not impertinent, however, for those interested in the problem to ask a question. If there be truth in the recent findings of the brushmakers' wage board in Massachusetts that \$8.71 is the bottom-most amount "without which no girl worker can supply the necessary cost of living and maintain herself in health"—if that is true, where do these women of Ohio "get off"? Their prevailing wage is from \$6 to \$8, and half of them get less than \$8.

WOMEN BEHIND WINNIPEG'S COUNTERS

DEPARTMENT store investigation has spread to Canada. The last report to be published on the subject is one by the Civic Committee of the University Women's Club, Winnipeg, dealing with the conditions of women's work in four large department stores in that city.

Since the investigation was undertaken by inexperienced volunteer workers it is less detailed and perhaps less reliable than similar studies elsewhere. Furthermore the report claims that in Winnipeg the expansion of trade within the last ten years has been so rapid that conditions change almost from month to month, and accurate observation is therefore more difficult than in older cities. This is particularly true of the employes who, in this western country, form a rapidly shifting element in the industrial world, the women even more so than the men. There are two reasons for it—first, early marriage, and second, the tendency to move further west.

Many points made in the report are, however, interesting by way of comparison with mercantile work in other cities.

When it is realized that the only prohibition on the hours of labor contained in the shops regulation act of Manitoba is that a young person, a boy under 14 or a girl under 16, shall not work more than 74 hours in any one week, it is

greatly to the credit of the employers of labor in the stores of Winnipeg that the working hours compare favorably with those in cities of the United States. Only one of the four stores remains open Saturday evenings or evenings during the Christmas season, and even in this small store extra help is engaged to relieve the regular staff on long days. In three of the stores the day runs from 8.20 a. m. to 6 p. m., and in one store from 8.20 a. m. to 5.30 p. m. The hours are shortened in summer by the Saturday half holiday. Each store requires one night's work at stocktaking and without pay.

Neither is there any prohibition as to the employment of children in stores. Yet, according to the report, none of the stores, except perhaps one at Christmas time, takes advantage of this law. All stores require that girls between 14 and 18 live at home or with friends who will be responsible for them.

The wage figures were obtained in every instance from the store management, but the report contends "we believe these figures to be correct, first from the manner in which they were given, and second from the fact that we have been unable to find contradictory evidence."

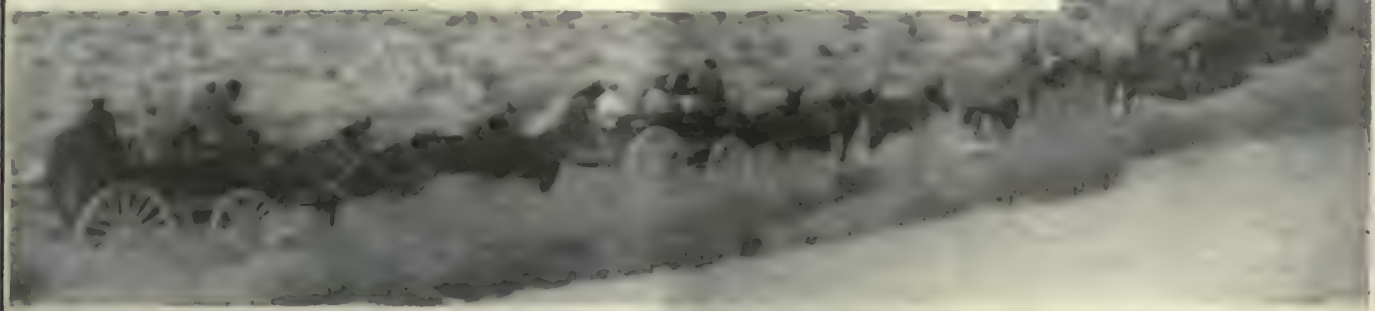
The data thus secured shows that saleswomen of average efficiency in Winnipeg are earning at least \$9 a week. The beginning point of the wage paid to women and girls working a full day in Winnipeg is \$5 a week.

No store in Winnipeg, states the report, "exact any direct fine." But it goes on to say that "the penalty for lateness without good excuse is half a day's absence with consequent loss of pay." As in American stores the general rule is that dismissal is given without notice.

The report gives considerable emphasis to store construction. In criticising the lack of good ventilation, it remarks that "natural ventilation in a large building fully occupied is admittedly insufficient, and all the stores but one in Winnipeg depend upon natural ventilation." No store in Winnipeg uses its basement, however, for sale purposes. Fire protection seems to be as scarce as in the stores of our own cities. Only one store investigated had an enclosed stairway leading to the street.

Welfare work is not carried on as generally as in American stores. Only one store—the largest—had any organized service. This, however, has as a unique feature on this continent, the pension system. To any woman employe who has been in its service fifteen consecutive years and who has reached the age of forty, this firm will give a retiring pension commensurate with the term of service and the amount of salary. The pension ranges from \$4 to \$8 weekly, and will be paid for life, so long as the pensioner does not marry, does not enter employment similar to the company's, and leads a moral life.

The Red Cross on the Mexican Border



EVER since Mexican revolutionists captured the city of Juarez in 1911 and Madero issued the first of repeated appeals to the United States to care for the sick and wounded, the American Red Cross has been in frequent service in Mexico and along the border line. Like a doctor at a football game, it has waited on the side-lines or rushed to a point opposite where fighting was thickest, to give expert surgical and nursing care to those brought from the field.

This service has been of three sorts—caring for the sick and wounded, affording transportation and necessities of life to American citizens leaving Mexico, and extending the same help to Mexican refugees, whether soldiers or not. Into Southern California, Arizona, New Mexico and Texas have come thousands of fugitives whose lives and property have been endangered by the fighting of contending armies and by the depredations of marauding bands of outlaws who have taken advantage of disturbed conditions.

During the first few months of 1914 the chief activities of the Red Cross grew out of active military operations in and around the Mexican cities of Juarez, New Laredo and Ojinaga—border towns prized by both armies as gateways for supplies. It was at the evacuation of Ojinaga that the events pictured in the accompanying photographs took place.

Learning that the Constitutionalists had sent a large body of men against this town and that the attack on the Federal garrison there would be made in a few days, a representative of the Red Cross hastened to Presidio, Texas, just across the Rio Grande from Ojinaga, and converted a school house into a hospital. Fighting began next day. For ten days wounded soldiers from Ojinaga kept up a steady passage across the river to receive Red Cross treatment. Families of women and children camped on the American side.

Driven finally from their outposts by an attack led by Villa himself, the entire garrison and population of Ojinaga evacuated on a beautiful moon-lit night. Wading the shallow Rio Grande, a disorderly and ragged stream of



The wounded in army wagons on the march across the desert to Marfa. Wheels up to their hubs in a dust cloud.

Making tortillas for the wounded at Red Cross hospital, Presidio.

A Mexican Federal ambulance which has just brought wounded to American side.

Red Cross hospital tents, Presidio.



foot-soldiers, horsemen, women, children and wagons, crossed to the American side for hours. As they came out of the river they were disarmed by United States soldiers.

But though they had escaped their Mexican enemies, they were now threatened with starvation. Presidio is a village of one hundred population. For miles around the country produces only enough to feed the normal population and for weeks it had been drained to

the very last ounce of its scant supply.

There was nothing to do but to move the visiting host on to some land of plenty. Accordingly 3,500 soldiers, 1,100 women and 500 children were formed into a caravan and escorted on a four days' march, across desert and through mountains, to Marfa, the nearest railway station, sixty-seven miles away. There they took train to El Paso, being finally placed under guard in a camp at Fort Bliss.

CALIFORNIA'S CAMPAIGN AGAINST ENTRENCHED VICE—BY FRANKLIN HICHBORN, SAN FRANCISCO

THE CALIFORNIA Legislature in 1913 passed, and the governor signed, a red-light abatement act. The measure has, however, been held up under the referendum provisions of the California state constitution.

The invoking of the referendum against the California measure makes the social evil a sharp issue in that state. The social evil, however, is but part of California's larger vice problem, while the vice problem in its entirety is but part of the state's great political problem, which Californians have set themselves resolutely to solve.

California's political problem has its foundation in enormous investments of outside capital in the state's public utilities. In the three principal groups of utilities—railroads, gas and electric plants, telegraph and telephone companies—the California State Board of Equalization employing the stock and bond method of valuation, finds an investment of \$840,000,000. The properties are largely in the hands of resident officials representing eastern and European capital. We find them "in politics" controlling largely Legislature, executives and even courts.

Another important group of exploiters in California has also taken keen interest in public affairs—the tenderloin group. This group divides into three classes, the exploiters of gambling, liquor-selling and prostitution.

The interests of this group are enormous. The lowest estimate placed on the volume of betting at what was, up to three years ago, California's principal gambling center—the Emeryville Race Course—was, for the last great season, 1907-8, covering a period of 180 days, \$36,000,000. At the trial of former Mayor Eugene E. Schmitz for extortion from French restaurant assignation house keepers, it was shown that one of these establishments represented an investment of \$400,000.

The business and political ramifications of these vice interests are most far-reaching. Up to the legislative session of 1911, for example, the race-track gamblers dominated the Public Morals Committee of the state Senate, and in that committee arbitrarily held

up all legislation aimed at gambling interests. When the San Francisco Board of Supervisors attempted to pass an ordinance to outlaw nickel-in-the-slot machines, eight of the most important banks of San Francisco joined in a petition to the supervisors, praying that the ordinance be not enacted.

A report published by the San Francisco Board of Supervisors in 1910 on the causes of political corruption in San Francisco, sets forth that one of San Francisco's most notorious assignation places, having four stories devoted to private supper bedrooms, had been constructed according to plans satisfactory to a well-known assignation house keeper, "by one of the largest, if not the largest, trust company in the West." "And," the report continues, "the officer of the trust company which made the lease of that particular house situated in the shopping district, was appointed a regent of the state university."

Thus in California there are two special-privilege-seeking groups: the public service corporation exploiting group, and the vice exploiting group. We find them working together in politics, uniting in common cause. And these have constituted the so-called California machine. Under their unholy alliance, public service corporations have long been able to fix rates on the basis of all the traffic will bear and to secure for little or nothing franchises worth a king's ransom, while legislatures have been slow to meet the public demand for enforceable laws against vice and district attorneys, and petit courts and peace officers have failed to secure the enforcement of such laws as have been enacted.

The reaction against machine domination in California began in 1908. That year many new men were elected to the Legislature. They succeeded in passing one important moral reform measure, however, a bill, based on the New York law, to outlaw race-track gambling.

This was the "machine's" first important defeat. But under "interpretations" by the state supreme court, the law was practically nullified.

The revolt against "machine" methods was to culminate in 1910 in the elec-

tion of Hiram Johnson, governor, with a thoroughly anti-machine Legislature at his back. That year, another anti-gambling law was enacted.

No attempt was made to "interpret" this 1911 law. But at the 1912 election, the gamblers, through the initiative, attempted to undo the Legislature's work. The gamblers' measure was on its face as drastic as that which the Legislature had enacted. But in the last paragraphs a few words had been inserted under which the gamblers would have been able to resume operations. The trick was exposed, however, and at the 1912 elections California settled the racetrack gambling question by piling up a majority of 203,000 against the gamblers' bill.

The 1911 Legislature struck two other important blows at vice exploitation, by outlawing the nickel-in-the-slot machines and passing a local option law.

This local option law gives communities power to decide by popular vote whether the sale of intoxicants shall be licensed. Under it upwards of 1,000 saloons and road houses have been closed in three years.

The 1913 Legislature continued the steadily advanced campaign against vice exploitation by the passage of the red-light abatement law. The measure is by no means as drastic as similar acts in force in other states, but under its provisions property employed for purposes of prostitution is rendered insecure. With the law on the statute books, it would gain exploiters of the social evil nothing to "go into politics" to protect their illegal enterprises, for every citizen would be furnished the machinery to proceed against them. This particular group of exploiters had counted upon exceptional gains during the period of the Panama-Pacific Exposition, which makes the enactment of the abatement measure particularly objectionable to them at this time. They proceeded to invoke the referendum against it.

It is now known that the petition under which the referendum was invoked contains hundreds of forged signatures. After the most casual investigation, the San Francisco authorities rejected as forgeries 1,280 names on the San Francisco petitions. Theodore Kytka, the handwriting expert, who has since examined the petitions, states that in his judgment were all the forged names to be eliminated there would not be valid signatures enough left on the petition to invoke the referendum.

The tenderloin interests, with literally millions of unclean profits at stake, are making a state-wide campaign against the bill. The measure's proponents are making as determined a campaign for the measure's ratification. The proponents of the bill confidently expect to see the measure ratified.

INDUSTRY

HOW SPAIN PROVIDES FOR THE HOUSING OF HER WAGE-EARNERS—BY KATHARINE COMAN

EARLY IN THE reign of Isabella II of unhappy memory, there was issued in the Queen's name, and apparently with her personal approval, a royal decree proposing the betterment of living conditions for the Spanish people "whose slender means and miserable wage" did not enable them to pay for suitable dwellings. The queen promised to aid every legal effort to improve the sanitation of the poorer districts of the industrial cities where working class quarters were declared to be a menace to health. She also agreed to further any plans to build in the outskirts of such cities one or more dwellings "in which comfort and adequate space shall be combined with low rents and accommodations suited to the habits of this portion of the population."

There is no evidence that the aspirations of Isabella bore fruit. The provision of living quarters for Spanish workmen was abandoned to business enterprise. The rapidly increasing demand that followed the opening of factories and the gathering of the rural population to the cities, characteristic of the past sixty years, has been met by cheaply built and overcrowded tenement houses which yield 30 per cent on the money invested.

According to the report issued by the Royal Council of Sanitation in 1901, the rate of mortality varies directly with housing conditions. In Madrid, one of the most densely populated capitals of Europe, the death rate runs the gamut from 19.6 in the business center to 37.9 in the factory district, keeping pace with the density of population. The influence of overcrowding, with the inevitable concomitants of filth, bad air and insufficient light and water, is evident in the prevalence of contagious diseases, such as measles, smallpox, tuberculosis and typhoid.

Of the 500,000 people in Madrid, 52,000 live in tenement houses with an average of 3.4 persons to a room. In one of these "tragic" tenement-house streets, the death rate rose to 93.89 per thousand in 1900, in another even more infamous, the ratio was 151.38 per thousand. Madrid has earned the sinister name "the city of death," not only because the winds from the nearby Guadarramas are bitter, because the drainage system is defective and the water supply inadequate, but because the houses of the poor are the breeding places of disease.

One of the reforming impulses characteristic of the period of the Republic found expression in the organization of *La Constructora Benéfica*, a building society authorized to open public subscrip-



TENEMENTS BUILT AROUND A "CORRAL", SEVILLE, SPAIN

tions and receive legacies for the purpose of providing low-cost dwellings for wage-earners. A tract of land was purchased near the railway station and adjoining the factory district, and there the initial group of four houses, accommodating six families each, was put up in 1874. The standard set in the initial years—"one family to a house and to every house a garden"—was not realized until 1907, when a group of workmen's cottages was built on the Calle Cartagena. These modest establishments are rented at rates ranging from \$5 to \$10 a month, according to size, situation and length of time contracted for purchase. Here the society hopes to realize another of its early ideals, opportunity for the renter to become full proprietor of his dwelling through a series of monthly payments extending over ten, twelve or fifteen years.

El Montepío General Obrero de España, or workingmen's loan association, uses a part of its capital in building houses for rent or sale to its members. The rentals are calculated on a basis of 6 per cent of the money invested. If the occupant contracts to buy, half the rental is accredited to him as payment on the capital.

La Sociedad Benéfica Española de Casas Higiénicas enjoys a more distinguished patronage. Organized in 1906 to erect a group of workingmen's houses in honor of the king's marriage, it received a gift of \$14,000 from the Grandees of Spain. The first cottage completed was assigned to the family of a victim of the bomb explosion in-

tended to destroy the royal pair.

Alphonso XIII has taken personal interest in the improvement of the habitations of the poor. He has devoted the gift of \$40,000 from a Spaniard who had gathered a fortune in South America to the construction of a group of forty workingmen's cottages in Seville on a plot of land offered by the town council. They are unusually commodious, for the king has announced his intention of assigning these houses to the applicants who bring the largest number of children.

In a recent interview, Don Alfonso announced to the reporters a reckless policy of expansion. "My plan is very simple. First I build these houses in Seville, I mortgage them and with the loan I build others in Madrid. Then I mortgage these and with this money I shall build another group of houses, also in Madrid. And so with mortgage after mortgage, I go on building . . . until I land in jail. When this happens," jokingly added the king, "I shall be in a very difficult situation, because, being in jail, I cannot sign my own pardon."

The propaganda for improvement of workmen's dwellings is fast becoming fashionable. In 1904, the Seville Chamber of Commerce, Industry and Navigation built six cottages in honor of the king's visit to the Alcazar. These admirably built houses were awarded to the most faithful wage-earners as recommended by the employers of the city: one dock-laborer, one male and one female operative, one employee of the tobacco factory, etc. The fortunate winners are life tenants, and their heirs will come into full possession of the property. The town council appropriates \$1,000 a year for the construction of workmen's cottages which are rented, at 4 per cent on the cost, to wage-earners who can prove the longest period of service with any one employer. After twenty years of occupation, no further rental is required, and if a man dies before completing the score, his widow and minor children may continue to live in the house, rent free.

One of the first undertakings of the workingmen's delegates to the Institute of Social Reforms was a presentation of the needs of better dwellings for wage-earners. As a result, the institute began its propaganda in behalf of improved tenements which finally crystallized in the law of June 27, 1911. This enactment provides for the organization of local *juntas* for the improvement of workmen's dwellings. (The institute has organized thirty-one local *juntas de Fomento y mejora de las habitaciones baratas*.) Of the nine members in each *junta*, one must be an architect or contractor, one a physician and one a member of the town council.

All are nominated by the *alcalde* and appointed by the civil governor of the province in which the town is situated. Two members are elected by the fifty principal subscribers to the building funds and two by the workmen's societies represented on the *junta* of social reforms. Two must be men preeminently concerned in social betterment.

Building societies approved by the local *junta* and legally registered may receive legacies, donations and subventions accorded by state, province or municipality. All property destined for the construction of workmen's dwellings is exempted from direct taxation, which ranges from 17.5 to 22 per cent of the net profit, on real estate, as well as from inheritance, taxes, transfer dues, and stamp duties. Municipal lands may be appropriated to the uses of these societies. The law further directs that private building sites desirable for cheap houses and not utilized for this purpose within three years after the promulgation of the law, may be expropriated in the interest of public welfare. This extension of the right of eminent domain is regarded as entirely logical, for the need of adequate housing may be quite as urgent as that of transportation facilities.

Finally, when tenements are condemned as unsanitary, and the owner refuses to make necessary reforms, the city may proceed to forcible expropriation, paying only the value of the land and utilizing the proceeds from the sale of wreckage or of superfluous land in the building of new houses on the site. Abuse of these extraordinary powers is guarded against by the proviso that in every such project an official representing the Institute of Social Reforms hears the protests made by the injured parties. Thereafter the case is referred to the secretary of state who must submit it to the Council of State and to the Royal Council of Sanitation before the final decision is given. The effectiveness of this provision of the law is not yet determined for no *ayuntamiento* has thus far taken advantage of its powers.

The city government or a co-operative building society may issue bonds for the purpose of constructing workmen's dwellings and mortgage its property on this account. The last-named organizations are especially favored as the state guarantees the payment of interest on their loans, somewhat as the United States government guaranteed interest on the Pacific railway bonds. An annual grant of \$100,000 is promised, half of which is set aside as a sinking fund against arrears of unpaid interest (not exceeding 5 per cent) due to savings banks, *montes de piedad* and other credit institutions recognized by the law. Societies which pay more than a 4 per cent dividend to their members may not be accorded this aid in meeting their obligations. The remainder of the annual grant is devoted to direct loans to the most needy and deserving enterprises, the loan never exceeding 25 per cent of the capital stock.

The building regulations imposed upon organizations which undertake workmen's dwellings are sufficiently



IMPROVED DWELLINGS BUILT BY CHAMBER OF COMMERCE, SEVILLE, SPAIN

exacting. The site must be free from humidity due to springs, rivers or ponds. It must be clear of poisonous gases and remote from standing water, dung-hills, unsavory factories, etc. Attention should be given to the orientation of the houses so as to secure air, light and sunshine. The dimensions of the *patio*, or central court, that indispensable element of good building in Spain, must be adequate to give air and light to all the tenements.

The size and height of living rooms is stipulated, and the location of ventilating shafts. The cellars may not be used for sleeping quarters and only in case of necessity as kitchens, baths, etc. No tenement house should be built to accommodate more than forty families. Single dwellings, if two stories high, should cover no more than one-half or two-thirds of the lot, leaving room for *patios* and gardens.

Workmen's dwellings built in accordance with the law are exempted from taxation for twenty years, provided they are not diverted from their original purpose. Such houses may be sold to the tenants for cash or on deferred payment. In the latter case they are exempt from taxation until the purchase is completed. The building society may secure its interests by a mortgage on the property or by the Belgian form of life guarantee, whereby the purchaser adds a percentage equivalent to a life insurance premium to his annual payments. If he dies before the contract is fulfilled his heirs receive the property free from encumbrance.

In 1913, the first year in which the subvention was available, twenty-three building societies qualified under the law relative to the construction of low-priced dwellings. Several of these had been organized previous to the enactment of the law and were well established. The society for the construction of workmen's dwellings in Valen-

cia could boast a capital of \$36,000, 85 houses built, and 585 occupants; that of Bilbao showed a capital of \$136,100, 33 tenement houses and 1,000 occupants; that of Burgos, \$35,000 capital and 26 cottages sheltering as many families; while one of the building societies of Barcelona reported a capital of \$1,000,000, with 30 houses under construction and more projected. Other applicants for state aid were so newly organized that they could show no capital, no houses, not even the building sites usually granted by the municipality.

Under the first adjudication, the Institute of Social Reforms determined that none of the applicants was entitled to a guarantee of interest on bonds under the terms of the law; but the \$50,000 available for subventions was distributed under the following classification: to co-operative societies with contributed funds less than \$3,000, and to societies proposing no payment of dividends or having a profit of less than 3 per cent a subsidy of 20 per cent on the capital stock; to co-operative societies, whose funds amounted to more than \$3,000, a subsidy of 15 per cent on the capital; to building societies, co-operative or not, whose annual profit ranges from 3 to 4 per cent, a subsidy of 10 per cent of capital represented.

An old Moorish city like Seville affords but poor and expensive living quarters to workmen. Tenement houses built round a "corral" with rooms opening on the gallery are reasonably sanitary, but there is usually no water in the kitchens and the plumbing is defective. Many families live in cave-like habitations at or below street level, with inner rooms where no sunlight can penetrate. Rents are even higher than in Madrid, and wages average less by 20 per cent.

It was to be expected then that in Seville the law offering special privileges to co-operative building societies

[Continued on page 445.]

CHURCH and COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

FOURTEENTH INTERNATIONAL SUNDAY SCHOOL RALLY AT CHICAGO

No EVENT of the year in America has involved more men, women and children, both in the church and the community, than the fourteenth international Sunday school convention held in Chicago, June 23-30. No other convention requires such a large constituency for each delegate—45,000 enrolled members for each. And yet 2,200 delegates were assigned seats, but as Chicago's big Medinah Temple had room for as many more, the alternates of the delegates were authorized to act as delegates.

A constituency of 173,459 Sunday schools, with a membership of about 17,000,000 scholars, teachers and officers, in practically all Protestant denominations, scattered through every city, town and hamlet in the country were thus represented. There was room for only about 500 people other than delegates, so that until nearly the end of the conference the attendance was restricted to those with official connection, except at the many section conferences held in widely scattered churches and districts where the public was admitted. There were 364 participants in the programs listed.

In meeting at Chicago the convention came back home. The local committee welcomed it "where the work of the organized Sunday school has been emphasized in a unique degree, a center of leadership in Sunday school work of such practical sense and broad vision as warrants honest pride." In responding, the president said, "Chicago has a Sunday-school atmosphere we ought to breathe, a history we must know if we would be just to our predecessors. It has been the mount from which imperial visions have been gained by men whom Chicago and its suburbs have produced—B. F. Jacobs, to whom the uniform lesson system and interdenominational work owe more than to any other man, Bishop John H. Vincent, Dwight L. Moody, Edward Eggleston, Henry Clay Trumbull, C. R. Blackall and M. C. Hazard."

Marion Lawrance, general secretary of the association, who also became a citizen of Chicago when the headquarters of the international committee removed there, emphasized Chicago's influence upon the Sunday school movement in the words given prominence on this page.

On motion of an alderman who is also chairman of the Red Cross committee of the International Sunday School Association, the City Council of Chicago voted "to recognize the presence of these guests of the city, extend its greetings and express the hope that provisions for their comfort during their stay in the city would in every way be satisfactory."

Most of the time and attention at the

convention and its conferences were absorbed by discussions of educational administration and methods, in which the modern psychology and pedagogy involved in religious experience and teaching were more emphasized and with less criticism than in any previous convention. The new principle that we know best the things that we do is finding larger acceptance than ever in the Sunday schools. Religion is being regarded less as a speculative theological theory than as an experience and a service. The slogan was heard on all sides that Sunday school scholars must do what they are taught. The one real divisive point was administrative, but it had been safeguarded at the last convention and was harmonized at this one by giving proportionate representation on

WHAT CHICAGO HAS DONE FOR THE SUNDAY SCHOOL

Here started the first campaign to organize every county in a state, every county in Illinois having been organized for over forty years.

The first organized teacher training was undertaken here and the first Sunday School institute was held here.

The first uniform lesson system in North America was issued by the Chicago Sunday School Union and out of it grew the uniform lesson system which has been in use over forty years.

The first Sunday School journal was published here under the same auspices in 1866.

The first full account of a state Sunday School convention was published by the Chicago Advance.

The first festival of religious and patriotic songs was held and has been continued here, with the largest chorus of women's voices in the world.

The adult Bible class movement was here adopted as a department of organized Sunday School work.

And the first Bible class athletic association in connection with the organized Sunday School work had its birth in this city, with the largest amateur baseball organization in the world, having eleven leagues of six teams each and one thousand members who are eligible only upon regular Sunday School attendance, certified by the written statement of the pastor or superintendent.

the international committee to differing groups which might otherwise have organized separately.

If there was one feature of the work predominantly emphasized, it was the movement to include adults, especially men's Bible classes, in the regular Sunday school. To "feature it" strenuous efforts were made to marshal a parade of men's Bible classes that would impress the public with the fact that at least 2,500,000 men are enrolled in their membership.

By official count 6,514 of them lined up with bands and banners in impressive array, which would have been more so had it not been for the exaggerated claim that many more thousands would march, as many as 30,000 having registered their intention to march. Men of all ages, many nationalities and different station in life were in line.

Almost every detachment bore a banner with a cross encircled with the words, "By this sign conquer." Open Bibles were borne in frames on the shoulders of men. Legends galore fluttered from pennants, such as, "Men of Missouri in line for Christ"; "Michigan for Service"; "Alberta for Christ"; "Train up a child in the way he should go and go that way yourself"; "Physically strong, mentally awake, morally straight"; "Bible study builds character"; "Where men go boys will follow"; "The prison seldom reforms, but often deforms"; "Nebraska the land of corn and Bryan"; "Kansas, twenty-five years of prohibition, empty jails, 66 per cent of taxes spent on education"; "We will bury booze in Wisconsin"; "Oklahoma born sober"; "The bier that will make Milwaukee famous"—which was the legend over a beer barrel borne on a bier. State calls, like "O-HI-O", rang out, in the intervals between the marching music of the bands, all of which played Onward, Christian Soldiers.

The social significance of the men's Bible class movement, as well as that of the women, has found such expression as the use of social studies prepared by the American Institute of Social Service and denominational social service commissions. These Bible classes have social committees, hold socials for men, cooperate with each other in community surveys, in fighting drink and the social evil and in planning playgrounds, getting the Saturday half-holiday and in furnishing volunteer workers for "big brothers," probation officers and many other lines of public welfare work.

The emphasis upon the importance of these adult classes was carried so far by one of the most influential members of the international committee as to include the insistence that all young people's societies should be merged into a department of the church, called the depart-

ment of religious education. He argued this point by the claim that these societies in calling for testimony rather than for education are psychologically wrong and lack educational vision.

Others emphasized the same lack in the church by saying: "We have too much preaching and too little teaching, too much exhortation and too little definite instruction, too much mere culture and too little conversion"; "Our education is losing its religious significance and pure religion is losing its educational ideal."

At the closing session the note up to which the utterances of the whole convention were keyed most highly was the social note. It was voiced in clarion tones by two speakers. Dr. J. A. Macdonald, editor of the *Toronto Globe*, significantly said:

"I care not how venerable or how puissant an institution may be, woe to the institution against which a vital, pregnant idea comes. Its day is doomed! And a new idea has been released in the states and provinces of North America against the old iniquities and established oppressions. It is the social message, the social program, the social motive—the message of one man and another, not the message of the individual, I tell you, but the message of one man and another."

Margaret Slattery of Boston said:

"Jane Addams saw a star in the smoky sky—a great star—and she has given her life to the working out of the mes-

sage of the star. Go back to your boys and girls and give them the insignia, not of brute force but the tokens of service and of peace. Give them the message of the star Jane Addams saw. Teach them the message of the star so that nothing shall ever extenuate in their eyes the awful contrast of useless wealth and causeless poverty in a rich land. Teach them those things so that they shall never extenuate what we have come to extenuate, because we will not give heed, because we have not tried to understand. Develop the conscience of your community."

While the greatest enthusiasm was shown over the speaking and action against the liquor habit and traffic and the use of the cigarette and tobacco, yet among the resolutions unanimously passed were those favoring a federal law for the regulation of marriage and divorce, a single standard of purity for both sexes, laws for the suppression of commercialized vice, lotteries and gambling, and for the censoring of moving pictures, the prohibition of child labor, Sabbath rest and observance and the advancement of international peace.

The association adjourned to meet in New York city four years hence for its first quadrennial session. The next world's convention meets in Tokio, Japan, in 1916, at the invitation of the premier, Count Okuma, who sent a personal representative to Zurich, Switzerland, to urge its acceptance at the last convention held there in 1913.

STIR AT THE CENTERS OF THEOLOGICAL EDUCATION

THE WAY the church schools for the training of the ministry are responsively reacting to the tendencies of the times is proving that many of them are not as reactionary as all of them are supposed to be.

The church has been the great conservator of civilization. Its initiative has also led much of the advance in human progress. What it has conserved, however, has been worth as much to mankind as what it has advanced. Its institutions, therefore, cannot be expected to change as quickly or radically as some others.

Its training schools for the ministry have the difficult task of keeping in adjustment with the long past and with the opening future. Most of them, indeed, seem to have been more loyal to history than to prophecy. The past appears secure to them. In comparison, the present and the immediate future seem like the temporary in contrast with the eternal, like the steadfast in contrast with the evanescent.

Never more than in the swiftly changing tendencies of our own times have men needed the continuity for which the church stands, to connect the present with the past, the future with some background.

While, therefore, theological seminaries are not expected to change their policies and methods without due cause and deliberation, and should not be criticized too severely on that account, yet

when they do change, they are likely to register the deeper tendencies of the times—the set of the tide.

Seminaries Moving to Universities

The tendency to co-operate and thereby to economize resource and at the same time increase efficiency of equipment and effort, is emphasized by the seminaries which are removing their

base of operation close to universities. This movement, which has long since demonstrated its value at Oxford and other universities abroad, is setting in strongly on this continent.

At McGill University, Montreal, the divinity schools of several denominations have been led organically to unite. At Toronto the church schools are closely affiliated with the university. Old Andover Seminary moved to Cambridge to be near Harvard. The young Pacific Seminary removed to Berkeley to share the advantages of the University of California.

And now the unanimous decision of the directors and faculty of the Chicago Theological Seminary to move within co-operating distance of the University of Chicago is announced.

Without compromise of distinctive tenet, or sacrifice of unique heritage, or loss of institutional independence, or change of charter, or alienation of funds, or weakening denominational fellowship, the reciprocity thus made possible will furnish a working demonstration of the larger loyalty to more fundamental principles, to the higher ideals of the greater common cause.

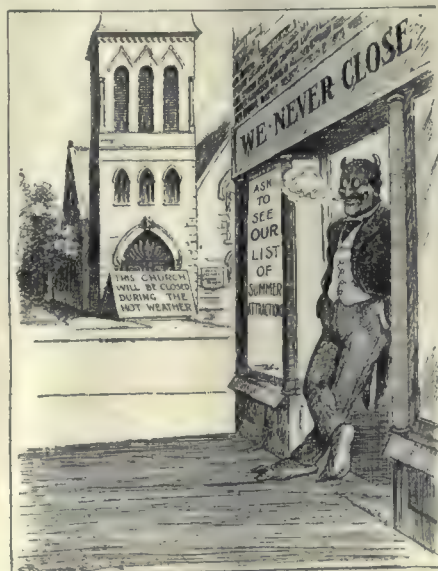
The co-operative relation of divinity schools thus made possible by their affiliation with the same university has great possibilities both to the church and the community. It may do much to shade off the too sharp line between the sacred and the secular, as religion and all the relationships of life are studied together, as students in many departments of study meet and mingle. The unity of all life may thus be impressed. The identification of religion with everything common to man will be more apparent. The application of the common faith to the social conditions of the common life can be brought to bear more effectively, both in theory and practice, through the combined resources of hitherto competing institutions.

Such a move may be the beginning of the end of much waste, duplication, competition, misunderstanding, between denominations and denominational institutions, which have far more in common than to divide them. It may be followed by the grouping, not only of other seminaries, but of other church agencies, in something more like "the holy catholic church, the communion of saints."

Meadville's Readjustment

The Theological School of Meadville, Pa., also announces a fundamental change in its method of procedure. It was proposed by Anna Garlin Spencer, acting professor of sociology and ethics, and was adopted by the board of trustees in May.

This includes an all-year-round academic year of four terms; the required course for college graduates covering two calendar years; a sub-junior course offered, by special arrangement with other institutions, to students without college training, who will thus prepare to enter the theological course; graduation in the early autumn instead of the spring, to facilitate prompt placement in parish work; summer work provided for seniors at Meadville in co-operation with the departments of religious education



Bowers in Newark, N. J. News

IN SUMMER—THE CLOSED DOOR AND THE OPEN DOOR.

and social service of the American Unitarian Association, and for juniors and those taking preparatory courses the privilege of attending the summer session of the University of Chicago at the expense of the Meadville School.

This is said to be the first training school for the ministry to combine the advantages of such intensive work as can be done in a smaller school with the stimulating and many-sided advantages of a great university located in a large city and in another part of the country. A Meadville professor will be in charge of the students thus sent to the University of Chicago.

A special course of one year including four terms is also offered those seeking training for parish assistants, church settlements, directors of moral and religious education, and organizers of volunteer social service in institutional churches.

Professor Spencer accompanies the announcement of these unique and significant changes with this interpretation:

"It marks one of the steps from the exclusive devotion to the 'divinities' of the old type of theological school toward the 'humanities' that form the center of gravity in modern religious training. The old studies are of course retained, but relatively shortened and balanced by an increasing attention to sociology and its application to social reforms, social amelioration and constructive social service. Nothing is more significant of the pressure inward to the church from all departments of the social movement than this stir at the centers of theological education."

COMMUNITY SERVICE AND NEW ENGLAND CHURCHES

By William Horton Foster

COMMUNITY SERVICE was the keynote of the third annual conference of the Union Churches of New England held at Hopedale, Mass., June 9. Scores of such churches are scattered through New England and many of them were represented at this gathering.

The speakers all lauded the Union Church as the conservator of religious energy and activity but accepted with equal unanimity the responsibility for community service resting upon such churches. The opinion of the conference may be taken from the following quotation from H. J. Burgstahler's address on The United Protestantism of America.

"The church used to say, social welfare, the group interest, politics, industry, social relationships viewed from the group standpoint are of no concern to us. Let us keep out. Today, we realize that unless the interest of the church is cosmopolitan, unless it reaches out into every department of life to infuse into society the dynamic of Jesus Christ, our social fabric will rot of social disease, and the church will confront another decadent civilization, as did the early church in the earlier centuries.

"The task of the church is to regenerate society, to transform our civilization, to help solve our stupendous problems by applying the old summons 'Re-

pent ye,' and through a constructive program of Christ's gospel.

"This alone is a stupendous task, it involves such huge problems as recreation, fraternalism in industry, co-operation, child welfare, education, the housing problem, poverty, the American saloon, the white slave traffic, and numerous other problems."

RURAL CHURCH SUNDAY PROCLAIMED

THE FIRST proclamation in behalf of the country church and the rural Sunday was issued by Governor Henry D. Hatfield to the people of West Virginia. It is a noteworthy document in the annals of both church and state.

Newspaper reports and personal letters from almost all parts of the state show that the day was very generally observed and the idea seems to have struck a popular chord. This was in part due to an effectively printed and circulated appeal for the observance of Rural Church Day, not so much as a "go-to-church Sunday," as a day on which the usefulness and work of the country church should receive special emphasis and stimulation.

To that end this circular suggested such lines of work for the country church as a survey of its field; encouragement to education by lecture courses,

libraries and co-operation with the schools, as well as through farmers' clubs, of both men and women, and the granges; the promotion of agriculture and the common interests of agricultural people; sanitary and hygienic work and the provision of plans, facilities and occasions for healthful recreation.

A list of annual events to be celebrated, a suggestive program for Sunday school observance of Rural Church Sunday and a prayer for Rural Church Day were also included.

This new idea worked so well in West Virginia that the suggestion comes from that state through THE SURVEY to the Home Missionary Boards affiliated with the Federal Council to initiate, inspire, standardize and practically promote the observance of Rural Church Day among the churches of their respective fellowships.

THE GOSPEL FOR SOCIETY

The Sunday evening at the Northern Baptist Convention in Boston, which was devoted to The Gospel for Society attracted the largest attendance which any session attained.

The Rev. C. W. Gilkey of Chicago put the theme home to the hearts and consciences of all in these fresh and vigorous terms:

"The old phrase 'full salvation' includes what might be called the horizontal aspect of life—all men—and the vertical as well, every range and interest of human nature. God's redemptive power must be released into every compartment of human life. Salvation is a present possession. God is Lord of earth as well as of heaven. The world is not a shipwrecked craft, if God be its creator, however battered the hull. If religion is to be in the craft at all, it must be all over it. Our water-tight compartments are being ripped out by the modern social conscience.

"On us as Christians lies the responsibility when matters like the Lawrence or Colorado strikes confront us. Just as football, a few years ago, had to be changed or banished from college, so must Christianity change the rules of the game. Customs, habits, all relations, must be Christianized. The rules must be changed as to the relation between men and things. Only as we democratize our industry in terms of essential social justice, are we seeking first God's kingdom."

CHRISTIAN SOCIAL SERVICE UNION

One of the farthest reaching of the many results achieved by the Men and Religion Forward Movement is registered at Pittsburgh in the organization of the Christian Social Service Union, in which 400 churches of the city and suburbs are allied.

Rev. Charles Reed Zahniser has become its general secretary, for which service he is said to be exceptionally equipped by his academic training and personal experience in social work. A speakers' bureau places at the service of brotherhoods, Bible classes, churches and other organizations, a number of the strongest and best informed social and religious leaders in the city.

A PROCLAMATION—TO THE PEOPLE OF THE STATE OF WEST VIRGINIA: GREETING

AS THE GREATEST FORCE FOR INSPIRING BETTER COUNTRY LIFE AND DEVELOPMENT OF THE RURAL COMMUNITY, THE COUNTRY CHURCH OFFERS THE GREATEST OPPORTUNITY AND IS THE MOST POTENTIAL AGENCY. IN THE PRESENT WIDE INTEREST BEING MANIFESTED IN BETTER AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT, BETTER COUNTRY SCHOOLS AND HIGHER STANDARDS AND IDEALS OF LIFE IN GENERAL, IT HAS BECOME APPARENT THAT ONLY THROUGH THE LEADERSHIP OF THE CHURCH, WHICH CAN AROUSE THE RELIGIOUS MOTIVE, CAN THIS MOVEMENT BE PLACED ON SECURE FOUNDATION AND PERMANENT SUCCESS ASSURED.

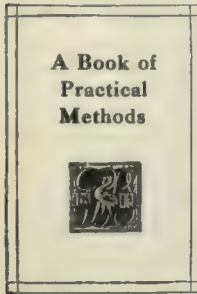
UPON THE ACTIVITIES OF THE COUNTRY MINISTER IN THE COUNTRY CHURCH AND THE CO-OPERATION OF HIS PEOPLE DEPENDS LARGELY THE WHOLESOME LIFE OF THE RESPECTIVE COMMUNITIES, AND THESE EFFORTS IN ELEVATING THE STANDARDS OF THE RELIGIOUS, MORAL AND CIVIC LIFE SHOULD NOT BE CONFINED TO ONE DAY, BUT SHOULD BE THE PURPOSE OF EVERY DAY CONCERN.

WITH THE DESIRE TO ACT IN ACCORD WITH THOSE WHO HAVE INAUGURATED A MOVEMENT FOR THE INCREASED USEFULNESS AND INFLUENCE FOR GOOD OF THE COUNTRY CHURCHES OF WEST VIRGINIA, I HEREBY DESIGNATE SUNDAY, THE THIRD DAY OF MAY, NEXT, AS RURAL CHURCH SUNDAY, AND URGE THAT ON THE DAY THUS NAMED, THE PEOPLE IN THE RURAL COMMUNITIES OF WEST VIRGINIA, SHALL JOIN TOGETHER HEARTILY IN RELIGIOUS WORSHIP, AND WITH PARTICULAR AIM TO PROMOTE PERSONAL DEVOTION AND ATTENDANCE AND THE REVERED CHURCH-GOING CUSTOM OF OLDEN DAYS.

BOOK REVIEWS

THE BACKWARD CHILD

By Barbara Spofford Morgan. G. P. Putnam's Sons. 263 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.



This book is devoted to the proposition that the backward child, who is not feeble-minded, can be, and therefore should be, trained and developed so that he may be able to acquire an ordinary education. He must be brought up to the mark, otherwise he

will grow to maturity as an incompetent, or as a potential criminal.

This must be done not merely, nor chiefly, by discovering his weak points and hammering away upon them, but by finding out in what particulars his mind is strong, and helping him to use these to the best advantage. That may sound like a truism; but is there anything in the ordinary routine of the public schools to suggest that it is so accepted?

No one can read this fascinating book without realizing that the problem of child study is the most important one in education. It makes one see, as never before, that in teaching, as in every other social process, the case method is the only sane one. We are brought face to face with a truth which should have been apparent to everyone the moment we began to divide the backward from the normal and group them in special classes—the truth that the backward differ among themselves quite as much as they, as a class, differ from the normals.

The author has a firm and clear grasp on child psychology. She has worked out its principles into a practical method of great value. We say a child "does not pay attention"; but do we realize that there are several different processes in "paying attention," and do we know in which of these several he fails?

We say "he has a poor memory," but do we know that there are at least three kinds of memory and have we found out how to strengthen the little he has and perhaps how to create the others? Are we trying to cultivate memory by mere dogged repetition, carried on long past the child's fatigue point, without attempting to establish the mental associations upon which it must depend? Do we begin to see the baneful effects of mental fatigue or even recognize that there is such a thing as the fatigue point to force a child beyond which is simple cruelty?

Most of all do we act on the most vital truth of education "the simple principle of making him give out instead of take in"? These and many other queries come crowding one's mind as

he reads this great book; great in its simplicity and clarity as in its depth of content, for it is as profound as it is simple and clear.

The book is a tractate on the science of the education of the backward, but it is much more, it is full of practical methods of testing and of training. These methods are such as the author has used in an experimental clinic in New York city wherein backward children are tested and then trained in the particular deficiency the tests reveal.

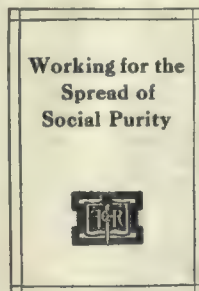
Miss Morgan claims that experience has shown, that "backward children can be brought up to a normal average in their lessons by half an hour's daily individual training." She does not say in how short or long a time this can be done but the reader is willing to accept her claim and believe that it *can* be done. He also feels inclined to believe that if the methods this teacher advocates could be applied to all children, as soon as they enter school, or even before, in a very short time we should have no backward children—except those distinctly feeble-minded—and the present torture, retardation, and, often, acquired, life-long incapacity of the so-called—often mis-called—dull children, would cease.

The book is commended to the teachers of backward children. We should like to see its study made obligatory on every teacher, principal, and school superintendent.

ALEXANDER JOHNSON.

THE CRISIS OF MORALS

By Harold Begbie. Fleming H. Revell Company. 159 pp. Price \$.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.83.



The author of *Twice Born Men*, who in that first volume proved himself to be a rare storyteller of religious experience, in this last book attempts analysis of social conditions and a program for the church. In an apologetic foreword he prepares the reader to expect the driving force of a single idea, driven home at white heat. The promise is kept, for all evil conditions are less analyzed than characterized and accounted for by the one evil of impurity in thought or deed toward women.

The poles of his highly charged battery, between which play the subtle currents of his strong feeling, and the flashing fire of keen criticism and passionate idealism, are for the negative pole, the purity of normal womanhood and the unnaturalness of impurity—without a

counterpart in nature; and for the positive pole, the necessity of religion to make and keep the will of man and woman pure and to enhance and enrich human life with the Christ-life.

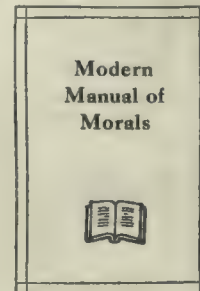
His intensity at both these points, however, broadens out amply enough to emphasize responsibility for the conditions in bad housing, in monotonous and under-paid industry and in the dull conventionality of many homes, which promote, if they do not prompt, impurity. This leads to insistence upon the need to combine science and legislation, social and civic agencies, with religion, in the church's effort to restore the supremacy of purity over the will and in sex relationships. It is done with the art of an impressionist, not with the science of either the moralist or sociologist.

It is to be hoped that those hitherto thrilled by the author's vivid instances of the direct exercise of divine power in transforming human lives, will now be as much inspired by this impassioned appeal to furnish the human medium and means whereby that power may effect the "most urgent and essential reformation of our times."

GRAHAM TAYLOR.

THE SOCIALIZED CONSCIENCE

By Joseph Herschel Coffin. Warwick & York. 247 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.34.



This newest manual of morals is written in untechnical style from the present-day psychological and sociological points of view. Its single purpose is to discern and apply a moral criterion for the guidance and testing of conduct in the moral perplexities of our

ever more complex civilization. That single criterion by which moral standards are to be judged is "the socialized conscience," whereby "the realization of the social self or socialized personality" is to be attained by each one and for others.

In turn this test is applied to conduct in each one of several situations centering about and including family, educational, industrial and civic relationships. Conditions and standards in each of these situations are stated in terms true to the times. At every point the individual and social elements of morality are shown to be inseparable and reciprocal.

"Group morality" is recognized in industry in the right of the group to stand collectively for its common interests, but the ethics growing up within the group, so keenly felt within and so little under-

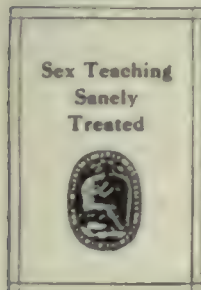
stood outside organized labor, fails to be described or explained here or elsewhere in the texts of ethics. So also the distinction between social justice and judicial justice is not made clear, although so much dangerous misunderstanding results from confusing them.

The text and the questions following each chapter are well adapted to prompt inquiry, study and discussion in the classroom and in current-topics groups.

GRAHAM TAYLOR.

THE SOCIAL EMERGENCY

Edited by William Trufant Foster, with an Introduction by Charles W. Eliot. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 224 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.45.



These studies are as significant in their origin as in their effective form and content. That they were offered by Reed College at Portland as an extension course of study to the teachers and other social workers of Oregon is not only highly creditable to the public spirit of that institution, but also suggestive of the public service that other states and local communities have a right to expect of their colleges.

Upon the president of the college, who is also president of the Pacific Coast Federation of Sex Hygiene, devolved the task of editing, introducing and concluding the volume. In projecting, as in publishing these studies, he has succeeded in his endeavor "to avoid the errors, the exaggerations, the narrowness of view, and the hysteria that characterize some of the current discussions concerning sex and the social evil."

No saner, safer and more sensibly discriminating treatments of the physiological, medical, economic, recreational, educational, moral and religious phases of this delicate subject have appeared in the flood of contemporary writing which it has produced. The several topics were assigned to writers who prove themselves to be specialists in their respective spheres of inquiry. It only states the simple fact to say that each of them is masterful in grasp of the subject and in reducing it to practice, in the balance between technical details and their practical application, in reverent delicacy and straightforward presentation of facts, and above all in discrimination, where it is so difficult not to be extreme.

This discrimination is noteworthy in giving due weight to the physiological and economic factors of the problem, while depending upon moral and spiritual resources for the final control of the sex impulse. The cautious yet firm insistence upon teaching sex hygiene, by every writer, in wisely suggested ways adapted to parents, to children, to boys and to girls, is even more significant, in view of the editor's insistence that the passing of the old order, in which silence failed, and "the invasion of the new order of publicity before we are prepared for it, constitutes the social emergency of the twentieth century."

The situation is what one of the writers affirms it to be:

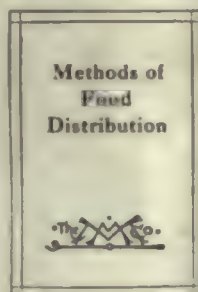
"We are learning what the evil of sex is and how it arises, and we are beginning to use the forces at hand for its destruction. Conscience is kindling and determination is hardening among our people that this thing shall cease to be. The ape and the tiger shall yet die from our midst and man's spirit shall triumph in his flesh."

Parents and teachers, guardians of children and social workers will find as much information and caution, as much suggestion and warning, as much wisdom in telling them what not to say or do and what to do and teach, as are to be found between any two covers—and besides there is a list of whatever else is worth reading.

GRAHAM TAYLOR.

MARKETS FOR THE PEOPLE

By J. W. Sullivan. The Macmillan Company. 316 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.37.



In this interesting and instructive volume, Mr. Sullivan gives the result of five or six years' careful study of marketing conditions in Europe. Those of us in this country who are chiefly aware of our own chaotic condition of food supply and demand are apt to look to the European system of large public markets, regulated by the municipalities, in which they are placed, as affording, if not a solution, at all events a hope that there may be some way of meeting this vexed problem. It is therefore very instructive to observe that Mr. Sullivan's observations do not lead him to favor the public market. He finds that in both Paris and Berlin, where the system has been worked scientifically and with every opportunity for success, these markets are falling behind every year and are becoming less and less a feature in the economic life of the people.

In London, Mr. Sullivan found in the large body of costermongers, answering to our push-cart peddlers, a far cheaper and more satisfactory method of bringing produce and consumers together. In discussing the problem of London, as compared with New York, the difference in its topography is always cited, as showing the disadvantage under which our narrow island position places us. Stress is also laid upon the great congestion of our streets. In this latter regard, however, London is worse off than we, as her street regulations allow the passage of enormous motor trucks, which would not be permitted in any large municipality in the United States. Only the very superior traffic management of the English capital makes their street conditions endurable.

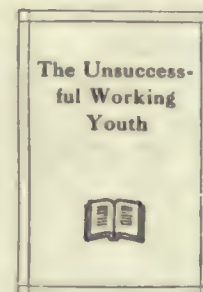
Everyone truly interested in bringing food supplies where they are really needed, and at prices which render them accessible to the poor, would do well to read this book, which offers an oppor-

tunity to make an experiment without expense to the city, and without increase to the burden of the taxpayer.

ALIDA B. HAZARD.

BOY LIFE AND LABOUR

By Arnold Freeman. Preface by Dr. M. E. Sadler. P. S. King and Son. 252 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.09.



The investigation on which this work is based was conducted at the request of the town council of Birmingham, England. The author's special purpose was to ascertain the causes of the deterioration in character and in earning capacity which has been observed in a great number of boys who fail to pass at once into the higher grades of labor but escape the special temptations of street trading and casual employment.

What he found in Birmingham has its counterpart elsewhere and the remedies which he suggests are applicable, with the necessary changes, to the needs of districts which, in many of their circumstances, are unlike the city where the inquiry was made.

The work was done in co-operation with the Juvenile Labour Exchange. There is a useful index and an excellent brief bibliography. Students of child labor will find this book suggestive and helpful.

FLORENCE KELLEY.

BOOKS RECEIVED

- EUGENICS. Twelve University Lectures. Foreword by Lewellys F. Barker. Dodd, Mead & Co. 348 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$2.14.
- WORK AND WEALTH—A Human Valuation. By J. A. Hobson. The Macmillan Co. 367 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$2.25.
- NATIONAL GUIDES. By A. R. Orage. The Macmillan Co. 370 pp. Price \$1.60; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.70.
- MINIMUM RATES IN THE CHAIN MAKING INDUSTRY. By R. H. Tawney. The Macmillan Co. 167 pp. Price \$0.50; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$0.55.
- PSYCHOLOGY AND SOCIAL SANITY. By Hugo Munsterberg. Doubleday, Page & Co. 320 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.36.
- THE MYSTERY OF PAIN. By James Hinton. Mitchell Kennerley. 109 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.05.
- TEN SEX TALKS TO BOYS. By I. D. Steinhardt. J. B. Lippincott Co. 187 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.08.
- INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION IN THE ELEMENTARY SCHOOL. By Percival Cole. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 63 pp. Price \$0.35; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$0.39.
- THE MONTESSORI SYSTEM EXAMINED. By William Heard Kilpatrick, Ph.D. Houghton, Mifflin Co. 71 pp. Price \$0.35; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$0.39.
- AT THE BACK OF THE NORTH WIND. By George MacDonald. Simplified by Elizabeth Lewis. J. B. Lippincott Co. 126 pp. Price \$0.50; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$0.57.
- CONQUEST OF THE TROPICS. By Frederick Upham Adams. Doubleday, Page & Co. 368 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$2.23.
- THE DEVELOPMENT OF MODERN TURKEY AS MEASURED BY ITS PRESS. By Ahmed Emin. Columbia University Studies in History, Economics and Public Law. Longmans, Green & Co. Agts. 142 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.06.
- THE GREAT SOCIETY. By Graham Wallas. The Macmillan Co. 383 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$2.14.
- FOREIGN-BORN NEIGHBORS. By George William Tupper. Published by the author. 176 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.08.

Finger Prints

TEODORO

Florence Cross Kitchelt

FROM the ancient hills of Sicily, from the flower-embroidered fields where Proserpina played and Pluto wooed, they had come to America, the Agnellos—Teodoro and Maria. And in America,—"il Paradiso," they had dreamed of it—this is what befell.

They were erecting a model factory in our town, one of the first. It stands now, as a special sight for visitors. In the midst of a park, its stories of glass windows are barely a partition from the light. Within, the air is kept fresh by an elaborate ventilating system. The men in the dusty basements are paid for their work five dollars a week.

Teodoro was doing his share to help on this beneficent undertaking. With heavy barrows of mortar on his shoulder he scaled ladders, and walked narrow girders to carry to the masons that without which their labor would totter as by an earthquake. Amidst the chasms between the iron beams was a special cleft—an improvised elevator shaft.

If one lost his balance, or stepped too far aside to let another pass—one may read statistics to know the life-cost of labor—well, Teodoro was not dead when they examined him at the foot of the shaft. He breathed.

It was eighteen months before he could rise and walk about. But only a few days after the breaking of his body he was left alone, helpless on his bed, by a loving wife and an inhuman society, left to be the caretaker of four small children.

Not that he could take any care of them—his body in pain and his mind drifting; he knew not whether they cried or ate, nor that the baby each day fell asleep on the sidewalk. But the mother knew that they ate, for she left bread every morning on the table, and she worked from seven until six to get the money to buy it. She helped to can food. Neither the food nor the profits of her industry came to her. The argument goes that four dollars and a half a week was all she was worth, this tall, fine, uncrushed soul. But later, when the model factory was completed, she worked there and was given fifty cents more.

The Royal Insurance Company, with which the contractors for the model factory made business arrangements to care for their injured and dead, sent from their palace in New York an agent to our town. He, dwelling in the se-

curity of a high-storied office, had his agent, too. The sub-agent was a political ward-heeler, regularly maintained in a municipal position that from this vantage point he might usefully control the unknowing foreigner.

In this way the power of the New York palace presented itself at the bedside of Teodoro, about a week after the breaking of his body. The lids lay thin over his sunken eyes. His rosy begrimed little children stood silently, innocently around. It was neither evening, Saturday afternoon, nor Sunday when the mother, the protector, was at home.

Patiently the sub-agent sat and patiently he held Teodoro's hand. He waited quietly when the man's consciousness seemed to ebb away in utter exhaustion. But after half an hour of effort, with the gentlest possible guiding of the pale, gnarled hand, waiting a space between each letter, he caused him to write his name, "Agnello, Teodoro" (which translated means "lamb, the gift of God") at the foot of a piece of paper.

For a pittance Teodoro had signed away his right to sue the contractors for the almost total loss of his body, life, liberty, and the ability to pursue happiness. The money never went further than to pay the doctors' bills. That was some comfort, for among his compatriots to owe a doctor is great dishonor.

So the mother worked, bending her shoulders under the weight of America. And the little unnested children cried. One of them fell sick and died; a new baby came and died. The tall woman grew taller for thinness, and her cheeks pinker, and her eyes blacker for the fire of the soul that burned through them.

Then, there in the model factory, Maria Agnello also fell—fell into another unguarded pit. She had no time to see it in her great haste. A five-dollar-a-week job builds no rail round the pit of over-work and deepening responsibility. Tuberculosis stepped beside and pushed her down. She fought bravely for health. In October they took her to the county hospital. In about two weeks she was dead. The four children were removed by the Children's Aid Society and separated in two orphan asylums.

The maimed man was alone. He could walk now and get around haltingly; he tried to find work. But our industrial system has no place for the lame. No work; no power to work; no children. Two were gone forever,

and the other four were gone to the Sisters who would not let him see and kiss even the baby but once in two weeks. No wife. She came not back from work as she had done these three years. No home. There used to be a place that was his, and not his brother-in-law's. Day after day he sat in the corner of the kitchen with his head on his arm and sobbed. The children and the boarders and the women washing and cooking there grew used to it.

He felt his mind bewildered. A thousand thoughts like a mob beat through his brain. Slowly one emerged and knocked insistently: how did it all happen? He traced back step by step through the gloom to the old sunshine—ah, the fall! But that was by the grace of God. Then the Royal Insurance Company's agent's sub-agent. Had he not heard that from an injury like his the law awarded not hundreds, but thousands of dollars?

If the sub-agent had not held his hand half an hour making him sign a paper, there would have been more money, and not only could the doctors have been paid, but Maria could have stayed at home, and she would still be tall, taller than he, and pink under her dark eyes, and the children would not have died, or have gone to the asylum, and there would be a home, and he would be getting stronger, and someone would give him work.

He grew feverish. O, for some justice to change it all, to make life right! His friends, the laborers in field and factory, were impotent like himself. Justice—a judge—if he could tell his story to a judge! The thought was like a stimulant. To the judge all things are possible. Teodoro tried to straighten his bent body and went out of the house to find a friend.

"No one sees the judge except they who commit crimes," said the friend. "You must get yourself arrested."

"Then will I commit a crime, a little crime," said Teodoro, his eyes alight with inspiration. "I will commit it against the devil."

The sub-agent, being a ward-heeler, could be found on the streets any day, but a policeman might not be at hand. Therefore, Teodoro would go where arrest was certain, to headquarters itself. Besides, the healer spent much of his time there.

It was morning and the middle of summer. The friend and Teodoro started early, for the walk was long and the man with a mission was lame. The brick wrapped in newspaper that he carried grew heavy, but he would not let the friend touch it.

Through the center of the city, across the canal bridge, up an ugly street they trudged until they came to a certain red brick building. Teodoro was tired and breathed heavily, but he mounted the stairs with persistence. It was the hour

of court, and people and policemen were everywhere. Already the elation of success strengthened him—he knew he could not fail—and then would he see the judge—judge—justice—hope—

The heeler, with his sleek face and immovable smile, came down the hallway, and bowed right and left to his superiors.

Teodoro raised the brick and threw it. He had not planned where the brick should strike; he had only planned to throw it. It struck no one, only the wall. But it made a thud, and it aroused carefully cached thoughts in the mind of the sub-agent. Teodoro gained his point—he was arrested. Like one in peace after great trouble he limped away to jail, and the friend went home.

In his cell Teodoro kept repeating to himself in ecstasy, "Judge, good judge, have justice upon me! No misdemeanor I, but an honest man. The fall in the model factory knocked the power out of my body, and the big insurance company's agent held my hand half an hour to make me sign away my maintenance. The babies died, and Maria, my wife—God know how—and the children are closed in the orphanage. Good judge, have justice upon me."

The next morning, Teodoro was arraigned in court a brief moment. When he tried to speak he was told his trial would come later. In answer to the question, "guilty or not guilty" he replied "not guilty." A black wagon called and he was taken to the county hospital to be examined as to his sanity. For the heeler said he thought the man was insane, and did not know what he was talking about. The sub-agent was afraid just a little bit; he frequently was, but it always passed off in a moment, like a bad dream, because the city government was his friend.

So Teodoro waited to see the good judge. As he could speak little English, it tried his patience at the hospital to sit dumb as well as lame all day, but he was full of hope, and he waited trustingly for the judgment.

Suddenly one morning, four or five weeks later, they called him to prepare to leave. He was not insane, said the doctors.

An intensity of hope and longing possessed him. He was oblivious to the officers, the black wagon, the ride. And the officials were oblivious to his rights. No one advised him that he might and should have counsel.

Trembling with the emotion of his great purpose, he was passed into the room of justice. He looked only at the judge.

The heeler was the judge's interpreter. It was he really who had power over life and death. In this case he could not interpret, being also the complainant. The judge peered over his round cheeks, annoyed at this halt in the dis-

bursement of deserts, and spied a young foreigner who was waiting to be tried for assault upon his wife. "Call him over," shouted the judge. So the assailant acted as interpreter.

The judge began, "What is your name?" and the young fellow translated. "Agnello, Teodoro, and, oh, your Honor, I come to you as one good and powerful who can make right great wrongs—"

"Tell him to stop talking," thundered the judge. "Has he got a lawyer?"

"No."

"On the first day of August, about nine in the morning, in police headquarters, did you throw a brick at this gentleman here?"

Teodoro nodded "yes," and the immovable smile of the heeler, the city official, the sub-agent of the Royal Insurance Company, slightly broadened.

"Six months in the penitentiary," shouted the judge.

The prisoner was pushed out. His interview with the all-powerful judge had taken exactly three minutes.

Eight months after leaving prison he died.

The children passed once more through the dingy offices of the Children's Aid Society, Maria-like-her-mother, the older boy, Nando, grown rough from living on the streets, Doro with the yellow curls and the baby, beautiful as Enna's flowers.

The lake in Sicily beside which Proserpina once played is now full of mud, and the brooks from the hill of Enna are dry.

THE JOB DOCTOR

Edna Bonser

"ARE you the job doctor?"

I looked up and faced a pair of the brightest blue eyes I ever saw. They shone with a defiant timidity under a tousled mop of red hair. They were set in a face half of whose freckles were hopelessly obscured by dirt. And eyes, hair, and freckles belonged to the smallest specimen of humanity representing labor, that I have ever seen.

"Yes," I said, "you might call me that. Who calls me the job doctor?"

"Oh, de kids," he answered gaily.

Then his defiance and his gaiety dropped from him as he settled to the business in hand. With a little catch in his voice, he began, "Me name's Mike. I've been workin' for Clancy. I got fired."

Just these few words and the way he said them, told about all I needed to know about Mike. To judge human nature and to know the truth when he hears it is part of the job doctor's work. There was no need to ask Mike why he got fired. I knew Clancy, and I knew all the employers in the community. And again I was face to face with the task that always seemed overwhelming—the responsibility of direct-

ing a life. That, too, is part of a job doctor's work. Yet sometimes I feel like a meddler with sacred things.

"Well, Mike," I said as cheerfully as I could, "if you had your way about it, what would you be?"

Quick as a flash came the answer. "I'd be a boss like Clancy."

He almost took my breath away. Here it was in this mite of male humanity, shining out through the blue eyes, the quick smile, the lifting of the hand, and emphatic sweep of the arm: I'd be a boss, I'd be a power. I'd control things and people. Ambition—how can it be kept alive and at the same time directed, in errand boys, news boys, apprentices?

"Mike," I said, "I'm not going to ask you why you got fired. I'm not going to ask you a lot of questions. And I'm not going to get you a job."

His face fell. I saw it with a little pang of sympathy. I wish I could hand out nice fat jobs to all the boys.

"Getting jobs for boys is not my business," I went on; "but I am going to doctor this job business. I am going to give you some help." The blue eyes were shining again.

"Listen, Mike. Your life, like everybody's, may follow one of two roads. These two roads start out pretty much alike. But they get different as you go on. One road leads to a great light and it gets easier as you go, and the other road leads to a great darkness and it gets harder. The light is success; the darkness is failure."

Mike was listening with every faculty. He understood, too. I could see that. He had expected to be questioned and catalogued and ticketed and asked to come again. This was new and interesting.

"I'm a job doctor, remember, so I'm going to give you some medicine."

Mike looked apprehensive.

"You are to take a big dose of it every day," I went on. "It's called 'constructive ambition.' It will help you to stay on the road with the light at the end."

Mike looked as though he didn't quite understand. However, he had something to think about.

"It's like this, Mike. It's a fine thing to be boss. I want you to remember all the time that you are going to be a boss. That is the ambition. But you can't become a boss unless you keep at work every day. This is the constructive part. Do you see?"

Sure he saw. Mike was quick and smart.

"Being a boss is the light at the end of your road, Mike. What are you going to do about it?"

Now Mike was thinking hard. "They ain't a school for bosses, is they?" he asked.

"There's a fine night school for boys, where you can learn some of the things

you'll need. But the best school for the day time is being on the job with both feet." I was looking quite anxiously at him.

"What are you going to do about it?" I repeated.

"Well," he said slowly rubbing his red head, "I'll go to the night school and learn lots. And I'll work hard. And," more slowly still, "I guess I'll go ast Clancy to take me back. But I wisht—you wouldn't tell me mudder."

It was out at last. That was his fear and shame. But I had proved his grit, too. I reached out and patted his bony little shoulder.

"Good for you, old man. Mum's the word until you make good. And, here, I'll write a line to Clancy."

"WHO IS RESPONSIBLE?"

Mary Gove Smith

THERE is a place down the harbor where people are "put away." Not many know much about it, except those who are sent there to serve their terms. An Italian man of our neighborhood was put away last winter,—sentenced to two years. One night a policeman reported attempted arson. The man carried insurance. Everyone said the man was sober, industrious, attentive to his own business, careful for his home, ambitious for his children,—a law-abiding citizen.

He said that he had refused to sell shoes to a policeman at cut prices, and that the policeman was angry.

The man's all was in his shop. Lawyer's fees were eating into it. He could not hold out. By legal advice he blindly pleaded guilty, under the supposition that by so doing he would be released on probation. But he did not go home again. He knows, and the policeman knows, which one tried to fire the store.

Our man was punished and put away for two years. Perhaps we wonder what he did while he was away to better his citizenship. But that is another story.

And is that the end of it? No, only the beginning.

At home, in one of the many dingy little tenements of a dingy old building, are the wife and two small children—beautiful children. The woman, crazed into dumb stupor, can do little but cry over her whining babies, even while she torpidly tries to keep up the store.

Of course, she fails. Of course, she has to move out of her little home into one horrid, hired room. Of course, the meals are scant, or lacking altogether, and, of course, there is never a day when one or two of the babies is not sick or fretting, and pulling at the dragged out mother, drugged into suffering stupidity by grief and perplexity and bodily want.

You might have been interested in this family before. Now you have to be. Because you are supporting it. Not wittingly, nor adequately, nor reasonably. First, you are paying for the man where he is put away. That is quite expensive. Second, you are giving some coal or some groceries by the Overseers of the Poor. Or perhaps you have helped the little Roman Catholic Church, which gives a stove—the mother improvidently sold hers for bread. Or perhaps you gave to the hospital, which has to take first one child and then another. Or perhaps to the day nursery, which keeps a child or two by the day, that the mother may have more time in which to try to unravel the ever knotting tangle of the mesh at the store.

The family has taken the time of the Associated Charities, too. It has been a rather expensive family, hasn't it? And without a question you have been taxed to keep them going. Through public institutions and private individuals, the punishment of that man has been a high-priced proposition.

Probably you know now why I have outlined this story. Probably you have guessed that the settlement did what it could to counsel and to comfort. The man's landlord was his good friend, too. The governor granted a petition for the

man's pardon, after more than four months of mental torture.

Yet all this combined aid was such a pitiful substitute for the support of the family. They were paupers; and, oh, that is a hard thing. There are so many paupers. That family has suffered perhaps beyond complete restoration. Yet the harrowed, frightened, driven look of the woman is yielding to returning hope and courage. She cleans and cooks and mends for her husband and her babies. She has learned at the settlement some of the old Italian stitches, and it has sold her work, so that with money, too, she helps. Together, with unembittered spirit, they fight back to independence.

The story is a comparatively trivial illustration of how, as a body of people, we are continuing many things and many systems blindly and unreasonably, unquestioningly. In this case, your money gave help in the form of comfort and counsel and friendliness. I think it was well worth while to spend it so, but, ultimately, what can help most will be to question, first, the procedure which brought a verdict of "guilty;" and, second, the wisdom and justice of this form of retribution. Until then, help and comfort will be everlastingly necessary for infinite multiples of this instance. Thought will bring the contribution of mind; and mind, added to heart, will pile upon pile the questioning of things as they are. Then a common mind and heart among the people will give basic and constructive expression to the demands for ways of justice, and of greater common happiness and development.

The contributing of money toward any cause which is heartily and scientifically trying to question, and passionately and sanely trying to answer, is helping toward the goal almost any man desires. But it is the thinking of each contributor, the reading and searching and probing for the fundamental reasons for the need of alleviating funds, which can eliminate the very need.

THE CHIMNEYS

JOSEPH WARREN BEACH.

NOW the dusk settles over river and city,
Dim, rolling vapors rise to meet the crawling,
Heavy breath of the chimneys brown and murky,
And joining forces in the deepening twilight,
They make advance in one dark, ghostly tide.
Already it has filled the river-bottoms,
And steadily rises round the spindling legs
Of the airy bridges, till they are overwhelmed.
Now vanish gable, spire and all that pictures
Our human life and labor along the skies.

The fog has drawn its smutty finger across
The clear gold of the fading sunset. Only,
As lone survivors of the submerged city,
Four slender shafts rise black upon the gold,
Piercing the smother: idle as in a dream,
Four clustered smokestacks. Having clean forgot
Their daily toil, with what serene detachment
They lift their nostrils in the golden air,
As if they had no part nor interest
In the cloudy fortunes of the world below!

Communications

The latch-string of the Communications Department is out to all readers of **THE SURVEY**. Lively debate and good cheer are to be had within. But the space available for the department makes necessary the following house rules:

1. Communications of 250 words or less, criticising, protesting against, or developing something published in **THE SURVEY**, will be published, so far as possible, in the first issue after receipt.
2. All other accepted communications will be published in the order received, if space remains *after* the letters described in paragraph 1 have been used.
3. The maximum length of communications is 500 words, except in cases where the writer convinces the Editor that more is needed. The extreme limit is 1,000 words.
4. Contributing Editors and authors of signed articles will be given an opportunity for rejoinder in the same issue in which letters of criticism are published.
5. In discussions back and forth between readers, each succeeding letter is limited to half the length of the previous one from the same contributor.
6. The Editor reserves the right to reject letters which he regards as libelous, letters of spite, letters on subjects outside the field of **THE SURVEY**; and for other good and sufficient reasons which he would be prepared to defend.

SCHOOL IN SUMMER

TO THE EDITOR: Starting in Newark, N. J., the idea of opening schools in summer has spread all through the state. Newark has 10,000 children enrolled this summer. Jersey City over 8,000.

There is no reason why school should stop in summer. The only reason it started that way was that the children were wanted to work on the farm. That does not apply in cities at all.

It may be a hardship for teachers to work over forty weeks a year, but life is full of hardships, and most of us have to work the year round.

JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

New York.

A CITY PICNIC

TO THE EDITOR: What was called the "first world's community picnic" was held at Fond du Lac, Wis., on July 4. The city has 18,000 inhabitants and there were many visitors from outside towns, so that it was probably the first city community picnic on so large a scale.

It was a "safe and sane" celebration, there being but a stray irrepressible boy or two, who would celebrate in the way the fathers did, when they were boys.

There was a noticeable unity of spirit and a community of interest. Bands playing on the streets made things lively; sports on the streets aided in the amusement; picnic dinners and suppers at the parks brought all sorts and conditions of men, women and children together; parades afforded entertainment, and, as prizes were offered, provoked healthy competition, that was also good-natured; and as a fitting close municipal fire-

works, set off by experts, brought the celebration to a safe and grand termination.

There were only a few minor accidents and the great crowds were handled very skilfully. It was a pronounced success.

WILLIAM EVERETT JILLSON.

[Librarian, Ripon College]
Ripon, Wis.

POLICE WOMEN

TO THE EDITOR: Some weeks ago I asked through you for information from your readers as to the presence of regularly appointed policewomen in their respective cities.

Through some replies and much correspondence to verify newspaper and other reports, I prepared a list as part of my report on policewomen given before the biennial session of women's clubs in Chicago and the International Association of Chiefs of Police in Grand Rapids. Following these, delegates present added a few names. Thus has been gathered the most complete and accurate list I have been able to make.

This is approximately in order of succession: Los Angeles, 5; Baltimore, 5; Seattle, 5; Fargo, N. D., 1; Bellingham, Wash., 1; Grand Forks, N. D., 1; Topeka, Kan., 2; Toronto, Canada, 2; Omaha, Neb., 1; San Francisco, 3; Rochester, N. Y., 1; Chicago, 20; Ottawa, Canada, 1; Aurora, Ill., 1; San Antonio, Texas, 1; Syracuse, N. Y., 1; Pittsburgh, Pa., 4; Sioux City, Ia., 1; Superior, Wis., 1; Racine, Wis., 1; Salem, Mass., 1; St. Paul, Minn., 3; Minneapolis, 2; Denver, Col., 1, and Colorado Springs, 1.

This is a total of 25 cities and 66 policewomen.

Three cities have Departments of Public Safety for Women and Children: Portland, Ore.; Tacoma, Wash., and Oakland, Cal.

I shall be glad of further facts from your readers now or at any future time. A postal card sent to me when any new city falls into line or increases its number of policewomen would enable me to present to **THE SURVEY** a corrected list from time to time, as well as to supply correct facts to the many other inquirers who are laboring in the interest of this movement.

ALICE STEBBINS WELLS.

[Policewoman.]

Box 1856, Los Angeles, Cal.

RESTITUTION

TO THE EDITOR: In reading the June 20 number of your magazine (which I have followed gratefully from its beginning) I was much interested in A Rejected Letter on page 332. May I refer to a word in it which has perplexed me? That word is "restitution."

The writer holds, if I understand him, that Mr. Rockefeller should make some "restitution." What is not clear to me is, what restitution Mr. Rockefeller should make that many of the rest of us should not make also.

As nearly as I can yet see, multitudes of the rest of us have used, or tried to use, much the same selfish methods for money-getting, that Mr. Rockefeller is accused of using. The chief difference between him and us, as well as I can see, is that he has done business on a vast scale, and has also enjoyed amazing luck. I use the word luck only in a Christian sense. The moral principle, or lack of good principle, has been common to all.

That Mr. Rockefeller may owe a great restitution need not be denied. But if he does, do not I and others (capitalists in the sense that every man is one who has saved something today against the future), who are conscious of having profited however little, and been willing to profit, by methods not free from selfishness?

The "cataclysm" that your honored contributor sees as possibly approaching, others must also see. I see it in the Colorado riots, and those of Lawrence, and of Wakefield; in the Lorimer failure, and the revelations of the New York and New Haven investigations and in scores of other shocking things. Nor do I believe that rich corporations tell the truth when they say they cannot afford to raise lowest wages at all, while they can afford to spend such immense sums in salaries and fees.

Others see this horrible cataclysm as possibly near, and confess that if it come, it will be only the just penalty of widespread sin; and they, too, join your very impressive contributor in his prayer, that a merciful God may spare us, or our children after us, such awful punishment!

But it seems to me possible, that if a multitude of us less conspicuous offenders, measured by the dollars involved, were moved together in penitence to make such restitution as we can find out how to make, we may do al-

most as much to avert the threatened peril, as Mr. Rockefeller alone could do. And I suppose our greatly respected friend could advise us that we generally do better work, in casting out the beam from our neighbor's eye, if we at least recognize the possibility of some mote in our own.

W. J. B.

Concord Junction, Mass.

WOMEN'S VOTES IN ILLINOIS

TO THE EDITOR: As an old subscriber to THE SURVEY—my name was on your books when *Charities* was a four-page leaflet—I beg to protest against Graham Taylor's recent article on the Illinois Women at the Polls.

There are different deductions drawn from those elections by people quite as well informed and as conscientious as Mr. Taylor; and it would seem more worthy of the dignified standing of THE SURVEY either to give fair play expression to the opinions on both sides, or else to present a perfectly neutral statement of the bare facts of the case.

MRS. BENJAMIN NICOLL.

New York.

TO THE EDITOR: It is very disappointing to have you state half the case for the Chicago elections as if it were the whole story. I had not expected it from you, although it is very commonly done. You give the number of women voters as 73 per cent of those who registered, and state that the men who voted were but 72 per cent of their registration number, but you omit to give the relative proportion of men and women who registered to vote to those who did not so register. You do not mention that approximately 79 per cent of the men eligible to vote registered themselves as voters, whereas at the most generous estimate only 42 per cent of women signified by registration their intention of voting.

This is a very serious omission, for the result of this first election ever held in Chicago at which women could vote—in which they mustered their forces to the fullest extent possible—indicates very clearly to my mind that only a small minority is trying to force its will on the great majority of women. Counted in this way, which is the only fair way to compute women's desire for the ballot, only 30 per cent of the women who might have voted cared to do so.

In Massachusetts we hear much talk by suffragists about their not wanting chivalry but justice—yet they this year killed the anti-suffragists' bill which asked that a referendum of all school committee voters might be taken on the subject of woman suffrage. They prevented the women's having a voice in deciding the question of their own political status, which would surely have been an act of common justice, because they thought they had a better chance of winning their desires from the chivalry of men. This is not justice nor is it truth, and a cause which stoops to such methods is not one which appeals to the best of women.

MRS. WILLIAM LOWELL PUTNAM.

Boston.

[The article on Women's Voting Significantly Tested in Illinois in THE SURVEY for April 18, to which the above exceptions are taken, understated the official returns which were subsequently reported by the election commissioners, as attested by the following signed statement:

Total men's vote.....	314,863
Total women's vote.....	169,707
Number of men registered.....	455,283
Number of women registered.....	217,614
Men's votes at primary election....	128,867
Women's votes at primary election.	47,674

W. H. STUART,

Chief Clerk Board of Election
Commissioners of the City of Chicago.

The figures of the total number of men and women eligible to register, the absence of which is said to be "a very serious omission," were omitted in the above statement, as in the article, because they do not exist. The election commissioners assure the editor that they have no basis on which to estimate the number of those who by their age, nativity and time of residence are qualified to register and vote. Therefore the "most generous estimate" of one critic that only 42 per cent of Chicago women eligible to vote signified by registration their intention of voting, is unfounded, as is the criticism of another who insists that only 34 per cent of 640,000 women who could have registered did so. This latter critic scaled down the total women's votes to 92,000 when they were actually 169,707.

The assertion that women "mustered their forces to the fullest extent possible" is not justified by the election commissioners' anticipation of a great increase in the votes of women at the next election in the spring.

The simple facts reported in THE SURVEY article and still further emphasized by the subsequent official returns, were, and still are, "conceded by all concerned to be a very favorable showing for the women at their first registration and election." The writer is at a loss to understand how this conclusion states only "half the case for the Chicago election as if it were the whole story," or how "different deductions" could be drawn by others. No other deductions from the authentic facts and figures above stated have been drawn in the editorials of any of Chicago's daily newspapers, or by any public official or influential private citizen there.—G. T.]

THE BLACK MAN'S CASE

TO THE EDITOR: Under the heading, The South Divided on the Black Man's Case, THE SURVEY of June 13 speaks approvingly of Oswald Garrison Villard's address before the recent convention of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People.

It is undoubtedly true that the South is and always has been "divided on the black man's case," with 99 per cent of the southern white people earnestly desiring his welfare. It is also undoubtedly true that there is a growing feeling among southerners that they need no longer fear to speak out in favor of his racial advancement, to take general and organized action to that end. This is due to the fact that the southern community has become convinced that it has the warm sympathy of a majority of northern people in the solving of the Negro problem along the lines of racial separation, with the political and social dominance of the white man.

If that conviction is destroyed, there

will be a sudden and rapid subsidence of this movement resulting in untold damage to the Negro. Mr. Villard's address, abounding as it does in implications leading to misunderstanding, in quotations segregated from the context and the well-known convictions of the southerners quoted, in unjust inferences, is well calculated to mark the beginning of such a retrogressive movement.

When a southern white woman writes a book urging the improvement of Negro railway accommodations, it may be taken for granted that she is somewhat discouraged at being made to appear in favor of abolishing the separate coach. When southern newspapers of responsibility and conscience, such as the *Houston Post*, the *Atlanta Constitution* and the *Columbia State*, urge their constituents to take a warm interest in the amelioration of certain conditions affecting the Negroes, their hands are not strengthened by having their editorials twisted into an indictment of the southern social system, with an implied *soupcoun* of confession and penitence.

Neither is the zeal of the individual southerner warmed by the injustice of omissions from Mr. Villard's address. The death rate of Negroes in Atlanta is twice as high as the death rate of the whites, but when Mr. Villard cites this as evidence of the total failure of the southern Negro plan, it seems that in justice he should say that the Kansas death rate of Negroes is 32.2 and of whites 10.14, with similar ratios obtaining in every northern state.

To a southerner it seems due cause for resentment that Mr. Villard does not neglect to declare South Carolina a hundred years behind the times because of alleged injustice to the Negro, but says nothing at all of the fact that South Carolinians are paying for the public school education of 25,000 more colored children than white (if editorial news is to be believed) although it is probable that the taxes from South Carolina Negroes do not constitute 6 per cent of the whole. And when he derisively quotes a southern congressman of the fifties as saying that the program of the Abolitionists would make Virginia a desert, it seems to me the proper place for a confession that it did that very thing and that Virginia continued worse than a desert till it was purged of Garrisonian theories.

Mr. Villard's propaganda is bearing fruit. Not long since, I met a Kentuckian who had read a news report of his address. "I gave fifty dollars out of a salary of fifteen hundred to the establishment of a Negro college," he said, "and I gave fifty more to help a Negro boy go to Tuskegee. I will never be such a fool again."

It seems to me that for the good of the Negro, Mr. Blease, Mr. Villard and all others who "have no words too violent" for those who disagree with them should be eliminated as much as possible from the discussion of the Negro problem.

DEETS PICKETT.

[Research secretary, Temperance Society, M. E. Church.]
Topeka, Kas.

SUPERVISOR OF SOCIAL EDUCATION

TO THE EDITOR: Every large school system needs a supervisor of social education because:

The American public school was established primarily to promote mental culture; later physical culture was added; now, social culture is seen to be a necessary corollary. But if a system is to increase by growth rather than by accretion care must be exercised to so correlate each new feature that its addition will strengthen methods directed toward the primary end, the mental culture of the child.

Public opinion is demanding that bodily health be improved in pupils and that a spirit of civic service and community responsibility shall be inculcated. Education is seen to be a continuous process. It is no longer just that the diploma should shut the door of the school against the graduate. Continuation classes and part-time schemes are arising to supply this demand for continued education.

Moreover it is recognized that education must be specific, not general. The hard-of-hearing child, the mental defective, the cripple, the tuberculous child must no longer be neglected. Insistent also is the demand not only for vocational guidance that shall put the worker where he can best work but also for social centers where after working hours he can find healthful recreation.

So the aim in education is no longer individual, that we may produce intelligent persons but social, that we may produce efficient citizens. Yet because true social value rests on the attainments of the individual the public school must retain those features and have that supervision it has hitherto required. It must now, however, acquire other features of social value and provide for them adequate supervision.

Such supervision must imply familiarity with the problems of education and sociology, an intimate understanding of schoolroom conditions, methods, and theories. A knowledge of social conditions in a given community, discretion, and tact are essentials. Some of the details which come under social education may be listed as follows:

Follow-up work for medical inspector and truant officer.

Visiting homes or supervising visiting teachers.

Investigating home environment of defectives.

Special oversight of education of children defective in sight, hearing, or general health.

Establishment of social centers, supervision of recreation activities.

Establishment of co-operation between all the uplift agencies and the Board of Education.

Vocational guidance. Conducted tours through city's industries.

Publicity—supplying material valuable from newspaper standpoint but prepared with wisdom and educational forethought.

The burden of the above details and others of like character now falls upon the superintendent or is divided among

many administrative heads—a burdensome and wasteful arrangement.

Not the least factor in this wastefulness is the loss of unity due to lack of social insight. Unless the officials have a body of common knowledge concerning social needs and remedies and plenty of time to confer and agree confusion and waste are bound to result.

The desirability of dealing with the demands of social education under a separate department is recognized in many quarters. By whatever designation known such an official is needed to assume the burdens now borne by other officials and to systematize and unify the efforts directed toward social education so as to economically meet the ever-increasing demands.

ETTA V. LEIGHTON.

[Director, Social Center,
Board of Education.]
Passaic, N. J.

SAFETY-AT-SEA

TO THE EDITOR: I do not want to try to shift the blame upon any one else for what I am represented as saying in my article of June 27. It is my fault that the printer gives "week at sea" in two places where I intended to be interpreted as saying "wreck at sea," and that some of our "boys" are exempted, where I meant "bays." Will you kindly give space to this late interpretation of my puzzling hieroglyphics?

My reference to Mrs. Kelley grew out of a conversation I had with her during a comparatively recent visit to Ottawa, in which I pointed out the absurdity of assigning positions in life-boats. In spite of the fact that the system is in vogue on Japanese steamships I am confident that it would only add to confusion at a time when confusion spells death. It was because Mrs. Kelley gave circulation to the theory in her article, that I associated her name with it in mine.

Following my ungallant denial of a proposition made by one of the opposite sex, I must make again the statement that had the *Volturro* had no life-boats the loss of life would have been less.

In the searching examination of passengers and crew of the ill-fated craft, and of rescuers as well, not a hint was made that seamen, davits or boats were at fault. Having examined the ship before sending members of my own family upon it only a few weeks before it was lost, and having come to know the officers and many of the crew after the awful casualty, I protest against the imputation that under the circumstances, keeping in mind the raging sea which had calmed down when the *Kroonland*, upon which Mrs. Kelley was a passenger, sent out its gallant rescuers, better results might have been obtained.

I am not asking for anything "less than the most perfect provision for safety at sea that ingenuity has devised." I am only asking that men who aim at providing the maximum safety be not hindered by absurd and needless legislation suggested by those who have never commanded a ship nor known by actual

experience the condition under which much of our navigation especially upon inland waters, must be carried on.

As to the suggestion that I wholly missed the point of your editorial, I might perhaps plead guilty "under extenuating circumstances." I want the cry so framed and voiced that all men shall not be thought to be dishonest because a few have been proved to be. Let us emphasize the fact that the bulk of mankind, including steamboatmen, is neither selfish nor heartless, and then unmercifully flay those who are either or both.

C. SEYMOUR BULLOCK.

Ottawa, Canada.

MENTALITY AND PRISON REFORM

TO THE EDITOR: Your issue of April 11, contained an interesting article by the chairman of the Executive Committee of the National Commission on Prison Labor which, though it discusses most of the phases of the prison situation toward which the efforts of reform must be directed, does not at all touch upon one problem in this connection and that one of the most important, namely, the mentality of the convicts.

No one who has watched the prisoners file past the magistrates or the judges of Special and General Sessions, who has observed their answers to questions and their behavior when sentenced can fail to be impressed by the apparent low grade of their average intelligence. Granted that the majority are underfed, below par physically, whatever the contributing causes, it is a well-known fact that a large proportion of the prisoners in our prisons today are below the average mentally.

Of what avail then, will be reforms in dress, reforms in occupation, reforms in sentence, reforms in treatment, if we make no effort to ascertain the applicability of such reforms to the possibilities of the individual convict? A man or woman of low-grade mind cannot appreciate the subtler distinctions between right and wrong made by more sharpened intelligences; cannot do even the same grade of work and must be governed by an entirely different set of rules. Given even the most nearly ideal prison management conceivable, service of sentence will merely punish and not reform unless in such system there is a distinct recognition of the difference in values of specific methods as applied to varying mentalities, and indeed physical equipment, on which alertness, keenness and reasonableness so greatly depend.

At Bedford Reformatory a splendid building for psychological research and investigation attests the approbation of at least one famous expert, Commissioner Davis, to the value of ascertaining the mental calibre of persons under penal sentence as the initial step in procuring their reform. Dr. Schlapp's clinic, connected with the Children's Court in New York city is another instance of effort in this direction. But no similar examinations are being made of the prisoners in Auburn, Clinton, Sing Sing, Dannemora, to mention a few in New York state.

Cannot the National Commission on

Prison Labor, as its most logical initial step, begin a concerted effort to establish in all prisons a laboratory for statistical and psychological research, whose methods and means would be gradually perfected as its material increased, and which alone could balance the value of any reform as a lasting asset to the community against a sincere but misdirected idealism?

DOROTHY STRAUS.

[Attorney.]
New York.

EVE

TO THE EDITOR: The woman question, which in its last analysis is not the woman question but the race question, is being constantly presented to us today by educators, statesmen, philanthropists, physicians and others. Once in a while it is presented by a genius.

Katharine Howard is one of these rare geniuses, and the book in which she has presented the subject is called *Eve*. This wonderful little prose poem is much more than a tract for the times, and although it contains but forty-seven pages, it says more than most writers can say in ten times that space.

The scene opens after the expulsion from Eden, when Eve, the universal mother, has become but the "woe part of man," the drudge and the plaything of Adam, the universal man. The Inscrutable One finds her looking for graves, the graves of her sons, and mourning that although the graves are many, most of her sons are graveless, the sons whom she has borne for the killing.

He reminds her of the days of Eden, and tries to show her that woe has come upon her and her children because she has failed to recognize her power, and now she must get herself knowledge and wisdom, get wisdom and bear her own children! From Eden he promises to bring her some seeds of the fruit of the Tree of Knowledge of Good and Evil "which standeth so close to the Tree of Life that it sticketh."

Digging in the sweat of her brow, she is to plant these seeds not in one place only, but over the face of the earth, that all of her sons and daughters may eat. As she digs the voice of Adam is heard sounding through the ages. Eve speaks to him, and tells him that not until he has made himself fit for fatherhood, will she stay with him in the place of sanctuary, and bear their children. Then if she bears sons she will bear them to the honoring of the daughters, if she bears burdens, she will bear them to a purpose. And Adams replies.

"Eve! thou sayest . . . why didst not say 'it before?'"

And so the ages go on until the Inscrutable One can tell Eve that she has all, that she is all, for the fruit of the Tree of Knowledge which he gave her, has blossomed within; she has climbed the high tower to Herself, has made of Herself the Tree of Life Everlasting. And she is not alone, for Adam followeth with her, so close that her radiance falleth upon him, he climbs by her radiance. And now that her task is done

"She calleth her children, her children who wrangle no more,
For that great understanding hath enwrapped them in Peace,
She calleth her children to rest in her branches,
She calleth to Adam to rest in her shade."

MARY TAYLOR BLAUVELT.

Farmington, Conn.

SAID OF THE SURVEY

TO THE EDITOR: THE SURVEY is so good now-a-days that I am worried because I can't spend more time over each number.

MYRTA L. JONES.

Cleveland.

TO THE EDITOR: I was impressed recently to find more of our students had taken their reports on the National Education Association meeting at Richmond from THE SURVEY than from all other sources.

FRANK A. MANNY.

[Principal, Teachers' Training School.]
Baltimore, Md.

JOTTINGS

Ellen M. Osborn, secretary of the Salem, Mass., Associated Charities, was the first woman to be appointed a police officer under the new state law.

Courses of training for social workers have been announced by the University of Toronto to begin September 15. Particulars may be had of E. A. Bott at the university.

California state fruit growers at their forty-fourth convention, organized a protective league to oppose two initiative measures coming up at the fall election. One is the universal eight-hour bill, the other a proposed bill establishing a minimum wage of \$2.50 a day.

A general survey of compulsory sickness insurance in Europe will be made this summer by a committee of the National Civic Federation comprising J. W. Sullivan of the Typographical Union, Arthur Williams of the Association of Edison Illuminating Companies, and P. Tecumseh Sherman, attorney-at-law.

RECENT PAMPHLETS

Laws Relating to Mothers' Pensions in the United States, Denmark and New Zealand. Publication No. 7 of the Federal Children's Bureau. 10 cents a copy, of the Superintendent of Public Documents, Government Printing House, Washington, D. C.

A summary of the laws of the several states governing marriage and divorce of the feeble-minded, the epileptic and the insane; asexualization; institutional commitment and discharge of the feeble-minded and the epileptic. By Stevenson Smith, Madge W. Wilkinson and Louisa C. Wagoner. Bulletin No. 82 of the University of Washington, Seattle.

HOUSING IN SPAIN

[Continued from page 432.]

would meet with immediate response among the more enterprising workmen. Co-operation, however, does not readily appeal to the individualistic Spaniard, and the most successful of these enterprises are due to Socialist initiative. Some half-dozen co-operative building associations have been organized; only two were sufficiently advanced to receive a state subvention in December, 1913.

One of these, *La Laboriosa*, is an association of fifty workmen, none of whom earns more than \$600 a year. They have united their "labor and credit" for the purpose of building themselves each a home. They have been fortunate in securing gifts from certain wealthy citizens who are "protecting" members of the association. The initial stock of \$250 was made up of an entrance fee of \$5 from each of the members, and these contribute two pesetas a week until the construction is complete. In view of the meager earnings of these men, averaging about seventy-five cents a day, it is evident how much self-denial is represented in the \$1,040 per year so accumulated. Every member is also expected to give at least one day's labor each month, and all penalties imposed for slack payments, insubordination, etc., take the form of a day's labor for the common good.

The land for building has been given by the city government, and since it lies on the edge of the factory district, connection with the water supply and with the municipal drainage system can be made at slight cost. The land is divided into two lots on each of which twenty-five houses are being constructed at an estimated cost of \$1,300 apiece. Each house will have five rooms as well as basement and *azotea* or roof-garden, and each will possess a bit of land which may be used for flowers or vegetables or goats, according to the fancy of the owner.

It is estimated that the fifty houses together with some rather costly filling and grading work necessitated by the low level of the land, will cost \$75,000. This will be met in part by the weekly membership dues and by the annual subvention from the state; but a considerable loan will be made as soon as the construction progresses to a point that offers security for a mortgage. In connection with the government guarantee of interest, it is possible to negotiate such a loan at 4½ per cent. The proprietor of each house pledges his quota of \$4 a month toward the annual interest payment and the ultimate extinction of the debt.

In the minds of these enthusiastic co-operators, stimulated to their best endeavor by the thrill of a common hope, the workmen's dwellings being erected by the king at the other end of town and later to be assigned to forty families selected according to the royal notions of suitability and with no prospect of ownership, appears, to use their own words, *ridiculous*. It is to be hoped that the *protectores* of *La Laboriosa* will continue to contribute generously so that this rather hazardous financial enterprise may attain success.

August 1, 1914
Price 25 Cents



THE



Volume XXXII
Number 18

SURVEY



Lorado Taft's "Mother and Child" which helped rouse public sentiment for Better Babies in Chicago's recent campaign

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 Announcements for 1914-15, giving full information in regard to courses and requirements for admission, with statement of the professional opportunities for men and women in social work, will be sent on application

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New York

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116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 18

Contents

August 1, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

CHICAGO'S PLAN FOR DISPOSING OF WASTE	445
HOW A WOMAN QUELLED A PRISON MUTINY	445
THE PAGEANT OF NARBERTH	447
CHILDREN'S BUREAU POSITIONS TO BE FILLED	448
GOOD READING IN THE CONGRESSIONAL RECORD	448
THE BLACK PLAGUE	449
NEW YORK NIGHTWORK LAW FOR WOMEN UPHOLD, Josephine Goldmark	450

CONTRIBUTED ARTICLES

TOPEKA: "A CITY SURVEYED IS A CITY UNAFRAID".	Shelby M. Harrison	451
SETTLING LABOR DISPUTES IN AUSTRALIA	Mary Chamberlain	455
ORGANIZING THE LAW COURTS FOR EFFICIENCY	Herbert Harley	458
DRIVING "DEVILS" OUT OF SAMOA		460
FOUR WARDS OF THE HOSPITAL, Poems	Sarah N. Cleghorn	462
THE WESTINGHOUSE STRIKE	George V. S. Michels	463
"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"—X. VICTORY FOR THE PEOPLE	Albion Fellows Bacon	466

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THE SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC., is an adventure in co-operative journalism; incorporated under the laws of the state of New York, November, 1912, as a membership organization without shares or stockholders. Membership is open to readers who become contributors of \$10 or more a year. It is this widespread, convinced backing and personal interest which has made THE SURVEY a living thing.

THE SURVEY is a weekly journal of constructive philanthropy, founded in the 90's by the Century Organization Society of the City of New York. The first weekly issue of each month appears as an enlarged magazine number.

From the start, the magazine and its related activities have been broadly conceived as an educational enterprise, to be employed and developed beyond the limits of advertising and commercial receipts.

Price

Single copies of this issue twenty-five cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents. Changes of address should be mailed to us ten days in advance.

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The GIST of IT—

HELP Wanted! Sixty-one civil service positions in the Federal Children's Bureau are to be filled. Social workers are the most likely candidates. Many of the examinations can be taken at home. Page 448.

CONGRESSMAN Bryan of Washington read into the *Congressional Record* the full text of Mr. Parkinson's article, When the Ship Goes Down, from THE SURVEY of July 4. Page 448.

KATHARINE B. Davis, suitcase in hand, moved over to New York city's island prison and quelled a mutiny by her presence. Something of her philosophy of recent prison outbreaks across the country. Page 445.

AUSTRALIA heads off strikes and settles interstate disputes over minimum wage awards through a special federal court. The president of this court, recently a visitor in the United States, interviewed for THE SURVEY. Page 445.

THE trouble with our courts is simple enough. A little snigger organization, a chief justice who is chief executive, the authority to make rules—and we shall have substantive justice in place of demands for the recall of judges. Page 458.

A STRIKE for the property rights in a job—a business man's revelation of the Turtle Creek Valley strike of Westinghouse employees. Page 463.

NATIVE nurses, trained at the Naval Hospital, are driving the medicine men out of American Samoa and going forth through the islands as missionaries among a sorely diseased people. Page 460.

TOPEKA'S survey found some things amiss in the city's health, industry and administration, but the findings are being turned to good account by the strong local committee. Page 451.

THE experience of the Black Plague which heroic American doctors got from China's devastating epidemic of two years ago, and of the dangers from concealment drawn from San Francisco's folly, have served well in the minor outbreak of it at New Orleans. Page 449.

MRS. BACON'S state housing bill is not only law, but history now. Yet the story of how it was fought through the Indiana Legislature, of how the women's clubs and then the men lined up behind her, is more thrilling than any news of the day. Another chapter of "Beauty for Ashes." Page 466.

NEW YORK'S night-work law for women has been upheld by the State Supreme Court, an intermediate step on the way to the Court of Appeals. The Supreme Court has reversed itself frankly and completely since the Williams case of 1907. Page 450.



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For advanced work, send for the circulars describing the courses offered—Organizing Charity, Children's Work, Medical-Social Service, Neighborhood and Community Work.

JEFFREY R. BRACKETT, *Director.*
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tendent of industrial school. 47 years of age. First-class references furnished. Address 1294 SURVEY.

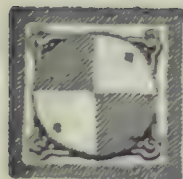
YOUNG LADY, experienced in massage and medical gymnastics, would like position in hospital or with physician. References. Address 1285, SURVEY.

SOCIAL Worker, School of Philanthropy training, seven (7) years' experience, six (6) years head of settlement, seeks change. Settlement or other social service. Will consider far West. Address 1288, SURVEY.

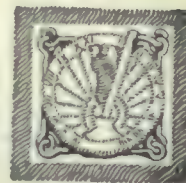
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"The National Training School prepares for executive positions in Young Women's Christian Associations. Address Secretarial Department, 600 Lexington Avenue, New York City."

THE SURVEY



COMMON WELFARE



CHICAGO'S PLAN FOR DISPOSING OF WASTE

CITIZENS OF Chicago are in part compensated for the long delay and acute crisis in the adequate collection and disposal of the city's waste by the appointment and report of the Chicago City Waste Commission. More than to any other citizen this is due to Mary E. McDowell. And she owes the prompting to this public service to her long residence at the University of Chicago Settlement, within smelling distance of Bubbly Creek and the city dumps.

Forth upon her quest on both sides of the sea to ascertain how other cities disposed of their waste, she was thus led, as she was upon her tireless agitation for Chicago's better sanitary policy and equipment. She was one of two women added to nine public officials to constitute the commission.

It employed as consulting engineers John T. Fetherston, who had for years been in charge of New York city's garbage-destroying plant and who is now street cleaning commissioner in New York, and Irwin S. Osborn who designed and operated the municipal garbage reduction works at Columbus, Ohio, and is now in charge of the waste disposal system of Toronto. Both these engineers had just returned from Europe where they investigated waste disposal in the principal cities. Their report gives the results of a scientific investigation of present conditions, of prospective increase in population and waste material and of approved methods and equipment adapted to Chicago's needs.

Calculating the pounds and cubic feet of waste per capita in each ward and for the city at large, they estimated what it might be in 1920, when the city might number 2,900,000, and in 1930, when it would probably reach 3,500,000.

Their table showing the annual amount of garbage per capita in representative cities during 1910 shows that Chicago, with two wards omitted, produces only 96 pounds per capita and New York 157, while Boston is credited with 188 pounds, Cincinnati with 196 and Washington, D. C., with 236 pounds per capita.

The lower rate in the two great cities is said by the engineers to be due to the fact that the foreign populations have less to waste and waste less than the native element.

The most significant of the recommendations which the commission, at the suggestion of these experts, made to the City Council are city ownership and operation of the equipment for collecting and disposing of waste; separation by householders of garbage, ashes and rubbish; city ownership of land brought up to grade by the dumping of ashes in order to gain the profit of the improvement; street car transportation for ashes and street sweepings where more economical than team hauling; reduction of garbage and rubbish separately at central plants, with small incinerators at loading stations for burning the more combustible waste; the continuance of analyses and tests for one year to determine the seasonal variation in the various classes of waste; the employment of a technical staff to develop, install and operate for at least a year the system recommended.

The development of this recommended policy has already begun and will be carried on and out as fast and far as funds allow.



Robinson in New York Tribune

CONTRABAND

Smuggling drugs in to convicts has been shown up lately as one of the worst of prison abuses. Dr. Davis in New York and the new administration at Sing Sing have taken vigorous steps to put a stop to it.

HOW A WOMAN QUELLED A PRISON MUTINY

THAT MANY prisoners' uprisings at present have in large measure a psychological explanation, and that in this respect they are similar in origin to the early strikes and labor disturbances in industry, is the opinion of Katharine Bement Davis, commissioner of correction in New York city, who has just been called upon to settle a strike of prisoners at the city penitentiary on Blackwell's Island.

Commissioner Davis's belief, first expressed to a representative of THE SURVEY, was given after she had restored peace among her prisoners by carrying her grip to Blackwell's Island for the night and announcing that she would stay there until the trouble was over.

"Run your mind over the last few years," she said, "and you will recall many disturbances among prisoners. The widely noted ones in Michigan, Nebraska, Oklahoma and Sing Sing were not all. Each of these had its own immediate cause, no doubt, but underlying them all, and in a measure making them possible, there was, I think, a common state of mind on the part of prisoners. This state of mind was induced by the conflict between old and new theories and methods in the treatment of law-breakers.

"Prisoners read the newspapers. They hear themselves discussed as 'a problem.' They know that the old theory of punishment for revenge is being attacked by those who believe that reformation and cure should be the aim of treatment. They come upon all shades of opinion as to the amount of severity desirable in controlling prisoners, the amount of privilege, of self-government, etc. They know that some people are always ready to attack prison-keepers as brutal and inhuman.

"All this has its effect on them. It gives them an aggravated self-consciousness. But more than that, it makes them ready to turn to their own account this widespread interest in their welfare.

"When the laboring man first emerged as an object of general concern and people began to discuss his condition and agitate reforms in his behalf, the same psychological reaction on his part was seen. Behind many of the early strikes

Time Exposures



Little cuts like this remind us
As we flit to woodlands wild
We had better leave behind us
Playgrounds for the city child

—G. S.

By Hine



was a desire to use this new weapon, to call attention to himself and to stir up the sentimental and the calm alike to more vigorous efforts for his good.

"It is just so with prisoners today. They are eager to take advantage of the new interest in their welfare and to furnish ammunition, so to speak, for those who, they think, are fighting for them.

"I do not know that anything can be done about it except to understand it. A transition stage is always a difficult stage and certainly the prison reform movement has got to go on.

"One slight thing can be done perhaps. When investigating bodies visit a penal institution, or when an investigation of any sort is carried on, prisoners are sure to be left in an attitude of unrest and suspicion. There may have been no expectation of discovering official misconduct, but it is hard to make the prisoners believe that. If any of them have been called to testify they report their experiences to their fellow-inmates and the institution heads are lucky if they don't have an insurrection to quell.

"The seriousness of such situations could often be lessened if investigating bodies were more cautious and tactful and took pains not to let suspicion against the authorities creep into the heads of inmates."

The immediate cause of the strike on Blackwell's Island grew out of the redoubled efforts of the authorities to keep "contraband" from passing secretly to and from the prisoners. It had been discovered that with the connivance and actual help of some of the keepers drugs were being smuggled in in increasing quantities. Recently a keeper gave a batch of prisoners' letters to the driver of a wagon belonging to the Department of Public Charities and the letters were later found in the nose-bag of the horse. They told how to get drugs in safely. Greater care was ordered in the examination of all outgoing and incoming parcels.

To show their disapproval of the new strictness a number of prisoners "booed" the warden in the dining room one day. It was impossible to detect all the "booers," so the men in two tiers known to contain all the guilty were punished by being kept in their cells.



Sykes in Philadelphia Public-Ledger

The Philadelphia Board of Health has issued a ruling that all milk must be pasteurized except that from farms and herds inspected and passed by the Live Stock Sanitary Board, or the Medical Milk Commission. Violations will result in the revocation of licenses to sell milk.

It may be only a coincidence, but an interesting one, that there was a decrease of 30 per cent in infant mortality during May and June of 1914, as compared with the same months of 1913. During these two months there was an increase of 10 per cent in the amount of pasteurized milk sold and a still greater improvement in the methods of pasteurization.

Frank Tannenbaum, the I. W. W. leader convicted several months ago of participating in a "raid" of the unemployed on a New York church, rose in one of the workshops shortly after and urged his fellow-inmates to strike as a protest against this punishment of the innocent with the guilty. Several other shops laid down their tools also and during one meal heavy soup bowls were thrown at the keepers, three being cut in the head. An ex-inmate of Sing Sing, who had been through an insurrection in that prison, counselled those in his shop that a strike would do them no good and his words prevailed.

The strike ended when the leaders were locked in solitary confinement. A week later one of the city magistrates moved his court for the day over to the warden's office and heard the cases of eight ring-leaders in the strike. Five were held for action by the grand jury on charges of feloniously assaulting their keepers, a sixth was held for later trial on a charge of simple assault, and two were dismissed for lack of evidence.

While Commissioner Davis was on the island, hearing complaints from prisoners and taking a lead in suppressing the strike, she promised the inmates, in a speech, that prison stripes would soon be replaced—on the good prisoners—by a garb of cadet blue with no jail insignia.

She also hinted at the possibility of a convict republic on the island, declaring that self-government would be introduced just as fast as the men showed themselves capable of making it a success. As a first step in this direction the prisoners will be classified on the basis of behavior and a "law and order" group will be gathered in one wing.

The traffic in drugs has been one of the evils which Commissioner Davis's administration has done much to bring

to light. Estimates of the number of prisoners among the 1400 in the penitentiary who secure and use drugs in prison vary from 200 to 700. A few weeks ago Dr. Charles F. Baxter, a physician at the Workhouse, was convicted of selling drugs to a prisoner, and he is now serving sentence in the penitentiary, in the company of some of the very prisoners who bought of him. A second physician has since been convicted, and charges have been preferred against a third.

Contemporaneous with Commissioner Davis's discoveries in city penal institutions, the State Prison Commission has been learning the extent to which drugs are smuggled into state prisons. James M. Clancy, ex-warden of Sing Sing, declared that drugs are smuggled into that prison in "untold quantities" and in ways "almost uncanny." They are sent in, he said, "in pencils, fountain pens, heels of shoes embossed postal cards and in handkerchiefs." Both he and the assistant principal keeper said that the dishonesty of keepers whose low salaries tempt them to the profit of selling drugs to prisoners is responsible for much of the drug smuggling, but neither thought that the traffic can be entirely stopped. By employing more and higher-paid keepers, by segregating drug fiends, and by a closer examination of everything entering the prison, they thought it could be minimized.

The commission expects to investigate conditions in other prisons also.

The Pageant of Narberth



A PAGEANT that won a four-fold success—artistic, financial, social and advertising—must be considered a little out of the ordinary, especially in a suburban borough of Philadelphia with about 2,000 inhabitants.

Truth is, however, that such a success crowned the efforts of the Narberth, Pa., Civic Association. It resulted in a kind of social regeneration within the community. Before the organization of the Civic Association a few months ago, Narberth had been devoid of a well-defined communal consciousness. The interests of the men-folk centered in the big city; of the women-folk in their particular groups. There was no agency to unify these groups in action.

The Civic Association's first task was to introduce Narberth to itself through something big enough to command the co-operation of all the many coteries.

So the fete day and historical pageant was selected. So successful did the plan work out, that Narberth discovered itself and has come to recognize the need of unified effort for civic betterment.

Families who had lived beside each other for a decade with only a nod as they hurried to the train, now are real neighbors and are working hand in hand to make Narberth a better place in which to live. They have called their borough "The Year-round Home Town."

Finally, the pageant put Narberth on the map, favorably. Rarely before had Narberth appeared in the public prints. But the pageant won the immediate co-operation of the press. This publicity pointed out Narberth as an example to other suburban towns. So now it is recognized that they cannot turn back to slumber as before, but must maintain their prestige.



From a painting by Frank H. Taylor

Episode III of the Narberth Pageant was given here at the old William Penn Inn, now the General Wayne Inn. Built in 1704, the inn became a famous wayside gathering place. During the excitement before the war, the Welsh settlers assembled here to talk over the prospects of the times, to read aloud the *Pennsylvania Post*, and to exchange neighborhood gossip.



NOT AN ITALIAN FETE

Five thousand neighbors of the Willow Place Chapel House in Brooklyn ran their own Fourth of July celebration. Boys did most of the work and did it well. Italians, Irish, Syrians, Swedes and Jews competed in the races. The kindergarten ran off a baby parade. At night there were Japanese lanterns, movies and illustrated songs in which everyone joined

with a will. During the whole week of the celebration there was not an arrest, a row, or even a dispute. Newton Ben Knapp, headworker of the Willow Place Chapel House, held that it was "distinctive in that it represented so well that something, infinite in possibility yet evasive, known as the neighborhood spirit."

CHILDREN'S BUREAU POSITIONS TO BE FILLED

FOR THE FIRST time the United States government has recognized social service as a profession in a series of examinations just announced by the civil service commission for sixty-one positions in the Federal Children's Bureau.

The new positions were provided for in the Children's Bureau appropriation bill for the current year which gives the director, Julia C. Lathrop \$165,000.

The examinations for experts will be what the United States Civil Service Commission calls non-assembled—that is, they may be taken at the applicant's home city or wherever he or she may desire, but papers must be sent to Washington not later than August 10. The salaries for the experts who will be employed range from \$2,000 to \$2,800.

A special examination will also be held for special agents and research assistants, with salaries ranging from \$1,200 to \$1,600. This examination must be taken at one of the offices of the Civil Service Commission on August 19 and 20.

The highest paid position for which examinations are to be held is that of medical officer of the bureau, with title of "expert on sanitation," at \$2,800.

The Children's Bureau will be the first branch of the United States government to be authorized to employ a trained sociologist who will have the title of "social service expert." The duties of this officer whose salary is \$2,000 are "the investigation of such subjects as juvenile

courts, desertion, orphanage, and relevant legislation, with studies of the special groups known as the dependent, the delinquent, and the defective, and of public and private provisions for recreation."

Persons to qualify for the examination for social service expert must have an educational training equivalent to that required for a bachelor's degree from a college or university of recognized standing. This training must have included at least two years' special work in sociology or economics and at least three years' professional social work in municipal or state departments dealing with sociological subjects, or in a charity organization society, juvenile court, child-placing society, settlement house, or other similar organization. Applicants must be between twenty-five and forty-five years old.

A third expert for which examination will be held on August 10 is named as "statistical expert," at \$2,000.

Application for special examination form, stating the title of the examination for which the forms are desired, should be made to the United States Civil Service Commission, Washington, D. C.; or to the secretary of the United States Civil Service Board, in the post office at Boston, Philadelphia, Atlanta, Cincinnati, Chicago, St. Paul, Seattle, and San Francisco; or at the customhouse at New York, New Orleans, Honolulu, Hawaii; or at the old customhouse, St. Louis; or to the chairman of the Porto Rican Civil Service Commission, San Juan, P. R.

GOOD READING IN THE CONGRESSIONAL RECORD

REPRESENTATIVE James W. Bryan, of Washington, was so impressed with the article by Thomas L. Parkinson in *THE SURVEY* for July 4, on the liability of vessel owners for losses at sea, that he secured unanimous consent of the House of Representatives to print the entire article in the *Congressional Record* for July 16. He called attention to an error in the Editor's note accompanying the article:

"In referring editorially to the splendid article by Professor Parkinson the Editor of *THE SURVEY* says:

"In all the thousands of bills introduced in Congress since the Titanic disaster none provides for placing on shipowners a substantial liability to answer in damages for losses occurring by accident at sea."

"The Editor of *THE SURVEY*, when he wrote that comment, had not called to his attention House bill 12807, introduced on February 2, 1914, by myself and referred to the Judiciary Committee.

"The present shipowners' liability laws are absolutely unconscionable. They were, in the main, worked through Congress on the day before adjournment in that mass of legislation that is passed without consideration at such a time. . . .

"It is a reproach to Congress that a seaman or an employe or a passenger or a shipper on the water is given any less protection by the law in these matters than is given under like circumstances on the land."

The Black Plague

NEW ORLEANS
SAN FRANCISCO
NORTHERN CHINA



WHEN the bubonic plague—the “black death” of European history—was discovered in San Francisco ten years ago there was terror, delay and evasion on the part of local officials. Here was news to blanch the cheek, yet the San Francisco press was silent; and when finally the existence of the disease became known, “indignation” ran high over this attack on the city’s health. Meanwhile, the country at large became panic-stricken.

A few weeks ago the same plague was discovered in New Orleans. Two cases were found, a post mortem on one confirming the diagnosis. Prompt and de-

cisive action followed. New Orleans had learned from yellow fever that temporizing and denial only give disease more time to develop. Local health officers notified the state health authorities immediately. Before the newspapers even had time to publish the facts, the United States Public Health Service was called on for help. As quickly as it could, the press informed the country.

There was no panic. Thanks to scientific medicine, we know today the cause of this dread disease, its method of transmission and the measures necessary to control it. Surgeon-General Blue and Surgeon Creel, the former

with experience in fighting the plague in Honolulu and San Francisco, and the latter with similar experience in Porto Rico, are now in charge of the situation.

Thus has New Orleans given us evidence of a finer social spirit on the part of trusted officials, and of the beneficent and quieting effects of scientific knowledge.

What can happen when knowledge is not joined with decisive action in fighting this scourge was tragically shown only two years ago when an epidemic of the “black death”, passing over northern China, left 50,000 dead in its trail. Even this was a tremendous improvement over the epidemic of the fourteenth century, when Europe is estimated to have lost 25,000,000 people—one-fourth of her total population.

The Manchurian outbreak in 1912, scenes from which first published in the *World's Work* are here reproduced, presented the first opportunity that modern medical science has had to cope with the disease in any widespread form. Burton J. Hendrick tells in that magazine of the two young American physicians, Richard P. Strong and Oscar Teague, who made fearless entry into the heart of the infested region and risked their lives for months in a study of the plague. They have published a detailed and comprehensive report of their researches.

A characteristic of the plague is that it smoulders unrecognized and suddenly breaks out, apparently from a number of different centers of infection. Hence we can not be sure, says the *Journal of the American Medical Association*, that the few cases discovered are the only persons infected in New Orleans. But we may be sure, it goes on, that the fight will be waged with all the weapons of modern science and that all necessary funds will be provided.

It is only by eternal vigilance, apparently, that we can at present keep this



The doctors' defence against infection. The mask at the left, made of zinc glass, was used in the fourteenth century; the bandages and goggles are used today.

“Contacts” guarded by a sanitary inspector.

Coffins outside a hospital. Despite the prejudice against cremation, thousands of bodies were burned on huge funeral pyres.



visitor from entering our doors. The plague is known to be transmitted by rats, fleas and even squirrels. When it is discovered, one of the most pressing measures is to destroy all of these that can possibly be carrying it. To that end all shipping must be closely watched and even railway lines.

On May 8, this year, the bulletins of the Federal Public Health Service re-

port one plague-infected rat was found at a point on the Pacific coast. Between May 23 and June 6, 954 rats were examined, not one of which showed infection; 401 were examined between June 6 and June 13, with the same result. Yet on June 18, again one rat showed infection. How different might this month's record have been, had the first danger not been discovered!

NEW YORK NIGHTWORK LAW FOR WOMEN UPHeld —BY JOSEPHINE GOLDMARK NATIONAL CONSUMERS' LEAGUE

FACTS HAVE won again. Theory has yielded to a realization of living conditions at our doors. The New York Supreme Court—intermediate between the state's lower courts and its highest, the Court of Appeals—has decided that the employment of women at night in factories, as it has been shown to exist, is detrimental to the women so employed, and, therefore, that it may legitimately be prohibited by the state in the interest of the public health and welfare.

This decision is a clear token of the distance traveled by opinion in general, and by the courts in particular during the past seven years. In 1907 a similar law was declared unconstitutional, in the Williams case, by the same tribunal which now reverses its former position.

Where Judge Gray of the Court of Appeals (who wrote the adverse opinion in 1907) said of the nightwork prohibition that it "arbitrarily deprives citizens of their right to contract with each other," Justice Ingraham now writes: "We have legislation directly enacted for the purpose of procuring as to a large proportion of the people the prevention of physical and moral impairment."

Where Judge Gray could "find nothing in the language of the section which suggests the purpose of promoting health, except as it might be *inferred* that for a woman to work during the forbidden hours of night would be unhealthy," Justice Ingraham in the present Schweinler case can maintain: "With the facts and conditions existing in New York, now before the court, it certainly cannot be said that this legislation is not directly concerned with the moral and physical well-being of women or does not tend to her protection and the welfare and well-being of all the people of the state."

The court has in no way receded from the principle underlying all labor legislation, that a statute must have a "reasonable connection with the public health, welfare and safety" if it is to be within the police power of the state. But today that connection is clear in the nightwork case; seven years ago it was not. The most indifferent reader must note the new language, the new spirit which expresses the judicial mind. "*The facts and conditions existing*", "*the pre-*

vention of physical and moral impairment"—these are the things with which the court is now preoccupied instead of the theoretical "freedom" of which Judge Gray wrote.

For this fundamental difference in opinion the manner of the law's defense is in large part responsible. Because a condition and not a theory was at stake, the conditions and not theories were brought to court. Assistant District Attorney William A. De Ford, who had charge of the case and argued it ably, submitted as part of the people's brief, a 500-page compilation of the "facts of common knowledge" concerning nightwork, prepared by Louis D. Brandeis and the writer of this article.

The "facts of knowledge" consist of the investigations and conclusions of the New York State Factory Investigating Commission of 1913, together with earlier studies of nightwork by scientists of all countries. Their conclusions are unanimous.

Briefly, the nightwork of women is injurious to the health and morals of working girls and women, whether it be the regular night shift or work continued late into the night as overtime after the day's work, and the provision of a regular period of rest at night, for physical recuperation, is a requisite of health. The international treaty, whereby fourteen European nations bound themselves to prohibit the nightwork of women in factories (effective January, 1914) is given in full, together with similar legislation of non-signatory states.

This was no new line of defense in the Schweinler case, nor is the changed attitude of the New York judges a new one. They have fallen into line with other enlightened courts,—the Supreme Court of the United States, and the supreme courts of Oregon, Illinois, Michigan, California, Washington, Ohio and Massachusetts, which, during the past seven years, have sustained labor laws for women precisely in the interest of their health and morals, and for the benefit of the communities which they are to perpetuate.

In 1908, directly after Judge Gray had stated the court's inability to find in the night rest provision any relation to the preservation of health, the now well-known Oregon ten-hour case (the Mul-

ler case) was carried to the Supreme Court of the United States. This involved the validity of the Oregon ten-hour law for women employed in factories and laundries. For the first time in the history of our nation, the highest court had an opportunity to pass upon the constitutionality of such a law.

For the first time, too, a defense was submitted by Mr. Brandeis and the writer showing not the legal but the human facts at issue, the world's experience upon which the legislation providing shorter hours for women is based, and the same defense, successful in every instance, was offered in the subsequent Illinois, Michigan and Ohio cases.

In the present instance, Justice Ingraham points out that the Muller decision has forever superseded an earlier one of the United States Supreme Court (*Lochner v. New York*) upon which the adverse Williams decision of 1907 had "mainly relied." In the *Lochner* case, the United States Supreme Court had decided that the New York ten-hour law for bakers was unconstitutional because the occupation of baker did not seem to them sufficiently dangerous to health to justify the state's intervention. In 1907 this view prevailed strongly enough with the New York court to elicit a similar decision in regard to a totally different form of work for women.

Not in vain did the two hundred Polish women, reported by the New York Factory Investigating Commission, work ten hours each night in a hot and dusty mill and come out at dawn, white and worn, to nurse their babies and care for their households during the daytime. It was they who brought home to the commission, and through them to the public, the true iniquity of nightwork for women.

The best instincts of our common nature revolted against this infraction of Nature's laws. "What we know as men, we cannot profess to be ignorant of as judges," said the Illinois court regarding a different labor law for women, and it is this spirit which animates the New York court in the Schweinler case.

To the objection sometimes urged against the nightwork law, that it may cause hardships to some women, Rose Schneiderman of the Women's Trade Union League, has made sufficient answer. It is true that an inconsiderable number of women employed by newspapers may be adversely affected. But over against these few, thousands are directly and lastingly benefited.

The decision is not unanimous. Justices Clarke and Dowling dissent, being of the opinion that the Court of Appeals alone can reverse its former decision and that the intermediate bench is meanwhile bound thereby. Within a few months it is hoped that the state's highest court may have the opportunity to record its verdict.

TOPEKA: "A city surveyed is a city unafraid"

By Shelby M. Harrison

DIRECTOR OF THE TOPEKA IMPROVEMENT SURVEY



Courtesy Leslie's Weekly

CITY OF TOPEKA, KANSAS TERRITORY

Founded in 1854, Topeka had a school and a church at the time this wood-cut appeared in *Leslie's Weekly* for December 25, 1858. The wooden bridge was the first bridge thrown across the Kansas river. The town was a rendezvous for Free State men who, in 1856, built an earth and sod fort to protect themselves from pro-slavery men.

"WELL, young man, you'll find very little to criticize in Topeka. We have a splendid city here." That was one of the first greetings to the social surveyors in Topeka.

It came from a leading citizen who knew the city about as well as anyone. For more than thirty years he had kept him in contact with many sides of its life. But five days later, after listening to a preliminary report on local conditions—after getting a glimpse of the city through the eyes of the surveyor and outsider—the same man, and some forty others, decided that after all there were things going on in Topeka that needed careful looking into.

Part of his statement, however, was true. Topeka is a splendid city. There is no better proof than the prompt action of this group of leading citizens. Where men and women are found ready to tackle civic and social problems immediately and fearlessly, once convinced that the problems exist, there are the fundamentals of a splendid city.

Like the youth of ancient Athens, these men and women resolved that "we will transmit this city greater, better, and more beautiful than it was transmitted to us." That, and not mere numbers, as Charles Mulford Robinson points out in his city plan report in the Topeka survey series, was what made Athens great. The means adopted for realizing

the resolve in Topeka was the social survey.

Nor was there fear that the city would be unfavorably advertised. The slogan was: "A city surveyed is a city unafraid." People elsewhere could be trusted to recognize in this a sound move for

making the capital city of Kansas a still more splendid city; and, incidentally, other cities might be led to profit by the example.

The Topeka Improvement Survey (the name was chosen deliberately and advisedly) was started last October and the last of the reports will be turned over to the Topeka committee within a few days. It took up public health and sanitation, delinquency and corrections, municipal administration, city planning, industrial conditions, and recreation. But before touching the findings (and they can be only touched here for they make a volume of nearly 300 pages) the methods of this Topeka self-scrutiny seem worth brief recounting.

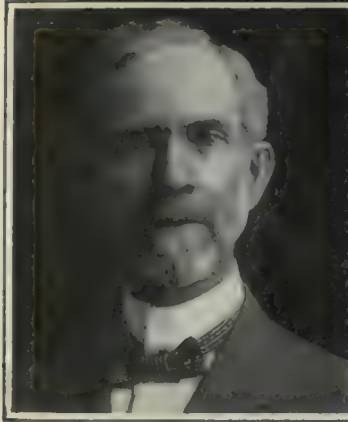
The survey linked up very diverse forces into one big effort to mould, through the medium of local facts, a more intelligent public opinion. This in the long run would tell mightily in shaping the city's course for say ten—perhaps more—years to come. A non-partisan movement to improve Topeka, with the specific understanding that the fact-gathering and interpretation in this program of community self-education should be done by disinterested outsiders—this was something all good citizens could unite on. But obviously Topeka's 50,000 or more people could not meet and work out a survey en masse.

A representative committee was appointed to the task. It included business men, large employers, labor leaders, working-



FATHER TIME READING THE RECORD OF DEATHS

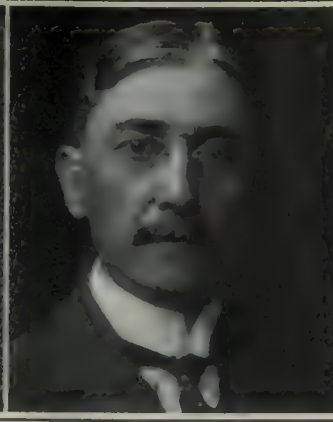
The Topeka Survey was distinctively illustrated with cartoons by A. S. Harkness of Springfield, Ill. These were used in both the reports and the exhibit visited by 20,000 people.



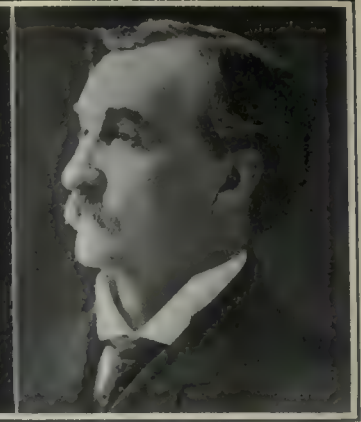
C. G. BLAKELY



REV. ROY B. GUILD



HAROLD T. CHASE



JUDGE T. F. GARVER

FOUR LEADERS IN PLANNING AND CARRYING OUT THE SURVEY

men, ministers, doctors, lawyers, teachers, social workers, city commissioners, and others specially related to particular problems or population groups. They secured the Department of Surveys and Exhibits of the Russell Sage Foundation to make the survey, and the department in turn drafted in still other resources.

In fact, the survey was used as a sort of giant lens to draw together in one large co-operative whole the forces which sooner or later would touch Topeka, and which, by thus uniting, might make more illuminative the work of each.

This striking co-operation is well illustrated in the investigation into public health and sanitation, made under the direction of Franz Schneider, Jr. The resources drawn on include the State Board of Health, the city Sanitary Department, the State University, the State Agricultural College, Washburn College, and the offices of the State Hotel and Dairy Commissioners.

City Commissioner W. L. Porter, for instance, delegated the city's three san-

itary inspectors to the survey work. They were charged with the enumeration and inspection of all privy vaults and private wells, and the preparation of maps showing the data. Dr. S. J. Crumbine, secretary of the State Board of Health, brought in his five food and drug inspectors to assist the survey, and also helped in securing the milk and water analysis and the investigation of the sewer system. W. J. V. Deacon, vital statistician of the State Board, analyzed the vital statistics.

The State Educational Administrative Board, the State University, and Prof. C. C. Young, director of the State Water Survey, co-operated in making possible the remarkable service of analyzing 1,700 samples of well water, the analyses being made under Professor Young's direction. Prof. Granville R. Jones of the State University and engineer of the State Board of Health, inspected the sewer system; the state hotel commissioner, Miles Mulroy, inspected a number of lodging houses and restaurants; and the state dairy commissioner, G. S.

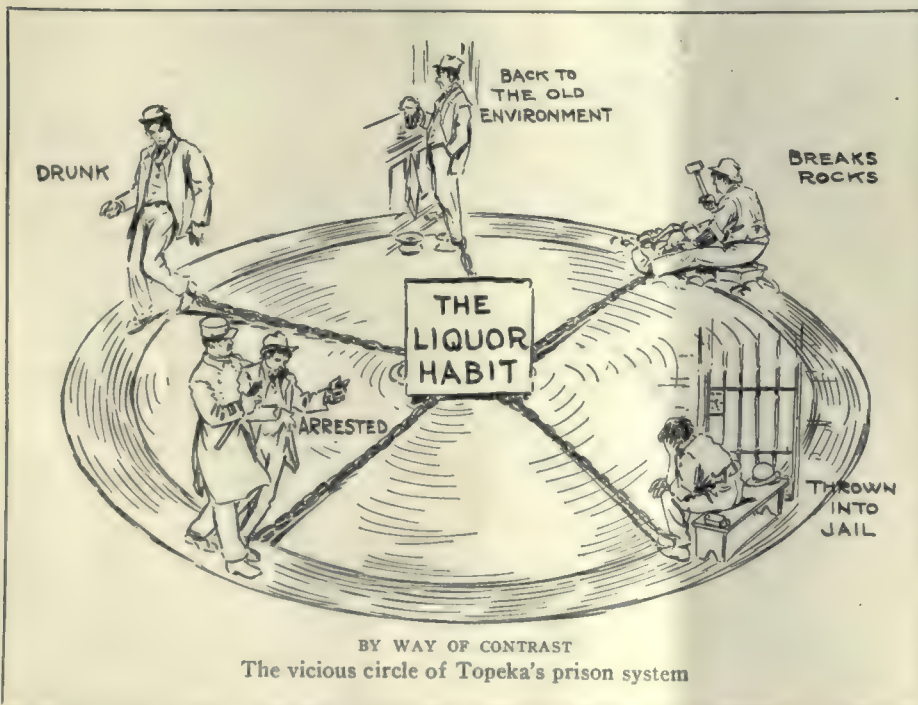
Hine, went over the dairy and milk depot situation. The State Agricultural College loaned assistance to the chemical and bacteriological examination of milk; and similarly Washburn College assisted through the bacteriological examination, under Prof. Edith M. Twiss, of samples of ice cream, and the inspection of places in which ice cream was handled; and students from Prof. D. M. Fisk's classes in sociology in Washburn College aided in collecting samples of well water.

In addition, a number of individuals gave personal help, among them, in marked degree, Mrs. Charles B. Thomas and Mary R. Vose, secretary of the Provident Association. The city commissioners appropriated \$500, and gave office room in the city building—this not alone to the health work but to all divisions of the survey.

In view of this generous assistance, together with that received in other investigations, it will be seen that the survey represented a much larger financial outlay than the several thousand dollars raised by the Topeka committee. It was in fact a community enterprise,—backed, supported and assisted by individuals and agencies of the community.

In his report on health and sanitation Mr. Schneider deals first with vital statistics—the book-keeping of life, death and disease. These show that Topeka's death rate, while comparing favorably with that of the country at large, is, after applying the proper corrections, still 20 per cent larger than that of the state of Kansas; that though her birth rate is only medium low, it is over ten per cent lower than the state's; that her people suffer real losses from preventable disease and death—clearly 15 per cent, and possibly 30 per cent, of the deaths being from preventable diseases; and that these diseases are especially prevalent in certain parts of the city.

Going into general sanitary conditions, the report states that analyses of the public water supply made by the survey showed it to be of excellent sanitary quality, but that over 5,000 private wells still exist in the city, and that the tests of 1,673 samples of well water disclosed





CATCHING THE PIECES

The guard saved the workman from injury when this power emery wheel burst in the Santa Fé railroad shops.

64 per cent as showing unmistakable signs of pollution of intestinal origin.

The city's sewer system was found to be faulty, and 7,257 privy vaults—over 60 per cent unconnected with the sewers—still persist. The east side of the city, with a population of about 7,000, is the largest unsewered community in all Kansas.

Other health subjects dealt with are milk and food supply, tuberculosis, infant mortality, venereal diseases, housing, refuse disposal, physical examination of school children, organization of the city's health department, its finances, inspection service, control of communicable diseases, records, etc., the report including detailed recommendations for constructive action.

The second investigation, made by Zenas L. Potter, took up problems of delinquency and corrections. In the year ending October, 1913, more than 1,600 persons were arrested in Topeka. "What her police department, her courts, her jails and her probation officer," to quote the report, "are doing with these of-

fenders and how far they have kept abreast of developments aimed at more effective study, care and treatment, and, to outline plans for improvement where needed, has been the purpose of the investigation."

Continuing the report says: "Before presenting the details of local conditions, it may be said that in general the essential idea of re-forming prisoners—of protecting society by transforming law-breakers into law-observers—has not been applied to most of the correctional work of Topeka or of Shawnee county in which it is located." By this it is not implied that the system is without its credits, for the report points out much good service rendered. The evidence submitted, however, tends to show the city a good way behind what is being done in some other places.

In addition to detailed recommendations on all points taken up, the report calls for general improvements as follows: abandonment of the present jails for confinement of prisoners after conviction and the development of a farm institution; plans for increasing the effectiveness of the police force; changes in court procedures and penalties; establishment of probation and parole work for adults; provision for a juvenile detention home, and increased emphasis upon the work of preventing crime.

Municipal administration is handled by D. O. Decker, the report being the third in the series. It also shows many things to the city's credit, among them being the successful local sale of bonds and the efficient management of the fire department. Defects, on the other hand, include charter limitations working against proper organization and administration of the public work; the ab-

sence of revenue and liability accounts in the city bookkeeping; failure to provide an adequate sinking fund to take care of public debts; absence of cost accounting; no program of street repair and cleaning, and in many places absence of proper record-keeping and publicity.

The report on city plan, made by Charles Mulford Robinson, deals with the street plan, its general characteristics, focal points, traffic ways and residence streets; street development, its standardization, center and side parking, sidewalks, street trees and lights, curbs, gutters and pavements; civic, local transportation and steam railroad centers; limitation of heights of buildings, and adoption of a building line; and the park system, existing parks, park additions, boulevards and parkways. This report was specially backed and financed by the Civic Improvement Committee of the Commercial Club.

Industrial conditions were investigated also by Zenas L. Potter. "Topeka,"



to quote the report, "would hardly be thought of as an industrial city although one of the largest railroad shops in the country (the Santa Fé) is located here, and although there is considerable diversified manufacturing, including farm implements, clothing, furniture and bedding. Printing and publishing employ a tenth of those in manufacturing pursuits; and work in the State Capitol draws a large quota. Eight flour and grist mills,

BY WAY OF CONTRAST

How Kansas City breaks the vicious circle in treating alcoholics.



A DUG WELL

two large creameries, two canning and pickling factories, a large slaughtering and meat-packing plant, and two establishments packing eggs and poultry also do business in the city."

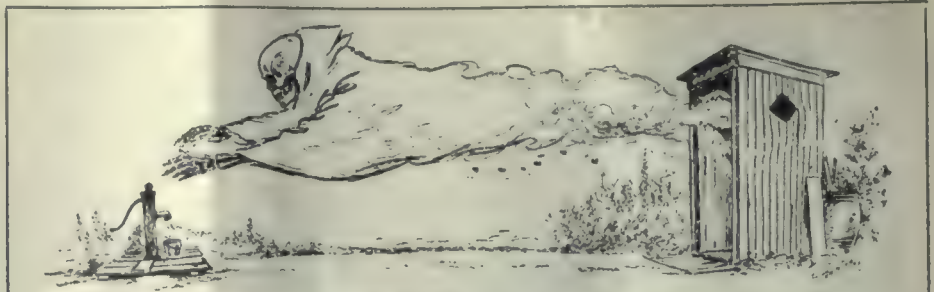
The investigation covers the Santa Fé shops, hours, wages, work conditions in that plant together with its bonus system and its apprentice school; the street railway workers of the city; women workers in general; child labor; labor unions; public employment agencies; workmen's compensation; and industrial accidents.

In general the report shows the interests of the workers inadequately safeguarded, either through lack of protective legislation, the breaking down by the largest employers of collective action of the workers, or the lack of appreciation by the general public of its own stake in industrial conditions in the city.

The study of recreation facilities and needs in the city was another sample of local co-operation. It was made by Dr. E. W. Burgess of the Department of Sociology at the State University, and with the aid of the Playground and Recreation Association of America.

The Topeka survey committee wanted to make the findings reach a still larger group of people than those who would see the printed reports or even the generous newspaper summaries, and to this end an exhibit was prepared, and displayed in a vacant store building in the heart of the business district. In the ten days that it was open over 20,000 people viewed the maps, photographs, cartoons, diagrams, and other graphic material which aimed to make the facts of local conditions more easily understood and longer remembered.

The hundred and more exhibit panels prepared under the direction of E. G. Routzahn, of the Department of Surveys and Exhibits, with the assistance of



A COMBINATION TO HIS LIKING

Topeka has 7,257 privies and 4,932 wells. A well, the survey report states, is a rural device but a municipal menace.

Walter Storey, Mary Swain Routzahn, and Matilda Spence, will remain in Topeka for use in the autumn and winter.

To begin at the beginning again, action for a survey of Topeka began in the fall of 1912 with the appointment of a survey committee in the Men and Religion campaign, E. A. Austin being chairman and W. J. Rickenbacher secretary. After the organization of the Topeka Federation of Churches the earlier committee joined with the federation, and under the leadership of the Rev. Roy B. Guild the movement received a new impetus and was vigorously pushed.

The federation assumed the financial responsibility for the preliminary investigation and report which led directly to the organization of the general survey committee with Judge T. F. Garver as chairman, and H. T. Chase as secretary, the generous gifts of time and thought by both being invaluable contributions through many months.

The consecutive attention by C. G. Blakely to the setting up and administration of the exhibit is not to be the end of the survey activities as follow-up plans for action in the fall have already been made.

ROAD-MAKING vs. THE ROCK PILE



KANSAS CITY: PRISONERS AT WORK ON THE ROADS OF THE MUNICIPAL FARM



TOPEKA: PRISONERS BREAKING ROCK IN A SHED BACK OF THE CITY PRISON

Settling Labor Disputes in Australia

From an interview with Mr. Justice Higgins, President of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration, and his Decisions as given in the Commonwealth Arbitration Reports

Mary Chamberlain

"BUT why do your American trades unions prefer the bludgeon of the strike to the modern rifle of arbitration and conciliation?"

That was the question which puzzled Mr. Justice Higgins, president of the Commonwealth Conciliation and Arbitration Court of Australia, when he heard, on his recent visit to America, that much of the opposition to minimum wage legislation and arbitration in the United States was bred in the American Federation of Labor.

The assurance of this eminent judge that wage boards and the arbitration system in Australia are promoting rather than hindering effective labor organization is worth consideration by those who claim that the strike and the strike only is effective in improving conditions for working people. Indeed, when a legal minimum wage is still regarded as a timorous experiment in most of our states and when compulsory arbitration of labor disputes is practically unknown in America, few trans-Atlantic passengers this year have brought us a more interesting contribution of practical experience with labor problems than Mr. Justice Higgins of Australia.

The Commonwealth Arbitration Court, over which Mr. Justice Higgins has presided for six years, must be clearly distinguished from the wages boards, which exist in practically all the Australian states, and from the State Industrial Arbitration Courts.

The chief aims of a wages board system are to regulate hours, wages, and conditions of employment by the determinations of boards created by application or petition for specified industries. With the Industrial Arbitration Court system an industry does not technically come under review until a dispute has actually arisen, when the president of the court has power to summon a compulsory conference.

THE Commonwealth Arbitration Court, instituted by a parliamentary act of 1904, follows this principle, but only so far as to interfere in an industrial dispute which extends beyond the limits of a single state. Confronted with problems of interstate competition precisely similar to those which exist here in the United States, the awards of a state

HENRY BOURNES HIGGINS has been a justice of the High Court of Australia since 1906, serving since 1907 as the president of the court which is known the world round for its successful work in arbitrating labor troubles and preventing strikes. A native of County Mayo, Ireland, but a resident of Australia since 1876, he has been a member of the Bar of Victoria since 1876, the chairman of the Commission for Reform of Legal Procedure and attorney general for the commonwealth.—E. B.

board are liable to be influenced by awards for similar trades in a neighboring state. The Arbitration Court of New South Wales, for example, refused to raise the rate of wages for journeymen in the boot trade above that awarded to operatives in the same trade in Victoria, although the cost of living in the two places was practically equal.

The Commonwealth Arbitration Court according to Mr. Justice Higgins, is the only industrial tribunal in Australia that can put competing employers in all states on equal terms and take the weight of interstate competition off the back of the wage-earner.

Although no direct appeal can be made to the federal court from the findings of any state wages board, the court has tended to build up a uniform policy throughout Australia, both by fixing standards in interstate disputes which are used in state determinations and by publicly reviewing in the course of its business the findings of wages boards in the several states. The decisions of the federal court prevail over those of state courts.

Cases of interstate disturbances may be brought before the federal authority by organizations of employees or employers registered in prescribed manner under the act; by a state industrial authority requesting the court to adjudicate; by the public registrar certifying that it is a dispute proper to be dealt with by the court in the public interest; and by the president referring to the court a dispute which he has tried in vain to settle by voluntary agreement between the parties. Mr. Justice Higgins asserts that much of his best work has been

done in quiet conference behind the court, procuring agreement without arbitration.

The awards of the court are not challengeable by any other court, though the president may state a case on grounds of jurisdiction for opinion of the High Court. Failure to observe the awards involves liability to penalty of £100 or three months' imprisonment, and process may be issued not only against the property of any organization but, when this is insufficient to meet the penalty, against the members of the organization.

Up to the present time none of the unions which have had an award or agreement under the auspices of this court has broken its pledges.

The section of the act which is regarded with the greatest scepticism and open to the most criticism is that which forbids strikes or lockouts under penalty of £1,000. Since interstate strikes still exist in Australia it is proof that this clause has not been strictly enforced and that industrial uprisings cannot be quenched by a mere parliamentary measure. They have, however, been greatly minimized, according to Mr. Justice Higgins, and a peaceful means for redress of certain widespread industrial grievances has been substituted for violence and other extreme courses.

WHILE the right to strike is denied the Australian laborer, the right to organize is sanctioned and definitely encouraged by the act. One section expressly states that the object of the law is "to facilitate and encourage the organization of representative bodies of employers and employees and the submission of industrial disputes by organizations."

"Why," exclaimed Mr. Justice Higgins, "the whole system of arbitration rests on responsible unions to guarantee the awards of the courts. Only organizations can make a plaint before the court and should it be necessary the attorney general is given power to actually create a union. Furthermore, I am allowed in my awards to make an order for preference to members of the union. Since the principle of the minimum wage demands that the strain and stress be taken off wages and put on skill and character, I am very loath to interfere with an employer's business in selecting the best man, union or non-union, available for the place. But

wherever, as in the case of the Brisbane Tramways Company, there is evidence of discrimination *against* the union men, I feel it my duty to protect an organization by an order for preference."

In view of the fact that Massachusetts, Colorado, Washington and other American states are at present formulating standards to determine a fair wage to women employes, perhaps the most important information given us by Mr. Justice Higgins is his principle in fixing a "fair and reasonable" rate of wages.

"The test of a fair and reasonable standard," he states, "is a wage sufficient for the normal needs of the average employe living in a civilized community. The essential needs are food, shelter and clothing. A full and generous allowance for these should be made the average man who may be assumed to support an average family consisting of himself, his wife and three dependent children. This living wage must be kept as a thing sacrosanct for all employes.

"When this has been secured then I try to determine the wages due to skill. In this, the ratio of wages paid by an employer is a tolerably safe guide as to the relative merits of the various classes of work although the absolute amounts may be too low.

"Finally, having settled the minimum remuneration which I regard as fair and reasonable for the several classes of employes, I may safely leave the men of special skill or special qualifications to obtain such additional remuneration as they can by bargaining with the employer."

Fixing the Living Wage

Just as in the United States, Mr. Justice Higgins arrives at the living wage by investigating the cost of living in different communities. This is usually done by four methods: by securing the statements of storekeepers and land agents, by finding out the average purchases of certain workers' families in the co-operative stores, by examining the allowances made to dependents of organizations and inmates of institutions, and by investigating domestic budgets submitted by workmen and their wives.

There is one point of difference, however, which the justice noted in observing the operations of wages boards in this country, and that is the minute detail with which a budget is computed. Such items as recreation, carfare, church, etc., are not differentiated in Australia, but are lumped together and added to the bare cost of sustenance to make a fair standard.

Mr. Justice Higgins insists that the needy employer should, under the award, pay at the same rate as his richer rival. "It would not otherwise be possible," he states in one of his decisions, "to prevent the sweating of employes, the growth of parasitic enterprises, the spread of industrial unrest which it is

the function of this court to allay. . . . I face the possibilities of this mine [Broken Hill Proprietary Co.] remaining closed, with all its grave consequences: but the fate of Australia is not dependent on the fate of any one mine, or of any one company; if it is a calamity that this historic mine should close down, it would be a still greater calamity that men should be underfed or degraded. . . .

"In short, the remuneration of the employe cannot be allowed to depend on the profits actually made by the individual employer. This proposition does not mean that the possible profits or returns of the industry as a whole are never to be taken into account in settling the wages. For instance, the fact that the industry is novel and that those who undertake it have at first to move very warily and economically might be favorably considered. So long as a workman gets a living wage, I can well understand that workmen of skill might consent to work in such a case for less than their proper wages, not only to get present employment, but in order to assist an enterprise which will afford them and their comrades more opportunities for employment hereafter. For this purpose it is advisable to make the demarcation as clear and as definite as possible between that part of wages which is for mere living and that part which is due to skill."

Another principle to which Mr. Justice Higgins adheres in fixing a minimum wage is that the unhealthy conditions which individual employes suffer, if the conditions are not necessarily incidental to their employment, are to be ignored in framing a scale of wages and left to parliamentary regulations.

"I decline to make an award on the basis of conditions which are unnecessarily unwholesome or degrading," he said, "in other words to treat employes as entitled to *purchase* the right of treating men as slaves or as pigs."

There are, however, certain exigencies of work that the justice does consider in naming a wage. An additional ten shillings was awarded to marine stewards in one case, not because of skill, but because of the "exceptional obligations" imposed on this class of workers in respect to keeping up a good appearance, wearing a uniform, exercising tact with passengers and bearing responsibility for their employers' property.

AGAIN, Mr. Justice Higgins gives special attention to irregular employment. Where the seasons are clearly marked and the intervals between them long, the justice's position is that the worker should be expected to find other employment to supplement the occupation in question.

But at the same time, he believes that "regard should be had to the short pe-

riods of employment, to the expenditure of money and of time in getting to the work, to the broken time of the employes, and to the fact that they are paid by the hours of actual work." Thus in the case of traveling shearers and in the case of the cannery workers, the principle of fixing wages by the *returns of the expedition* was applied. The problem was to find what should be a fair return for a man starting on such expeditions, the time and expenses of going and returning being brought into consideration.

Again there are certain trades where the intervals of unemployment are short and uncertain and where the waiting involved is necessary for employment. Thus the cabman must wait at his stand and the wharf laborer at the dock. In a remarkable decision for the dock laborers recently rendered by Mr. Justice Higgins he points out that whereas the work is casual, uncertain and the jobs short, "the necessities of the man and his dependents are certain, continuous and incessant."

On the basis of thirty hours work a week, which was the average computed for the average dock worker in Australia, Mr. Justice Higgins ruled that 1s 9d per hour should be awarded as contrasted with 7s for an eight-hour day, estimated in an earlier investigation as the minimum living wage for an unskilled laborer in Australia. At the same time he strongly recommended the employers to set their house in order and to devise some system of co-operation such as would enable them to give the men full weekly work at weekly wages. In view of such readjustment the award is to be regarded as provisional.

Women's Rate of Pay

When the wages of women are under consideration, and this is surprisingly seldom in the federal court, Mr. Justice Higgins stated it as his opinion that a different principle should be followed since a woman is not, like a man, under legal obligations for the support of her family. In commenting upon our American system of regulating wages for women only, he supposed that we had "to stick our fingers in, before we got our heads through."

"Of course," said the justice, "many girls have family responsibilities but an employer cannot be told to pay a particular employe higher wages because she happens to have parents dependent on her, any more than he can be allowed to pay her less because she has a legacy from her grandparents or because she lodges free with her parents and merely wants some money for dress. The minimum wage must be the rate paid for a *class of workers*."

"Now I make a distinction of three classes. The first is the class in which all or practically all the workers are men, blacksmiths for instance, and to which a

man's wage should be paid, recognizing that one of the normal needs of the average employe is the need for domestic life.

"The second class is one such as fruit picking in which men and women do the work equally well. For this class too, a man's wages should be insisted upon, both because it tends to greater efficiency in the work when there is true and healthy competition, and because it prevents the displacement of men by women in industry.

"But for the third class of workers, the class where women are continually employed in preference to men, another standard should fix the legal rate of wages. I believe that this should be the cost of living for the individual girl, living away from home with the responsibility of supporting herself."

It is clear from talking with Mr. Justice Higgins and from reading his decisions that no award of the federal court is made in a bungling, haphazard manner. In one place he writes: "It might be a very pleasant function to sit in my court all day giving agreeable wages away, but that function is not mine." Instead every determination means painstaking study of every angle of the industry.

It is the duty of the justice to examine the legality of bringing the dispute before the Commonwealth Court, to investigate the cost of living not only in one vicinity but in each community where the dispute is smouldering, to consider the effect of the proposed increase of wages on the industry unless, as sometimes happens, the respondent admits the ability of the industry to bear an increased rate.

Most important of all, the justice must decide whether for some especial reason employes should receive a minimum wage higher, or perhaps lower, than that reckoned by the cost of living. In the case of the federated marine stewards, for example, Mr. Justice Higgins decided that the problem before the court is the ascertainment of the income accruing to employes from all sources by virtue of their employment and therefore "tips" must be taken into account.

Fixing Piece Rates

Finally, where piece rates are to be fixed, it requires much testimony from employer and employe as well as expert accounting to compute such piece-work rates as would enable an average worker to earn the minimum wage paid for time work in the trade. Piece-work does not, however, seem to be as prevalent in Australia as in the United States.

In the Australian boot-makers' case, Mr. Justice Higgins referred to the piece-work system and its effect in America. "Despite the high wages in the United States, the labor cost is only 21½ per cent of the value of the product, whereas in Australia the labor cost is



HENRY BOURNES HIGGINS

President of the Commonwealth Court of Conciliation and Arbitration in Australia

28¾ per cent. This result is mainly due to the fact that the men attain higher speed in the United States. They are paid by piece-work, the more work, the more pay."

The same deliberate care with which Mr. Justice Higgins makes his judicial decisions is manifested in his criticism of the whole minimum wage and arbitration systems in Australia. He does not enthusiastically endorse every detail of the present scheme. He freely admits that state tribunals are often influenced to fix low rates by the consideration of interstate competition and that the competition of wages boards is about as detrimental as the competition of industries.

He admits that in certain instances a wages board has been dominated by capital and expresses doubt as to the expediency of a mere wages board where a board is confined to a single undertaking and the employes who are members have no chance of getting similar employment in the same locality. When a board was formed for the Brisbane Tramways Company, for example, the members were the manager, superintend-

ent and employes of the company. Every proposal was made by the manager and accepted unanimously by the men who held their positions at the manager's will.

As to the federal court, Mr. Justice Higgins makes chief objection to moving in "technical hobbles"—to the legal restrictions with which the court is surrounded. As actually happened in the Merchant Service Guild Case, he may spend days and weeks in going into the merits of claims and then after the award the whole proceeding may become a nullity because some dissatisfied party may make an application for prohibition on legal grounds and be sustained by the High Court. Naturally, as time goes on, precedents are being established to define and clarify the act. But at times it looks as if the United States were not the only country in the world whose learned judges are often more concerned with quibbling over words than with promoting human welfare.

The time-honored objections to the principle of the minimum wage are not sustained by Mr. Justice Higgins. "It's wonderful," he commented, "to note how

often what you expect to happen does not happen. Industries have not been driven out of states where there are wage boards. Of the first thirty-eight wage boards established in Victoria, application for eleven was made by manufacturers. Now, with more than 130 in existence, employers very generally favor them.

Neither has the maximum wage become the minimum. "Individual bargaining still exists but on a legitimate level. Manufacturers still pay a high wage to secure particular skill or a plentiful supply of good labor. As for the consumer bearing the brunt of the minimum wage, the cost of necessities of life is certainly greater now than 20 years ago. But this increase in prices is not confined to countries with a protective policy, or to countries where there are wages boards or arbitration courts,—it is at the present time causing much distress and public anxiety in America and in Europe."

The persistent criticism of the minimum wage doctrine, that thousands of workers would be thrown out of industry, is safeguarded in Australia, according to Mr. Justice Higgins, by the gradual adoption of the system in a few industries at a time and by the granting of permits for apprentices and for aged, slow and infirm workers. In some cases the number of these workers is limited.

The granting of permits is accorded in different ways by different wages boards, but it is usually done with such publicity that the custom is not abused by employers. Sometimes it is given by the chief inspector of factories after submitting the application to the union secretary, if the man is a union member. Sometimes it is granted by a board of reference consisting of an equal number of employers and employees in a trade.

"It is clear," said Mr. Justice Higgins, "that unless these exceptions are carefully guarded the whole principle of the minimum wage will be rendered nugatory."

IN this connection it is curious to note that apparently Australia is giving much less attention than the United States to making her laborers "fit" for a minimum wage. Although Mr. Justice Higgins speaks of the "pestilent manufacture of imperfect tradesmen" and suggests the closer association of factories with the technical schools, he did not emphasize the tendency now manifest in the United States to increase the efficiency of the workers by introducing the efficiency engineer and the factory school. This is doubtless due to the retention, however slender, of an apprenticeship system in many trades, to the lack of extreme specialization in industry and to the large amount of pastoral occupation.

Altogether Mr. Justice Higgins believes that the great experiment of minimum wage legislation and compulsory arbitration in Australia has been a success. Attacks upon the arbitration court have come, he asserts, from two main sources: from the conservative employer who believes that the conduct of his business is a matter which concerns himself only; and from the syndicalists, corresponding to the Industrial Workers of the World, who adhere to the strike policy which the arbitration laws are framed to discourage. "Extremes meet here," said the justice.

But the great mass of employers and the great mass of workers uphold arbitration and the legal minimum wage. High wages, it is admitted, mean better machinery and greater efficiency in conducting industry. At the same time they mean greater efficiency in the employee. Arbitration means fewer strikes and less attendant human suffering.

"A growing sense of the value of human life," asserts Mr. Justice Higgins, "seems to be at the back of all these methods of regulating labor; a growing conviction that human life is too valuable to be the shuttlecock in the game of money-making and competition; a growing resolve that the injurious strain of the contest—but only so far as it is injurious—shall, so far as possible, be shifted from the human instruments."

Organizing the Law Courts for Efficiency

By Herbert Harley

SECRETARY, AMERICAN JUDICATURE SOCIETY

THERE are encouraging signs that the reaction of the legal profession to the storm of criticism which burst upon our judicial systems a year or two ago is to be distinctly helpful. In many states the more public-spirited lawyers are seeking to forward constructive reform.

The stage of inquiry is not yet passed. Just what it is that makes justice painfully slow and uncertain is still a matter of disagreement. It is understood that in England and Canada, among people similar to ourselves, and where the substantive law is closely related to ours, the courts are self-conscious and ambitious—that they "make good." The natural expectation is that in America the courts will eventually reflect the national instinct for effectiveness; that they will become practical, economical of effort, efficient.

If one were to endeavor to synthesize all the many causes for dissatisfaction with American courts he might well say that our courts, while they do not exemplify our instinct for practicality, are a perfect reflection of our national timid-

ity in government. We have the most thoroughly decentralized government the world has ever seen.

In recent years we have come to see that the dissipation of individual responsibility, inherent in our system, is most to blame for our governmental inefficiency, and we are moving rapidly in our great revolutionary work of reconstructing the machinery of government so that responsibility will become the powerful factor which it must be in any successful scheme of human affairs. We are first simplifying our municipal government so that responsibility will flow in direct lines from the people's servants to the people. We are learning not to ask of the electorate superhuman qualities. We are finding that good government can be won without making angels of all voters, by improving the machinery of government and giving expression to that natural instinct for order and restraint which every normal mind possesses.

The movement is beginning to extend to state governments, and it appears that soon we will have real politics in

this country in place of the degrading hustle for office which has been heretofore the mainspring of public action.

We are beginning to see that the trouble with our courts is almost identical with the troubled experience in municipal government which persisted so long that we had become fairly pessimistic when the short ballot under the guise of "commission government" came in.

We have no real judicial department, as they have in England and Canada, though our fundamental scheme calls for a judicial branch. Instead we have a certain number of judges more or less loosely associated in certain courts in every state, but these courts do not constitute an entity with a mind, a nervous system, and muscles that can perform its certain definite task.

There are well trained judges everywhere, but no judge possesses all of the judicial power of the state. This power, which we must think of as essentially indivisible, is parceled out among an unorganized lot of judges. It is a piece-work system which is all right so far as it makes for specializing, but implies

as a requisite some central and controlling mind. This central mind and this power to control are wholly lacking.

The complaint is not so much that judges do not know the law or do not conscientiously apply it. The complaint is largely as to failure on the administrative side of the judicial function. The best agents must fall short if their activities are not intelligently directed.

If all the numerous judges, in some states several hundred in number, are to do their individual piece-work so that there will be real effectiveness in the output of the entire force, there must be a centralized intelligence to direct their efforts and this intelligence must have power to enforce its will. There must be finally one single person held responsible for the execution of the centralized will of the judicial department and for harmonious work. That single responsible person must be accountable directly to all the people of the state.

Lawyers very generally have accepted the theory that the courts must have and exercise far greater power with respect to creating, amending, and enforcing procedural rules. There are some few large features of procedural law which may well be controlled solely by the legislature, but the great bulk of procedural law is nothing more nor less than directions pertaining to the petty details of litigation, and it should emanate from the judicial branch itself, constituting a flexible system of rules.

Lacking any administrative machinery in our judicial systems, we have been obliged to legislate a great volume of mandatory and inflexible rules in an effort to force judges to do the right thing. As a matter of fact, judges almost always want to do the right thing, but they are constantly confronted by this inflexible procedure which compels them to do awkward and uneconomical things through which great injustice results. Legislated rules confer substantive rights and our over-contentious system obliges lawyers to take advantage of every opportunity and compels judges to subordinate rights to mere form.

For Substantial Justice

It is now quite generally agreed that beyond a short practice act, all rules of procedure should be rules of court which will permit of variance in the interest of substantial justice. Lawyers talk this doctrine in two score bar associations, but there is no step toward putting it into effect, and the reason is that the judicial system is so flabby that there is really no place where this important power can be safely vested.

But no great change is needed. There need be no such sweeping change as takes place when a city adopts commission government. It is merely necessary to create a unified organization of the courts of a state, making very little change in the accustomed courts. There will still be judges devoted to the trial

of all sorts of causes and a court for appeal, and local judges of limited jurisdiction.

The central authority, which must exist to exercise the rule-making power, which must be transferred largely from the legislature to the judiciary, can be brought into being by providing a judicial council of five or seven or nine judges. The head of the council will be the chief justice of the state. These men will spend much of their time on the bench, but as a judicial council they will have important administrative powers, will become, in fact, responsible for the enforcement of department rules and for the economical and prompt functioning of the entire department.

Judicial Statistics

The larger questions involved will be settled by the judicial council whose orders will be executed by the chief justice. The lesser details, arising from day to day, will come directly within the province of the chief justice. To keep him in touch with the system he must become the recipient of frequent reports from all the judges and branch courts and must compile and digest these reports and publish them so that the people will know what is going on in the judicial department. They do not now know and have no means of knowing. As a matter of fact, nobody knows. The wealth of data of vital importance in framing policies and legislation is now entirely beyond our ken. Ours is the only government in the world in which judicial statistics are lacking.

Of course procedural rules, so made, will be subject to the veto of the legislature, but experience in England and Canada has shown that the unified and organized courts exercise this power so well that the legislature is not tempted to interfere, and it, in turn, is benefited by having this duty, foreign to its nature, taken from its shoulders.

Such rules will naturally tend to expedite business in the courts because judges prefer to make work short rather than tedious. They will inevitably assume a rational and simple form, and then finally we will have achieved the exorcism of that deadly formality of the law courts with which we have struggled in America and in the mother country for many centuries.

Given the slight orientation, the simple organization, the centralized responsibility which is here suggested, and our courts will inevitably come to reflect the practical good sense and love of genuine achievement which is a leading characteristic of the people of this country.

The American Judicature Society, called into being expressly to study the needs of the courts and procedure and to further a movement calculated to make our judicial systems expressive of the democratic ideal, finds its present scope for activity largely in this insistent need for proper organization. It is a work

more of political science than of law. The political scientists have been too shy to invade this field. The lawyers have not appreciated the non-technical character of this constructive work.

The field has been unoccupied until now. The American Judicature Society, which has enrolled lawyers and political scientists in practically every state to form an advisory and critical body, conceives of the present need as calling especially for concrete recommendations in the form of model acts. The society is now engaging the best available talent in the country to draft judicature acts and is submitting these acts to its council and to experts generally.

The field divides readily into municipal and state courts. Of course there should be ideally complete unification of the courts of a state, but the cities are so much more in need of betterments, and the complaints are so much more insistent among them, that it seems probable that reorganization dependent upon constitutional amendment will come about first in certain of the larger cities, and that having proved itself in these cities, states will later be induced to move to the higher plane.

A Model Act

The first draft of a model act to create a unified judicial system for a metropolitan district has been prepared and circulated by the society. It will be re-drafted after sufficient time for criticism. The society is about to launch its first draft of a state-wide judicature act.

In time these model acts will be supplemented by schedules of rules constituting simple and rational procedure, and suitable for enactment as a substitute for the great body of procedural law which has accumulated. The organized courts will then be given power to revise and develop this system of procedure to meet needs as they arise.

It is true that in most states there must be constitutional changes in order to permit of the adoption of any model court organization, but this is not because anything drastic or strange is proposed; it is merely because the constitutions reflect the ideas of a more primitive age, because they went unnecessarily into detail.

In all these suggestions there is no proposal to alter any substantive law or to affect any substantive right of any parties litigant. The idea is merely to unify courts into a simple department so that the plain duty of adjudicating controversies may be performed with a minimum of effort and inconvenience; to give somebody power to get good results on the administrative side of the judicial function; to hold those persons to whom such power is given strictly accountable for results; to let a flood of daylight into our court business, and to acquire from the courts the data upon which constructive social and criminal legislation can be founded.



Driving "Devils" Out of Samoa



How the Task of Saving an Island Race from Disease and Superstition is Being Met in the South Pacific Ocean

IN the little traveled expanses of the South Pacific, 1,500 miles east of Australia, a group of tiny islands that appear in one's geography as dots amid the myriad dots of Oceania is today being benefited by a modern fight against diseases that have long held the population in check and brought misery to thousands. The latest phase of this fight is the effort to train native men and women as nurses. It is meeting the obstacles of ignorance, superstition and lack of money.

These islands are the American Samoan group. Escaping exploration until 1768, they have been left until recently, except for the introduction of Christianity in 1830, to the sway of primitive tradition and the pursuit of savage practices.

There are many theories as to the origin of the Samoans. One is that they were originally a Caucasian people from southern and eastern Asia which, branching out through Japan, reached far beyond the Pacific islands inhabited by black races and established themselves in Samoa, thence spreading throughout the islands of Polynesia. "Their light skin, well-formed features, wavy hair and fine figures," says Colquhoun, "are united to many graces of disposition."



YAWS

Seventy-five per cent of all Samoans contract this loathsome disease in childhood.

It is a belief of the Samoans that nearly all illness is due to "devils." In consequence a cult grew up that professed to have power to drive away these "devils," and so cure disease, by means of exhortations, cutting with pieces of glass, and the use of various leaves. Some of these leaves have since been found to be very powerful and even dangerous in their action.

Such sanitary essentials as latrines were unknown among the Samoans. Flies and mosquitoes found abundant facilities for breeding, the former in the quantities of organic excreta to be found everywhere, the latter in the numerous pools and swamps fed by torrential rains and favored by the absence of any attempt at drainage. Dysentery, tuberculosis, yaws, elephantiasis, diarrhoea, abscesses and "sore eyes" were very prevalent. Some of these diseases are attended by frightful skin excrescences and the swelling of legs beyond all semblance to the human form. Carelessness toward women in confinement and the ignorance of mothers in the care and feeding of their infants, contributed to a high mortality.

The American Samoan Islands were taken over by the United States, by agreement with England and Germany, in 1900. The need for medical and san-



WHERE "DEVILS" ARE DRIVEN OUT

The modern hospital in American Samoa which has superseded the native cult that fought disease with exhortations and cutting by glass.



HEALTHY SAMOAN CHILD
Showing his native dress



OVERLOOKING THE HARBOR OF PAGO-PAGO

Another view of the Naval Hospital which, if it can find money to carry out its plans, may prolong the life of the fine race of Samoan people.

itary measures was at once seen. The government of the islands was placed in the hands of the commandant of the naval station in the harbor of Pago-Pago, Tutuila, and the medical department, handicapped by lack of appropriation, undertook to improve conditions among the natives.

One of the first difficulties was to induce the Samoan to present himself for treatment and education. He was found to cling with tenacity to his old customs and it was some time before modern diagnosis and medicine, and especially surgery, could be made to find favor in his eyes. Gradually, however, the daily clinics increased, and the "tomai sili" (head doctor) came to be trusted.

In spite of occasional increases of hospital area and the final erection of new hospital buildings in 1911, great numbers of sick people are never reached. The actual area of American Samoa is a few hundred square miles, but the islands are scattered over an expanse of 18,000 square miles. They are volcanic in

origin, with the result that transportation is extremely difficult. Many villages are thus actually so remote from the hospital that numbers of sick people are never brought in. Sanitary conditions in these remote parts suffer proportionately.

It is proposed to meet this difficulty by training native young men and women to act as visiting and resident nurses throughout the islands. A school for this purpose has just been started. Two of its students may be seen in costume at the head of this article.

But though this project has been begun, the same lack of funds that has all along proved such a handicap to sanitary and medical care, may hamper its effectiveness. The appropriations of the Navy Department for the upkeep of its station at Tutuila are not designed to rid the islands of disease. The Samoan hospital, moreover, has just been made a free institution, so that the small fees heretofore received from the treatment of the natives are cut off. The revenue

derived from the single export—the dried kernel of the ripe cocoanut—is declared to be barely sufficient for the maintenance of the islands.

The building used as a home for the nurses in training is being paid for in installments, the first payment having been met by the proceeds from a bazaar given jointly by women at the naval station and by native women. It is estimated that \$5,000 would reasonably insure the success of the training school.

The school is at present conducted by two navy nurses. The native men and women who will be sent out from it will be trained particularly in midwifery and the care and feeding of children and will perform the duties of sanitary inspectors.

So heavy has been the toll of disease among the inhabitants of these islands that the population—8,000—has been unable to do more than hold its own. It is believed that the effect of the plans here outlined will be nothing short of prolonging the life of this fine race.

Four Wards of the Hospital

Sarah N. Cleghorn

THE ACCIDENT WARD

TWISTED and maimed, so many, how came you hither?
(Listen, Captains of Industry:
Hear, O Judges!)
"The knives and cogs of the Moloch machine lay waiting
For the fagged and the dazed and the faint and the over-speeded
Into their sharp-set racking embrace they drew us,
Cracked like a shell the handiwork of the Almighty,
And cheaply flung us, seared and scalded and broken,
Legless, armless,
Into the long white ward."

THE TUBERCULOUS WARD

WHENCE came you; O hollow and hectic faces?
(Listen, Landlords,
Listen and hear them coughing.)
"Finished product we of the sweatshop chemist,
Who from the dust, the dark and the damp distils us:
Frankenstein of the sunless, airless chamber;
Death's industrious, accurate, skilful Foreman."

THE ALCOHOLIC WARD

WRECKS of manhood, search your sodden remembrance:
Tell the City,
(Alas the thoughtless City!) how you came hither.
Death's industrious, accurate, skilful Foreman."
Vainly up and down the City we sought her,
Till she called us into the dingy gin-shop.
There she dwells, unkempt, forlorn, degraded,
Where the City
(Alas, the blind, blind city!) has lodged and left her."

THE NAMELESS WARD

WHENCE came you, O sad, O strange little children?
(Listen, Mothers and Fathers!)
"A sick and shuddering woman led us hither,
Turning away her face and weeping for pity.
All in vain, in frenzy of fear, our mothers
Strove to loose from her soiled and tattered garments
The clutch of our baby fingers.
She herself, the friendless, shelterless woman,
Sought in pity, and all in vain, to leave us.
Where she wanders, lost and ruined and wasted,
Little Children
(Listen, Mothers! and Listen Fathers!) must follow."

The Westinghouse Strike

“A Matter of Class-Consciousness and not of Dollars-and-Cents”

George V. S. Michaelis

“A PURELY class-conscious strike with dollars-and-cents bargaining hardly a factor. It is not an attack on the companies. It is direct warfare against the institutions of society. The strike leaders are idealists. They dream of a co-operative commonwealth. But they limit its benefits to workers alone. They are trying in a day to overturn institutions which it has taken centuries to build up. The strike, therefore, has been hopeless from its inception. It cannot win. The companies, in a sense, are not involved. The strike will be beaten by the organized society of the present day and by the financial depression of this year.”

Thus the writer spoke of the Turtle Creek Valley strike against the Westinghouse Companies, so-called, of the Pittsburgh district. His auditors were a group of Pittsburgh social workers and the editor of *THE SURVEY*.

The editor finally said: “That is an interesting interpretation of the strike. Why not write it out for *THE SURVEY*.”

This article, therefore, is an individual expression. It does not seek to express editorial opinion. Responsibility for its views must be recognized as resting solely upon the writer.

A Clinical Study

A director of one of the Westinghouse Companies involved has been interested for many months with me in an endeavor to work out some method of bringing industrial peace that shall be fair to all factors involved, including capital, management, ability, labor, overhead, consumption and organized society as a unit. He suggested that this strike might afford an opportunity for, shall we say, a “clinical study” of the problem. In the Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company alone nearly 9,000 workers were out and half as many more from the other companies involved.

So I went to Pittsburgh, arriving Friday morning, June 26, when the strike was exactly three weeks old, as the workers walked out on Friday, June 5. Tensard de Wolf, the secretary of the Voters' League of Pittsburgh, secured introductions and piloted me to East Pittsburgh.

We first walked about the village. No saloons were open. “Closed since the strike began.” The strikers say they ordered this, and as Socialist officers who were allied with them control two

[From 1909 to 1914 an officer of manufacturing corporations; now managing a selling agency; and associated with a group of manufacturers, business men, and others, in working out plans for an “Industrial Peace Movement.”]

boroughs of the three involved, they deserve two-thirds, at least, of the credit.

There was quiet without gaiety. The feeling was more than this: it was somber. On the streets there was no note of bitterness, except at opening and closing hours of work, when the feeling against the “scabs” ran up. Men moved about or stood, but did not give the effect of being loafers. Rather the impression was one of waiting—a dumb, silent waiting. This was understood when later investigation showed that the strike was called in emotionalism. The waiting was a matter of feeling, not of defined intellectual watching for developments.

At the headquarters of the Allegheny Congenial Industrial Union we called out from the committee room, Bridget Kenny, an active, intense young woman of “many years of shop life.” “There’s a committee meeting. Speak to Mr. Barrett. I’m sorry I can’t give you time now.” Men and boys were waiting, but there was less confusion than at a political headquarters. A nervous, lithe, white-shirted, quick-spoken man appeared and disappeared saying: “I’m Barrett. See O’Keefe at the Labor Tabernacle. He’s chairman of the executive committee. Some of these gentlemen will gladly show you the way.”

We walked along Braddock avenue and crossed the creek into the borough of Turtle Creek and on to a baseball field where stood the Labor Tabernacle. It was a huge, flat, flimsy shed erected hurriedly a few weeks before for a revival of the “Billy” Sunday type. Not a seat was left—3,500 people at least were seated, hundreds stood around, clustered even against the outside walls, opened by the raising of horizontal shutters.

One of our guides brought out Mr. O’Keefe. He was in shirt sleeves and gave the impression of a vigorous, intense personality. He had to speak next, he explained, but invited us to stay. “The meetings of this union are open to all. We have nothing to conceal.”

From now on, with perhaps a single

exception, names of leaders will be omitted. There are two reasons for this. In the first place, in the existing state of society, including both employers and employes, there will be less risk of inviting criticism upon the leaders as individuals from either “bosses” or unionists.

In the second place, this was a strike without personal advertising. Personalities were deliberately kept in the background. Let not the significance of this be passed over. The real leaders of the strike were fighting for an ideal. You and I may not agree with them or we may. But in fairness recognize this fact—they wanted not personal aggrandizement, they stood for a cause.

No Special Grievances

The first and the abiding impression was that this was a strike without specific grievances having been the cause. This the body of the strikers will deny. They do not distinguish between grievances following a separation, and those before it. John and Jane have lived together for years. Let us say that Jane becomes interested in the Rolutulo Movement (it does not exist so I am safe from criticism by “pros” or “cons”!) Her interest becomes absorption. At last from a sense of duty she leaves her husband. Out of the quiet years would come up many and many a real or fancied grievance never thought of before.

The chief of the grievances brought out were: That when 5,000 were dropped during the early part of the year 300 members of the union went, including 30 active leaders; “efficiency systems”; and a reduction in hours of work in order not to cut down the force further.

Why did the strikers walk out? They, themselves, could not give clear cut, definite reasons. It is not forced humor or current jest to say it was a “psychological strike,” for that is just what it was. Months before, a little group of men who had been reading de Leon, Trautmann and others caught fire from the glowing dream of the “workers’ co-operative commonwealth” to be brought about by “one big union.”

The Turtle Creek Valley section was a fertile field for their zeal and missionary work. For twenty years socialistic propaganda had been working there. Socialists were gaining numerically until local municipalities elected their tickets. Furthermore, nineteen nationalities could be counted among the Westing-

house workers. These were no sodden peasants, dumb and stupid. They were highly literate. Many wrote in two languages. No plants in the country had a higher type of employees.

The only personal grievances the leaders may have had were unconscious. In these days of business organization of huge size, these men were left in the ranks. They had no outlet for their energies that was big enough to use up their force. In simpler days they would have worked into the ranks of "bosses" or been active in politics. Events proved that they were born leaders; untrained, impracticable and not masters of men, yet leaders.

The Socialists and the I. W. W. were aware of this demand for mental feeding. They poured in their history and their economics. Politics no longer teaches the foreigner. This might have been done in the days of detailed organization, but of recent years no steps have been taken. On other lines the welfare work of the companies has been notable.

Swallowing Marx Whole

The companies were doing their part. But organized society was doing nothing. It was left to a part of society to feed the hunger of these active brains. Unity is a law of life on all planes. "Unity" was the keynote of these teachings, but it was a mangled, lopsided unity, limited to workers only. They did not see this. To them "the workers" include all. Marxism was accepted on faith, without analysis or deliberate thinking. "The worker produces all wealth." Hence all wealth that does not come to him is property of his of which he is deprived.

Organized society and its laws protect those who have thus deprived the worker of wealth—therefore organized society and its laws are immoral and to be disregarded by moral men. The writer, as an individualist in his own beliefs, utterly repudiates this doctrine. He would like to defend his position, but it is the views of the Turtle Creek strikers that are being considered, not his.

A new ideal was soon combined with this principle. It was preached by the Detroit Industrial Workers of the World. In saying what I am about to say I will receive criticism from many an associate. A few weeks ago, I would have shared their views. I still regard all the I. W. W.'s and kindred bodies as entirely wrong, but I now try to understand them. Let us sympathize with their intention and try to guide their efforts to put it into effect, and not rest with denouncing them.

This new ideal is that, as labor owns all, it is folly to use effort to get a little of its own. What is needed is to cement the brotherhood of workers. Therefore attack society piece-meal in order to demonstrate power until power has

grown so strong that all industries may be taken over. The dream is that organized society will then peacefully consent to its own extinction and a new structure rise.

An Industrial Union

Trades unions, to this school, are sordid and cowardly. "Capital" itself was not more abused than was the American Federation of Labor in this strike. The very organization of the union expressed the protest. No crafts were recognized. Note the following "declaration of principles of the Alleghany Congenial Industrial Union":

"We affirm the irreconcilable difference of interests between the employer who buys labor power in the labor market for the purpose of making a profit on the one hand, and the wage-earner who sells his ability to produce wealth to some employer, in order to secure the necessities of life, on the other. We know from bitter experience that the buyer and seller in the labor market can never see things from a common viewpoint, as the employer always buys as cheaply as possible and we as wage-earners wish to sell our labor power for the highest possible wages.

"We are therefore determined to band together in an industrial union which recognizes no distinction as to craft, sex, religious creed, political affiliations, age or nationality for the purpose of compelling our common employers to give us every concession we can force from them by industrial solidarity."

"Drop class sympathy for a moment," was said to one of the leaders, "and read that declaration as a member of organized society—what does it mean? What could you say?"

The man was honest: "I'd say—war is declared, I guess I'd better look out for trouble."

Now read the reply by the companies, signed by Westinghouse Electric and Manufacturing Company, Westinghouse Machine Company, Union Switch and Signal Company and Pittsburgh Meter Company:

"We submit the principles for which the Westinghouse Companies stand committed:

I. Westinghouse Shops Shall Be Open Shops.

We stand for the principle of an open shop in which Union and non-Union men may work without molestation or being forced to join any organization.

II. Westinghouse Employees May or May Not Be Members of Any Organization.

We do not require of our employees that they shall refrain from joining labor organizations any more than we attempt to restrain them from joining any other bodies, but we maintain for all our employees the right to refrain from joining any organization

without prejudice to their positions, or their security, or their comfort in our employ.

III. The Pay of Skillful and Productive Westinghouse Employees Shall Not Be Regulated by the Pay of the Inefficient and Less Productive.

We pay wages and maintain shop conditions which compare favorably with other manufacturers in our industries.

By this means and by the added inducement of steady employment, we endeavor to attract the best workmen.

In order to compete with other firms, both at home and abroad, we must introduce all of the agencies by which the best efficiency is obtained.

We reserve the right to determine the compensation of our employees on the basis of the service they perform for us as well as by the day rate which measures only the time spent in our works.

IV. Every Westinghouse Employee Has the Right of Conference With the Management.

We receive any one employee or any number of employees from any department, or any properly chosen committee whose selection shall be truly representative from any department or of the whole body of our employees.

V. Every Westinghouse Shop Shall Be Safe, Sanitary and Comfortable, and All Suggestions of Employees for Improvement in Shop Conditions Are Welcomed by the Management.

We seek to maintain the best standard of sanitary and working conditions in our factories as we believe that to provide as good surroundings as the character of our operations permit is the best guarantee we have of obtaining and holding the best class of employees."

If space permitted it would be interesting to go into the details of the discussions with the leaders. One point deserves to be noted. In their intellectual interest they followed me closely, although I was propounding views in opposition to their own. We met in sympathy. I had been touched by the women and children at the mass meetings and their endurance of suffering. I felt that the nature of the strike was such that organized society, of which Mr. Herr, the labor leaders and myself were all components, could not give in in one single particular.

Talking It Over

The strike had challenged the world. Furthermore, my own knowledge of labor conditions this year enabled me to know that men are everywhere seeking work and that it was only a question of time when the works would be filled and the strikers still out would be suffering. Only suffering could come from the strike's prolongation.

It was remarkable that I was permitted to talk so frankly. Think of the fact that "Bill" Trautmann, himself, was recently assaulted and nearly killed after

criticising a branch of the I. W. W. But the reception given my "peace propaganda" is an illustration, that to me is notable, that this was no ordinary strike. Unconsciously the strikers were feeling their way. The quietness I had noted that first night was characteristic. The workers were thinking, thinking, thinking. They were not used to thinking and the effort stilled them. This is in seeming contradiction to my statement that the strike was emotional and that the strikers were not illiterate. But the contradiction is only in terms. The strikers were not reasoning—had they reasoned there would have been no strike. The facts would have been recognized and "1914" would have punctured the bubble at the very start.

Vested Rights in Jobs

The strikers thought—most labor men think—that all property by rights was theirs as a class, and that as individuals, each had a property right in his job. They merely took the typical property owner's attitude when they objected to "scabs" and "strike-breakers" being employed on the jobs they had left.

Before I went to Turtle Creek Valley I had believed the hatred of the "scab" was the old caste feeling, similar to the clubmen's feeling regarding cheating at cards. I now believe it is the result of thinking over the economic teaching of the Socialists, which is the only teaching that American workers have received for twenty years.

The Allegheny Congenial Industrial Union—as the local organization was called—denounced the school system from the platform as it did the legislatures and courts, in common with trade unions and all other agencies of existing society. It need not have!

All that our schools are doing is to fit pupils more easily to take in and accept the Socialist or I. W. W. doctrines with their attractive phrases.

This will explain some of the statements and demands that were so obviously wrong as to be pathetic. Municipal authorities made official demands that "gunmen" or company watchmen be removed. Yet the union had men officially on duty in the Labor Tabernacle to keep out disorderly persons and to prevent fire. This was all that the companies were doing. Not once did the companies take the aggressive.

The deputy sheriffs were "ordered" out in ignorance of the law and of the fact that Allegheny county only this year had finished paying for the millions of damage done by the rioting in 1877. When the State Constabulary were called in by the sheriff, rage ran high, but the men felt helpless. To the onlooker it seems ominous that this splendid body of soldierly young men, truly comparable to the Northwest Mounted Police of Canada, should be so

hated.

After three weeks and more of remarkable restraint, on Monday morning, June 29, there was trouble. The "pure democracy" of the union was yielding to the discontented and radical element, and on Sunday the leaders were forced to consent to a picketing that should keep out everyone—foremen, clerks and firemen, previously allowed in unmolested. "There was no violence—we didn't kill anyone" said one of the leaders in perfect simplicity. Said another, "We have picked up people, carried them through the crowd and sent them home." Would you think it "violent" to be seized by a number of excited men; dragged, kicked, carried and stepped-on through a pressing crowd; spit upon and kicked on your way?

Congressmen and courts had been quoted at mass meetings to prove picketing "legal". In Washington it is called "peaceful picketing." In Turtle Creek picketing is "keeping men from going to work" and "peaceful" picketing is not killing them. This will be denied, but a hundred statements proved it. You and I may call the killing of a scab "murder", but to the modern, class-conscious workman it is no different from the "justifiable homicide", of the law when you kill a burglar in the act of entering your house.

That is why the Turtle Creek Valley paid no attention to the killing of non-union men in Colorado, but waked to frenzy over the "Ludlow episode" in which the women and children, smothered to death in the tiny cavern in which they were placed and sealed, became "victims of Rockefeller"—"martyred by Capital." Pathetic reasoning, childish reasoning—true; but it is the reasoning of a growing number of American citizens. They not only vote—they believe that they have a moral and a legal right to kill in defense of their jobs. When the State Constabulary's quiet and terrible efficiency prevents this, they become "Cossacks" and are hated.

Mounted Law and Order

Never was I so thrilled by a marvelous demonstration that to preserve peace, the law must be enforced, as I was when I saw three "troopers" in dark gray, idling on the covered bridge, while people filed in and out of the works where the day before thousands had stormed unawed by the deputy sheriffs. Why does not organized society in Pennsylvania see that the people of all classes look at these troopers as they are—the embodiment, the manifestation of law and order, and not as individual villains?

"Why not?" I can answer that question—for the same reason I thought "Bill" Trautmann a "red" and a "villain" before I met him. They don't know

the facts. If nothing else came out of my trip I should regard my knowing him as worth while. I still regard Mr. Trautmann as entirely wrong in his plans and policies, but we are both working for humanity, brotherhood, unity—call it what you will—only we approach it in different ways.

I agree with Sir Oliver Lodge that "there is no indication in twenty thousand years of recorded history that there has been any change in human nature." Trautmann believes a new type has sprung into existence. He believes that in twenty years the civilization of twenty centuries can be changed and all its institutions overthrown. Trautmann may be right or wrong, but I do know this, that organized society is doing nothing to assist him in reaching a right decision. He wants to be right, but nothing is done to help him.

The Turtle Creek Valley strike is over. It was beaten, as it had to be beaten, things being as they are. E. M. Herr, the quiet, firm, fatherly, sympathetic employer has taken personal charge of the human relations with his force. Lied about and misrepresented by the newspapers, he never wavered. But he could not take back the leaders first dropped—before the strike. This was impossible. I told these leaders so myself and pointed out the reasons for his position. They acquiesced.

An "A B C" Needed

What I ask of organized society is this: Should men like Trautmann, O'Keefe, Hartsorn, Bradley, Harrison, and a score of others, be forced to be enemies of society as it exists, or shall we meet them face to face and talk things out?

I still hear the pathetic cry: "If only the employers had sat down with us and explained things, this strike would never have come about," of one of the ablest leaders, and one of the most "dangerous" at that.

I wish THE SURVEY's readers could have seen the wonderful organization for disseminating news and information; the brotherhood of nationalities so perfect that Austrian and Servian brushed aside the killing of the archduke with "nothing shall separate the workers;" and finally the trial of the "pure democracy" principle, with its repudiation of conservatism and reasoning and its yielding to emotion and impulse.

The Turtle Creek Valley strike was more than "laboratory experimentation". Many a scheme was given "a practical working test". But what is most important is: Is peace possible so long as the separation of classes be accepted as inevitable and be encouraged—as it is by us all—some by indifference, others in ignorance, others in sympathy, and by others through popular propagandas of all kinds?

"Beauty for Ashes"

Albion Fellows Bacon

Chapter X--Victory for the People

ACROSS the state of Indiana we went in October to beautiful Fort Wayne. Through woods that were aflame with scarlet and crimson we passed, through orchards hung with rubies. The russet fields on either side were heaped with gold where piles of pumpkins lay. And there among them stood shocks of corn like folded palms upraised, praising the God of Plenty. All day we rode in a trail of glory that lifted from my heart for a time the shadow of the cities where the little children live. It was for the purpose of laying that shadow upon other hearts that I was going to Fort Wayne, to make a final appeal for help to the State Federation of Women's Clubs before the Legislature met.

The city was on a holiday to greet the brilliant gathering of women who came from all corners of the state. Every form of intellectual and social entertainment was provided, and all prepared to make the most of every happy moment. But how could one dance with a ball and chain fastened to one's ankle? The responsibility of that last chance of appeal weighed me down in just that fashion. I felt that every woman there *had* to know and to care about the "homes" in our slums.

At other times, in free moments, I should have found their talk on music, literature and art most interesting, but now it fell upon me like a shower of rose leaves. Even the great movements of the clubs, to which I had always given earnest thought, failed to hold me. "But these things will keep; they don't require legislation, and you can always do them," I pleaded. "The Legislature meets in a few months, and if we fail to pass a tenement law now, we may never get it."

Clubs Give Support

Dear Mrs. McWhirter! I shall always love her for the way she understood. "This is our one big fight for this year," she declared, and, as president, threw all her strength and influence into it, arranging that The Homes of Indiana should have some place on all programs where she appeared. All the leaders of the federation were most generous in regard to this movement. A number of them even wanted to pass resolutions condemning by name the men

who were responsible for our defeat in 1911.

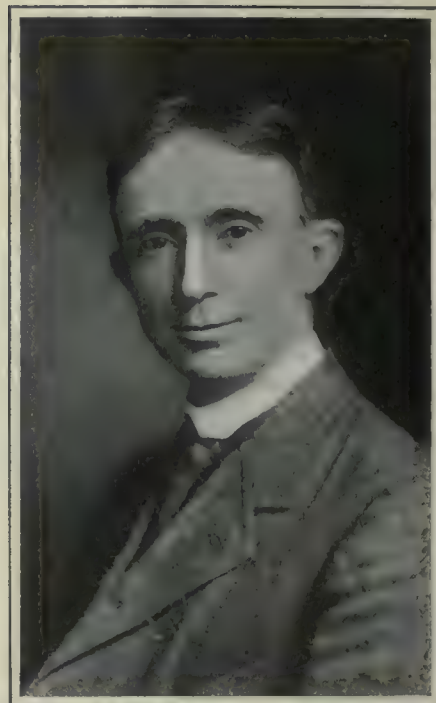
"But wait, and let us see what happens," I said. "I believe some of them will change their minds. They will realize how badly housing reform is needed, and will be convinced that the bill is fair."

Gaining Recruits

October was the end of the federation year, and chairmen of committees were laying down their tasks for others to take up. But my work lapped on around the year. I should still be on that race course in March. No rest till then. This was only a breathing space. I drew some big deep breaths in the home of the Guldin's, who entertained me, for their views were as generous and roomy as their grounds. People who live in a park and give gardens and playgrounds to their city can be expected to put a high estimate on sunlight and air, space, outlook and beauty. But not all of these, having set their hearts on such things, are willing to turn back to the consideration of slums, with their filth and ugliness. The Guldin's, however, did consider these things; and, to crown all, Mrs. Guldin, who was a national authority on home economics, agreed with me that housing reform was a vital and fundamental part thereof. With her characteristic energy she took up the housing work of her city, and joined in the state movement.

This visit gave me a coveted opportunity to call upon the dear old mother of one of our legislators. She was a noble lady, widely known for her good works, and I was delighted to find that she regarded the needs of the poor just as I did, and promised to do all she could for the tenement bill.

It was wonderful to see how, through the months previous to this meeting, sentiment had grown for the housing movement, through interest of the federation women. Such was the character of these women that their endorsement made housing reform not only popular but fashionable all over Indiana. In Mishawaka, Indianapolis, and other cities, the women's club numbered several hundred; in many towns it numbered 50 or 75. Some towns had a dozen or more clubs, and these were all political factors of decided importance. Not only



CHARLES B. CLARKE

Senator from Indianapolis who had charge of the tenement bill in the senate in 1913

were the members' husbands men of prominence, but the women themselves were influential in their communities.

One shrinks from making use of one's friendships, or from making political capital of honors graciously bestowed; but inasmuch as they were given for the purpose of helping our cause, it is only fair to acknowledge how well they served that cause.

First State Housing Association

During this time another organization had been formed, that took in the men who wanted to help with the housing movement, as well as the women. It was the Indiana Housing Association, the first state association for that work in the country. Alexander Johnson came from his country place in Angola to preside at the organizing, and we put him at the head of our advisory committee. Mr. Cox, of course, was elected president, and I was made secretary, thereby acquiring official responsibility for the work we had been doing hitherto.

Just to look at the printed list of our officers and committees gives me courage. Among them are Judge Howard, Hon. William L. Taylor, Dr. Hurty, and Amos W. Butler. We have Dr. U. G. Weatherly, of our Indiana University, who took a class of students over to Indianapolis and directed a housing survey of three districts of the city. In his classes it is safe to say there are no future slum landlords. We have too, some of our leading club women, some architects, and one of the largest real estate men in Indiana.

We had all of our charities secretaries in the association at the start. As "pov-

erty doctors" they were indispensable, for they knew more of the actual needs of the poor than any one else. Some of them were located in towns where the poor were regarded much as a colony of lepers would be. The public gave the secretary their money at the end of a long pole, and it was understood that the secretary was paid to do all the visiting of the dirty, smelly places, and to save the town from the heartaches that a sight of misery gives!

No wonder some of the secretaries have such big sad eyes. But how courageous they are! One of them, Rhoda Welding, has been a constant wonder to me, for she has braved even thugs and gunmen, and never hesitates to call out in her talks the names of the landlords who own the most disreputable old traps.

As we had no funds to help in our housing campaign, we could get surveys, etc., only by voluntary service, and this the secretaries gave most gladly.

Elements of Strength

Counting up the elements of our strength, I return to the State Board of Health. Since our defeat in 1911, they had used every opportunity to further housing reform. The subject was introduced into health institutes, and I was asked to speak at a number throughout the state. Dr. Hurty also asked me to address the health officers of the state, in convention, and they passed a resolution asking the Legislature to enact a tenement law. After speaking to the state Association of Trained Nurses, who prepared a similar resolution, I felt that every power for health was aligned with us. Finally, at a full session of the State Board of Health I was given a most cordial hearing, and they offered to help in every way possible. The most valuable result was a bulletin showing the relation of tuberculosis to housing, which they had printed, and laid on the desk of every member of the Legislature.

One strong and decisive move, that enlisted the churches of the state, was the plan for a Housing Sunday all over Indiana. We arranged the details through the charities organizations, sending through them letters to every minister in their towns, asking that one service of a certain Sunday be given to the consideration of conditions of the poor in their city. Each minister received a brief statement of our housing problem, also a sermonette to use if desired.

I saw newspaper reports of some of the sermons, and they were the sort that should stir men's souls. It was surprising what texts were found, ranging from the question of Cain, "Am I my brother's keeper?" on through all the books of the Bible. A striking text was taken from Deuteronomy: "When thou buildest a new house, then thou shalt make a battlement for thy roof, that thou bring not blood upon thine house, if any

man fall from thence."

I should like to know what penalties Moses would have prescribed for those who bring "blood upon their house" by omitting fire-escapes.

From time to time a number of pulpits of the state had been opened to me. I had spoken in Jewish temples and churches of every denomination. Most distinctly I remember giving a "sermon" in Indianapolis at the time of the charities conference when, as was customary, the conference speakers filled the pulpits of the city. It was published afterward in *THE SURVEY*. "Follow Me," was the text, and I tried to show how, if we follow Christ all the way, we must go among the homes of the wretched and needy as he did. As simply and plainly as possible I told the story of the poor in Indiana, and made an appeal for help in the name of Christ.

Enlisting a Senator

There were many of my friends in the church that day besides those who belonged to the congregation. Among them was one who sat near enough for me to notice his close interest in the story. Long afterwards he said to me, "I made up my mind, sitting there in church, that I would run for the Legislature for the purpose of carrying on the housing fight."

It was Senator Charles B. Clarke. He was elected to the Legislature of 1913, and made the tenement bill his chief charge, working for it with untiring energy.

He was one of the strongest Democrats in the Senate, and that party had an overwhelming majority. His political strength was a most valuable asset, but it was the spirit with which he went into the fight that made his leadership invincible. Senator Clarke is a man of splendid physique and indomitable courage. My last fear of the "big dog" vanished when I looked at his broad shoulders and towering height. The test of his efficiency, however, was in the finer matters of difficult diplomacy, and the use of a keen wit. The latter was ready for all occasions, as we found at our social gatherings in his home. I remember one dinner party there, at which we were comparing our Irish ancestry—he was from the Clarigs of County Kerry. One of the guests of different blood listened with passive interest. "Well, I always defend the Irish," she said. "They don't need it," flashed Senator Clarke.

Making Sacrifices

It was later in the session that I found how much of a sacrifice he had made in entering the Legislature. It was not only that a heavy and exacting law practice had to be laid aside, but certain interests were entirely forfeited.

In the same spirit the Coxes had kept

'See *THE SURVEY*, Oct. 3, 1912.

from me the fact that the tenement law of 1909 directly affected some of their property. I mention these instances to show what pure and exalted motives actuate some men in our assemblies, despite the sneers that are often flung at legislatures.

The autumn passed and the winter closed about me like an iron tower, bringing the day of doom steadily nearer. Instead of lessening anxiety, my experiences increased it, for I knew so much better with what I had to contend. Moreover, I was growing sensitive about the "spot-light." My first campaign had been, as before said, like going into a burning house to rescue a child. But to go into a second fire to rescue the same child was, I had felt in 1911, more spectacular than was pleasant. And now to go the third time into the flames to save that identical child, seemed just too much like a vaudeville "stunt!"

It was almost more than I could bear. At the thought of that last public ordeal, that horrible night of my defeat, I felt in my heart that I would rather walk over coals, of fire than to go through the experience again—if it would have done the work. But it wouldn't. There was nothing to do but to shut my ears, eyes, and my very soul to all the things that hurt, to set my teeth and go back again.

But before going back I was determined to lay siege to every good power that could be expected to stand for the welfare of the state, in opposition to selfish interest. Beginning with the governor and the lieutenant governor, I went on down the list, sending a personal letter with data of the housing conditions in Indiana. To each member of the Legislature went the same data, with literature showing how health and morals were endangered by bad housing, and a letter that made a direct appeal.

This time we had the help of prominent men all over the state, who were in our housing association. We had men of all parties, and women of all beliefs. It was a kind of sublimated politics, made up of the best elements, all mingled in one. Sometimes I was a bit anxious, as, for instance, when two good friends of different parties tried for the same office. No one could tempt me to partisanship. I had only one answer to those who said:

"Wait until the Progressives are in power and we'll pass a tenement law."

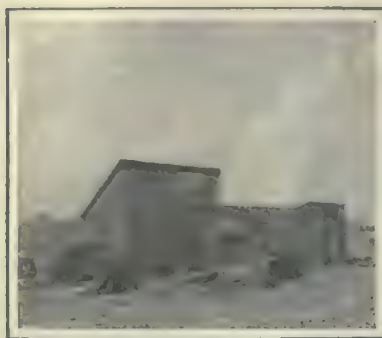
"Wait until the Socialists are in power and we'll pass a tenement law."

"Wait until the suffragists are in power and we'll pass a tenement law."

It was, "I can't wait. We will get our law first."

Interviewing Mr. Taggart

There was only one of the political leaders whom I had never met, and when both Republicans and Democrats asked, "Haven't you seen Mr. Taggart



FROM HOVELS TO PALACES—

yet?" I realized how important a man he was.

"You'd better drop everything and see him," said my husband. And he arranged a brief interview for me.

It was brief, indeed, lasting only ten minutes, and they were interrupted by many people on many errands. But I found that Mr. Taggart didn't need any arguments or any explanations, for he knew the whole history of the tenement law, the law itself, section by section, the reasons for each, the conditions of the poor, and everything that I was prepared to tell him.

I think I must have sat with mouth and eyes wide open, as he took up my own story and went on with it. I was dumbfounded, for I had never met anyone before, not an expert, who understood the whole subject, without any explanation. He spoke with definite knowledge and with kindling anger, of some tenement conditions he had seen. I hardly knew where to begin again, when he stopped.

"And so we are asking for this law," I said.

"Who is 'we'?" he demanded, with a searching look.

I was glad to have the names of the officers and committees of the Indiana Housing Association to lay before him.

"And the Federation of Women's Clubs, and the charity organizations"—

"But you are the 'Mother of the Tenement Law,' are you not?" he asked.

"Yes," I admitted, feeling very small and unreasonably shy. Then I plucked up my courage. "I'm not asking you to put this bill through, but only to help us to get a fair fight," I said; "I'm not appealing to you as a politician but as a man, for the sake of your state, and of the poor, and the working people—and the children."

"I can't say what we shall be able to do," he said, very cordially and kindly, "but I will help you all I can,—and that is something I very seldom say," he added.

I went away with a light heart, with absolute confidence in his word, a confidence that he honored under the severest stress of opposition. And I never asked any one else to approach him.

We had taken it for granted, and it

seemed only fair, that we should adhere to the bill of 1911, to which we had agreed after so much discussion, although we should have liked to introduce Mr. Veiller's model law, as it stood.

But one morning I was surprised to receive a letter from one whom we counted a supporter of the cause, in which he stated some views of his own and of one of the architects about the bill that fairly took me off my feet. The letter urged objections to the bill, and suggested vital changes that, if made, would have left a bill not worth fighting for.

There was no reason for me to be alarmed, but fear outruns reason. Just as an apparition will make one's hair rise who does not believe in ghosts, even the shadow of a danger that I should have known was imaginary, gave me an actual chill and a veritable fever, with a feeling about the limbs as of having run a long distance. For half a day I was sick in bed. Then I crept down stairs, and called up Mr. Cox by long distance, and told him all about it.

"Don't be alarmed," he said. "There's no danger."

And such was my faith in his judgment, as well as in his ability, that I ceased to fear. Then the reaction set in, and the ebbing tide of strength and courage swept back in a flood that left me at the fighting point. It is a good thing for timid people to get a scare once in a while. It always leaves me stimulated and more determined than ever. In this case we found that there was only some misunderstanding, and we reached a friendly agreement without trouble.

Back to the Senate

Days passed, and the day came when I had to go once more to the Legislature.

"Mother hates to leave you again, but you understand how it is," I said to the children.

"Yes, we understand, and we want you to get that bill through," they replied.

"You get it passed, and when I grow up I'll see that it's enforced," said my little son.

"Yes, and so will I," echoed his sister, valiantly.

Now, once again the surging crowds,

the thronged corridors of the State House! Once more, "Pibroch of Dhonil Dhu, Knell for the onset!" Mr. Cox advised that we begin in the Senate this time, so there we had our bill introduced, and, to our great relief, it sped smoothly and merrily on its course. No one could have been more courteous than our Lieutenant-Governor O'Neill. No one could have made things pleasanter than did Senator Curtis, the majority leader. Hitherto we had had to use our entire forces to drum, drum, and poll, poll; but now, thanks to Senator Clarke's thorough work, that was not necessary.

On "ringing grooves" the bill went spinning along, and all the jangling of opposing forces only lent excitement and zest. Not only were old friends back in the Senate, but a number of them who had strongly opposed us before, now seemed to realize that the time was ripe for housing reform. Many elements conspired to aid us, and many voices mingled in the harmonious chorus of friendly interest.

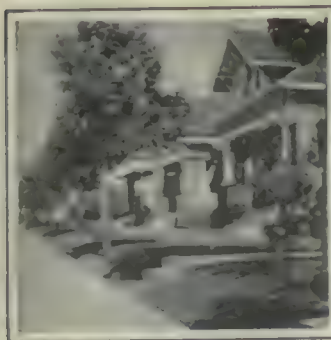
Another chorus, like an angelus echo, a far-off chorus of women's voices sounded through the pauses of our battle hymn.

It was the State Federation of Women's Clubs!

One of the members of the Legislature said, that session: "The men elected us, and as soon as we get here, the women tell us how to vote."

It has been called "a women's session," as it really was, in a way. There were more bills for women than had ever been known, bills for a teachers' pension, a mothers' pension, for suffrage, for shorter hours for women workers, and numberless others. Women were there lobbying, too, by the dozen.

"Some of the men don't seem to want to be bothered," a lady lobbyist told me. I did notice that some of them had an unusually hunted look, which was quite different from "that absent, far away look" I have heard spoken of as customarily on the faces of legislators. I felt that with so many women wanting so many things I must be very, very circumspect, and took orders from Senator Clarke before speaking to the men. Besides, if they had expressed an intention of voting for the tenement bill,



— IN THE HOMES OF INDIANA

that was enough. I was surprised afterwards to find that several of the men were rather hurt because we had not asked them to do something for us.

"I spoke for your bill, even though none of you asked me to," one said. And then I had to explain that as he had stood for housing reform in 1909 and 1911 we didn't want to seem to doubt his loyalty.

Side Lights

It must not be imagined that all the slum landlords had experienced a change of heart, and were willing with one accord to take their teeth out of the poor. Until the millennium comes, we need not expect selfishness and greed to disappear; and until they do, the weak will have to be protected by law against the strong. There will be need for housing laws until the Holy City, pure and clean, descends to earth, and one cannot imagine that there will be any landlords in it—in that capacity, let me hasten to add.

True it was that we saw familiar cloven hoof prints, all about the legislative halls, and I was sure a few times that I had come face to face with the Evil One in person.

One morning, on reaching the Senate early, I found that some hand had laid on every desk a typewritten sheet in regard to our bill. It announced that the "So-called Mrs. Bacon's housing bill" was in reality a bill of the building and plumbers' trusts, and that they paid me \$5 a day for my services as lobbyist! Certain sections of the bill were held up to ridicule, one especially being designated as "the plumbers' delight."

We couldn't but laugh over the absurd statements, but Mrs. Foor and I quickly gathered them all up, before the senators came in. This was the last I ever heard of being called a paid lobbyist, until a few months ago, when one of the opposition made such a statement in the presence of one of our friends.

"But who on earth would pay Mrs. Bacon's expenses?" the friend objected.

The answer was that some Indianapolis company that I never heard of, had paid them!

There was really a fight at the last

reading of our bill in the Senate, enough to rally all our friends to the defence, and to call out all our artillery of oratory. After Senator Clarke spoke, champions arose all over the room, and at the last Senator Woods finished with a brilliant climax.

Then, in a few minutes, we were all congratulating ourselves over a rousing victory—there, on that same old ghost-haunted battle-ground of other days!

And now, avoiding as best we could the trail of the hoof prints, we took hold of the red-tape clue and began to thread the mazes that led to the other house.

New Faces in the House

With a change in the scene of this drama, new characters are introduced. The Senate had been full of familiar faces, but how many strange ones I saw in the House! My heart sank as I wondered how many personal interviews I ought to give. By what algebraic formula, I thought, could we ever determine the "unknown quantities" among those hundred men. A Democratic land-slide had given that party an overwhelming plurality, and swept into the Legislature a certain number of new men whose course would be difficult to predict. Knowing who were dominant in certain districts, we could make a strong guess at the affiliations of many, and we knew from experience which would be helpful and which hurtful.

Studying the legislative directory, I was always glad to see the word "farmer" after some of the names. "Editor" was also encouraging, and so was anything that promised connection with the labor unions, for these men realized, by this time, that our work was for their homes, and they stood by us manfully.

Removing the party balance so far from the center of gravity, made a very unwieldy body, and the heavy responsibilities thus put upon the party in power made their task doubly hard. It was made more difficult by the fact that the House was gathered into factions in such a way as to require the utmost diplomacy in getting the ordinary business of the session done and also to give great uncertainty as to results.

To my great relief, Mr. Cravens and

Mr. Eschbach were still there, and ready to rally our old adherents. But Mr. McGinnis was absent, and Dr. Foor, and though both lent their aid, we missed them on the floor. As before, the first district (ours) was "solid," and our men from home stood by most gallantly. One of these, "Jim" Ensle, was a commanding figure in debate, and one of the most popular leaders.

We were most lucky in having our bill in charge of Robert Hughes, from Indianapolis. Although one of the younger members, his career in the House added luster to the line of statesmen from whom he comes. Through some of the most trying legislative ordeals that I have ever known, Mr. Hughes never lost his poise, his serenity or his courtly manner, and the thought of them will always shine through my recollection of those clouded times.

It was when our bill stuck in the house committee that we began to scent danger ahead. Now, as before, news poured in from every side, of the doings of the opposition. As one instance, an hour after a prominent citizen shook hands with me, and wished me success, we were reliably informed that he went to his representative and told him not to vote for the tenement law, that it was "no good."

Antidotes

Wherever we turned, we saw these constituents "from home." As we passed by their members' desk, we saw their heads bent together over the tenement bill, with glowering faces, and heard the words "my house," "my lots." But we never heard these land-owners mention public welfare, health or safety. There was nothing to do but to wait until the constituents left, and then to find the man whose word was the antidote to this poison of personal interest. I remember bringing half the prominent men in the State House to steady one wavering member, who was distracted between duty and friendship. It is only fair to add that duty prevailed.

One fine old fellow, who had stood by us from 1909, came to me one day, in distress over a wealthy friend who owned "valuable flats," and who was in high displeasure over his adherence to

our cause.

"Are those flats as valuable as a child?" I asked him. But he was too worried to take in my meaning.

"Won't you talk to him?" he pleaded. I complied most heartily, and when the flat-owner, who was really a young man of fine possibilities, was convinced that he was already well within the law, I was nearly as glad as my kind old friend.

No matter if enemies with bayonets had covered all the grounds about the State House, I was determined not to show any fear.

"There's a great big bunch of real estate men here, all up in the air over this bill," excitedly announced a big representative, whose allegiance we held by a thread.

"Oh, they won't do any damage," I answered, airily.

"But they're all just as mad as can be! They're going to make trouble for you," he insisted.

"Now you just wait and see," I answered. "They won't give us a bit of trouble. It will all blow over."

But at our last committee hearing there they were, with grave and darkling looks. They were a good, substantial type of men, too, well known and respected business men. And we saw that they had three typewritten pages of objections to our bill, and they had come for the purpose of seeing the bill changed to meet these objections.

The committee sat in silence, with a grave judicial air, waiting for every one to assemble for the hearing. At one side, Mr. Cox was introducing me to some of the real estate men.

"I wish we might have had an opportunity to talk over these objections with you, before this hearing," I could not refrain from saying to one of them. "Very likely there are points that we could agree upon, and it would save so much time and trouble."

Meeting Objections

I was much distressed, knowing the fatal possibilities of the occasion. But to my great relief, the men agreed to give us a hearing, in the office of Mr. Winterrowd, the building inspector, at the City Hall. Mr. Cox could not go, but Mr. Winterrowd was a host in himself. When I reached the office, I found the men sitting or standing about the long table—twelve to twenty or more, if I did not see double. But so many arms were waving, and so many voices were raised in excited discussion, that it was hard to tell at first how many there were.

The noise sank to a buzz as I slipped into the chair reserved for me, beside Mr. Winterrowd. Something more than rapid walking made my heart beat fast and my breath short, but I glanced up with a smile, and was surprised to see that all the scowls had vanished and the smile had spread around the entire table.

"Now, let's see what's the trouble," I began, and Mr. Winterrowd and I went through the entire list of objections with them, explaining the causes and reasons and wherefores to the end. Of course, these restrictions were all new, and it was only natural that they should be concerned about their effect. Once again, my study of the history of housing laws in other states came to my aid.

"I guess she knows about as much about these things as we do," said one of the elder men, and I felt much flattered.

We found that most of the objections were the result of misunderstanding of the effect of certain provisions, or of misinterpretation. I must say that I have never met a more reasonable set of men. All they asked was to be convinced that the provisions were fair, and they were as quick to see what was unfair to the tenant, or detrimental to the community, as we could wish. At the last there were only three points upon which they insisted, and these we yielded cheerfully. Then we all shook hands, and parted in the best of humor, and they never came near the State House again. The House committee accepted our agreement, and the three points were changed, as the men wished.

The Bill in Committee

And so the cloud vanished. But landlords kept boiling up, all about us, and I couldn't shake off the feeling that every hard-faced man who stood by the doors of the House was a slum-owner.

There were thirteen men in the committee that had our bill. It was hard for them all to get together to sit on all their bills, of which they had an enormous number to consider. And until they all sat on our bill, and went over every word of it (it had 99 sections) they wouldn't report it out, they declared.

"Of course not," we answered, shocked at the very idea. But they continued in not all getting together on it, and a few of them began to be touchy when asked about it, and the situation would have been very funny, after awhile, if it hadn't been so serious, and the danger of offending any of them so appalling. An X-ray picture of our situation would have disclosed some obstructions that never showed in our faces or our speech, for our diplomatic relations became almost Oriental in their formality.

Finally, the committee announced that they were ready to take the bill in hand and go over every word, for they had decided that certain changes must be made in it. I think I must have given a little groan, and murmured something about the technical parts of the bill having been carefully prepared by experts.

"We aren't going to hurt your bill, we are just going to make it better and stronger," one of the committee re-

assured me in the kindest manner.

"Did you ever sit by during an operation on one of your own children?" I asked. And there was always a little bit of that in my thought of the bill. After having nursed and doctored and lived with and sat up at night with a creature like that for so long, I had begun to feel as if, in a way, it were really human.

The operation was long this time, for our bill stuck for seventeen days, and we had to sit by and wait for it to come out of the committee's hands.

"There's plenty of time," they would say, but I knew the danger of delay. And, of course, I couldn't say that I wanted to go home and see the children, because the committee were not asking me to stay.

And so we waited, all those seventeen days, hoping that each day would end our anxiety. If we women could have had some knitting to do, we might have made mittens for the blue fingers of many of the poor while we waited. Mr. Hughes was doing all he could. Mr. Cox came and went, directing, working, reassuring, giving much time from his many cares. Senator Clarke was at hand. We never left the field. Many times I was tempted to go out and get a moving-van full of the miserable looking tenants of the worst slums of the city, and bring them down to sit in the front seats, on the principle of jury trials. I could have found plenty of consumptives, and if they had coughed, it would have been very impressive. But that was too deadly to risk.

It would make a thrilling tale if I could tell all we saw and heard as we sat there, with so many coming and going. It is really too bad not to give more of the "atmosphere" of the story, but if I gave any of the real atmosphere my readers would get up and go out for a gasp of air.

The House was called "the smoke house," because of the blue tobacco clouds that never lifted. Our clothing, even our hair, reeked of it, as if we had all been smoking. But that wasn't as bad as the reek of the slums.

Friends in Deed

While we are waiting, let me go back and tell who "we" were, and how I was situated.

This session, my friends would not hear of my going to a hotel. So many beautiful homes were opened to me that I went in an orbit from one to another, and never finished the round. Beginning with T. C. Day's, I came next to William L. Taylor's, Senator Clarke's, V. H. Lockwood's, and the Cox's, and then I went no farther. Each and all were "islands of providence," with good cheer, loving care, and strong counsel that gave

"Strength for the daily task.
Courage to face the road."

Looking back over the lonely heart-sick days of my first two sessions, I realized how much it meant to be in these homes.

The last of my orbit brought me to the Lockwoods', where was gathered a little house-party, whose interest centered in the Legislature.

Mrs. Lockwood herself had been one of the generals in the child labor fight of the previous session, and was still watching over the law they had won. She is now one of the state commission appointed to investigate the conditions of working women.

Mrs. W. E. Miller, of South Bend, now on the same commission, was there, working for a bill for shorter hours for women.

Mrs. S. C. Stimson, of Terre Haute, attended the session in the capacity of a member of the school board, interested in the vocational education bill. In the capacity of a Florence Crittenden board member, she was watching several other bills of interest to girls. In the capacity of chairman of the legislative committee of our federation, she was helping with the tenement bill. If she had had as many bills as she had "capacities," she would have needed to be much larger and stronger, and would have been a "subject for incorporation," as some one says. But her greatest capacity was for friendship, and she stood by me, through all our trying vigils, with a brain like a man's and the devotion and patience of a St. Griselda.

Sometimes Mrs. Foor was there. She was looking after a number of health measures from her own and her husband's natural interest in such matters, but was doing most for the tenement bill.

We all sat together, sometimes with local members of our federation housing committee, in one corner of the House, every day. That is, we sat, when we were not reconnoitering or doing active work. We lunched together, downtown, and, at the close of the winter days, straggled into the cheery Lockwood home, weary, draggled, and often homesick. There Mrs. Lockwood mothered us—she has a genius for being a mother—and around the dinner table we discussed our day, while Mr. Lockwood, a lawyer and civic worker, advised, consoled, applauded, or laughed us out of our discouragement.

Then together we planned what moves to make the next day. And the next day we went back with hope renewed—and waited. In whatever way we could, we strengthened our position, but all we could do was much like the efforts of the Blind Men who went Bat Fowling.

It was about this time that I called my faithful housing committee together, with Mrs. McWhirter, Mrs. Clarke, and other federation leaders, and we arranged to send word to every corner of



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the state that the time had come for help. How the letters and telegrams came pouring back in response, to the members of the Legislature, not only from club women, but from prominent men whom they had seen, in different communities!

It happened that when our committee meeting was called Miss Hatfield, probation officer of Lake county, was in the city, and I brought her—a pretty, slender girl, with great dark eyes—to tell our ladies the story she had related to me of the miserable unsanitary homes of the immigrants in Gary, East Chicago, Indiana Harbor, and the other industrial towns on the lake.

Her story made our women gasp, as it had me. "Will you go with us, and tell that story to Governor Ralston?" I asked her. She consented and we telephoned at once to make the appointment, and, going over to the State House, were given instant audience.

We had met Mrs. Ralston socially in her own home, and at clubs and dinners, and knew what emphasis she put upon the home life of the people. We had been received before by the governor, as I think every one engaged in welfare work had been that winter. There was that in his manner that inspired confidence, and gave an assurance of strength that one felt even more than his unusual dignity.

The governor listened with close attention to Miss Hatfield's story, and I saw him start as she related some of the shocking incidents of the wretchedness, the overcrowding and promiscuity of immigrant homes.

He had a few searching questions to ask us in regard to the application of the tenement bill to the housing conditions she had described, and then after a few pleasant words, we withdrew. That night, at a banquet given by Hon. Charles P. Fairbanks, Governor Ralston spoke of our visit, and expressed his deep desire for a better safeguarding of the boys and girls in the homes of Indiana. The effect of his speech, which was in all of the papers, was all we could have desired.

We were counting now our men, our arms and our ammunition, as in a state of siege. How we rejoiced when Spencer Ball, president of the Terre Haute Commercial Club, came over, day after day, to fight with us. He was worth a whole army of privates, and could counteract carloads of paid lobbyists of the type we had to fight.

At this time the help of the Indianapolis press was of more vital importance than ever before, as every issue contained legislative news. I realized how many friends I had in various newspaper offices, as members of the staff, or reporters of the *News*, the *Star*, the *Sentinel* and the *Sun*—representing all politics—met me in the State House.

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Strong editorials came out at critical moments. The *News* gave me a chair in their State House office, and a hook on which to hang my wraps.

More than this, a charming, golden-haired feature-writer, with a pen of true steel, often sat or strolled with me on my rounds. The only thing that was not quite so pleasant was the snap shots by various press artists. My husband sent me one that he had clipped from a paper and wrote, "You didn't look like this when you left home. If you look like it now, for goodness' sake come back at once!"

It must not be supposed that any bright little social bubbles on the surface of that deep sea made us forget the great-jawed monsters beneath, or the bones of shipwrecked mariners that lay bleaching on legislative reefs. We were out on rafts, done up in life preservers, and we knew it. But we had to look up because we didn't dare look down.

It was well that I didn't know just how much danger we really were in, till afterward. Several times Mr. Taggart had sent word, "Tell Mrs. Bacon not to worry," but I didn't know until the worst was over, how anxious our men had been over some unexpected developments that had given the opposition a fresh hold, how hard Mr. Taggart had worked for our bill, and how much personal attention he had given it.

At last the committee finished its work upon our bill, and it was reported out, passed its second reading smoothly, and went on to the last.

There is probably nothing else in life like the sensation of having a bill that one has worked for come up in a legislative body for a decisive vote. When one has cared enough to stick to it, night and day, for five years, one cares too much to await its fate with calmness. There ought to be a little curtained booth, or a conning tower, where the sponsor could watch the contest unobserved, for this long, slow, public execution, with every one watching one's face and feeling one's pulse, is awful.

There was a crowd in the House when the calendar showed that our bill was to have its last reading. There was a goodly showing of club women, and a little knot of reporters gathered about me as the debate began. I had to move, though, for in the very last agonies a lady came and wanted me to listen to something about her house being ruined if the bill went through. Her description showed me at once that she was mistaken, but I couldn't convince her.

"Oh, no, no! It won't be! It can't be! You don't understand! Go ask your architect. I can't talk now! Look, they are going to vote," I begged of her, and finally fled.

I found Mr. Cox on the other side of the room, and presently Senator Clarke and Mr. Hughes joined us, and there our



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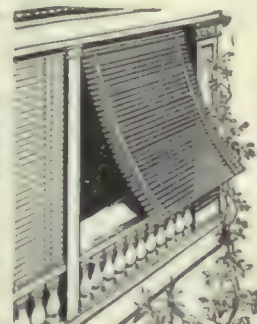
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friends hunted me out. And it was not a public execution after all. A splendid avalanche of "ayes" snowed under the single "no" deeper than an Alpine gorge. And oh, then, we wished we could have piled honors upon our staunch lieutenants, as high as a corresponding Alpine peak. No wonder the women applauded, as some of the men who gave their reasons for voting, added, "and because the women wanted it."

The women, the homes of Indiana, were honored that day by the men of our Legislature. And we had won a law for the one hundred cities of our state. It is a foundation broad enough for the tallest structure of housing reform that, in years to come, public sentiment is sure to build upon it.

Suddenly, in the midst of our rejoicing, I realized that the nerve tension of the last few hours had relaxed, leaving every muscle aching and a deadly weakness. Laughingly, our quartet of women took me upstairs into a darkened empty office room, and laid me to rest on some soft wraps piled on a long polished table in lieu of a couch. Afterward, we went to the Lockwoods', and had a lovely jubilee dinner that was planned and ordered, flowers and all, by the eleven-year-old daughter of the house.

The last scene of this act was the Denison hotel; the time, the night after our victory, when a party of my friends assembled for congratulations and good-byes, among them a number of the state officials and their wives.

The thing that gave me the most pleasure that night was to bring together so many strong men, of all politics and all factions, and to see them cordially jubilating together over a victory that they had all worked in harmony to win.

As I looked about me, in the warmth and glow, I recalled how the last time I had slipped away, early and in the rain. How many friends I had now, to bid me good-bye! How many more than at the close of those other two sessions. How many friends—and I loved them all, and loved the beautiful city, with its stately homes, and its great monument, from which the broad avenues radiate, star-like. Part of me lives there still, and draws me back, claiming citizenship in our state's capital.

There were flowers and felicitations, pleasant words and some sad ones, and then the curtain fell.

The epilogue comes in the next chapter, in front of the curtain, which, I hope, has been rung down to rise no more.

CONCLUSION.

The final chapter of "Beauty for Ashes" will be published in THE SURVEY for September 5.

THE SURVEY

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PUBLICATION OFFICE
105 East 22d Street
New York

INCORPORATED

Robert W. deForest, President
Arthur P. Kellogg, Secretary Frank Tucker, Treasurer

WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 19

Contents

August 8, 1914.

THE COMMON WELFARE

GROUP DISABILITY INSURANCE BY METROPOLITAN	475
AMERICAN NURSE TO TRAIN THE GIRLS OF BULGARIA.	475
STRIKE AMONG SOUTHERN TEXTILE WORKERS	476
MURDER, POLITICS AND VICE IN CHICAGO	476
THE PROPOSED UNION OF CLEVELAND TEACHERS.	477
THE CONSUMERS' LEAGUE LABEL AND ITS OFFSPRING	478

WAR, a Poem, Mary Carolyn Davies	478
--	-----

HEALTH

SOME IMPRESSIONS OF A SEEKER AFTER HEALTH	Elizabeth Dobell	479
---	------------------	-----

INDUSTRY

THE CLEAVAGE OF MASTERS AND MEN AT CHICAGO	Christina Merriman	483
THE BASIS OF A SICKNESS INSURANCE BILL		485

SOCIAL AGENCIES

THE SOCIAL SETTLEMENT AND ITS CRITICS	Maryal Knox	486
THE RISING ANTI-ALCOHOL MOVEMENT.	Elizabeth Tilton	488
NEW FACTS ABOUT DELINQUENCY	George Everson	488

CIVICS

FOUR CITY COMMISSIONS AT WORK FOR CHICAGO	Graham Taylor	490
ORGANIZING SOCIAL CENTER WORK UNDER PAID SECRETARIES FOR THOSE WHOSE MUST LIVE IN TENEMENTS.	John Ihlder	490
BRIGHTER HOMES FOR BROOKLYN		491

COMMUNICATIONS

JOTTINGS		494
--------------------	--	-----

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Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents. Changes of address should be mailed to us ten days in advance.

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The GIST of IT—

SICKNESS insurance with benefits payable up to 65 years of age has been announced by the Metropolitan Life Insurance Company. Page 475.

WAR has set back the Red Cross plans of training Bulgarian nurses under Miss Hay of Chicago. Page 475.

"**WE** can use whole families" is the significant advertisement of a Georgia cotton mill whose hands are on strike. It is the first strike of southern textile workers. One of their four demands is for the abolition of child labor. Page 476.

THE services of gunmen appear to form an interstate commodity. When two kinds of Chicago policemen shot each other up during a raid in the red light district, a spectator was wounded and taken to a hospital. There he was found to be an associate of the gunmen who were executed in New York, with a conviction for murder against him in Montana. Page 476.

CLEVELAND public school teachers proposed to organize a union. The school board threatened to discharge those who joined it. An injunction was secured prohibiting the board from such action. Now friends of the teachers are proposing to legislate the board out of existence. Page 477.

THE Triangle Waist Company is charged with snitching the Consumers' League label. Page 478.

THE Chicago hearings of the Industrial Relations Commission brought out lively and varied testimony, including that of a witness who believes that among the causes of industrial unrest are Jane Addams, Edward T. Devine and John M. Glenn. Employers agreed in the principle of collective bargaining but found the practice of the unions bad, and labor men put forward squarely their distrust of the courts. Page 489.

WHAT it means to live in a "health" camp for the tuberculous, recorded not in temperatures and bacilli but in the spirit and outlook of the stricken. By one who has been cured. Page 479.

MODERN criticisms of the settlements are old complaints in new words. The settlements continue the great experiment stations of social practice and the good neighbors of those who live hard lives. Page 486.

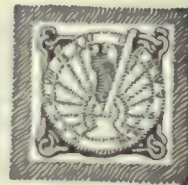
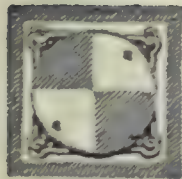
THREE straws—not in a glass—show which way the temperance wind is blowing in Massachusetts. Page 488.

CHICAGO is tackling its pressing municipal problems through commissions on railway terminals, markets, unemployment and waste. Page 489.

THE high note of two recent social center conferences in Wisconsin was the need for paid secretaries. Page 490.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



GROUP DISABILITY INSURANCE BY METROPOLITAN

THE METROPOLITAN Life Insurance Company has announced that it will extend its operations to writing insurance against disability due to sickness and against accidental injuries not arising out of and in the course of employment, the latter being covered in many states by workmen's compensation laws.

For the present only group insurance will be written. That is, contracts will be made with employers for the insurance of their employees, the premiums to be paid by the employer, the employer and employee jointly, or by the employee alone; or with lodges, labor unions or other groups. Both men and women are included. The first group to be insured was the entire office staff of the Metropolitan.

Under the policy to be issued benefits are divided into three periods. During the first period of 26 weeks, full benefits will be paid. During the second period of four years and six months one-half benefit will be paid. During the third period, running to age 65, one-quarter benefit will be paid. No benefits are paid for the first seven days of incapacity nor for the first thirteen weeks of insurance. The benefit running to age 65 is unusual—as in fact is the second period payment—for most health policies as now issued to individuals by accident companies, run for 13, 26 or 52 weeks.

The company's announcement states that it has no intention of making a profit on this disability insurance, but wishes to give it "to the working classes of the United States approximately at cost." Payment of the total premiums in a lump sum by the employer substantially reduces the cost. The tables of rates had to be based on foreign statistics, as no accurate American experience is available. The rates fixed upon, therefore, may be raised or lowered after the company has established its own experience.

Lee K. Frankel, sixth vice-president of the company, will be in charge of the newly created disability insurance department.

Advocates of social insurance have hailed the Metropolitan's new work as an important step forward for America. They believe that the company's two chief competitors in the field of industrial insurance will have to follow its lead and that workmen will thus be offered sickness and accident insurance long before their plans for state insurance can become operative.

AMERICAN NURSE TO TRAIN THE GIRLS OF BULGARIA

AT LEAST one effect of the present war between Austria-Hungary and Serbia will be to delay the starting of the training school for native Bulgarian nurses at Sofia, in the plans for which the American Red Cross has come to the aid of Queen Eleanora.

Helen Scott Hay, formerly superintendent of the West Suburban Hospital, Oak Park, Ill., whose salary as head of the new school the Red Cross will pay, had engaged passage for early August, but a telegram from Bulgaria announced that access to that country was blocked and urged her to wait until military operations could be forecasted.

Not only the training of native women as nurses, but a general improvement in the whole public health policy of Bulgaria, if not an entering wedge in raising the health level of the Balkans, is foreseen by Miss Hay in the modest experiment which she is going to superintend. The training school will be established in one department of the government-controlled Alexander Hospital in Sofia. Young women without a day of training will be entered and it is reported that many applications have been received.

Nursing in Bulgaria and most parts of Europe, says Miss Hay, is not accorded the same respect that it receives here. It has not the status of a profession. Even physicians are accustomed to think of nurses as little better than servants and to expect them to show small initiative. This is partly due to the kind of women who become nurses and to their lack of training. They are apt to be of the grade of our orderlies and attendants, says Miss Hay.

Graduates of the new training school will, it is expected, be able to take the lead in teaching mothers better care of babies, better home hygiene and, by acting somewhat as visiting nurses in this country, raise the standard of domestic living. Taught American ideas of public health, they will also constitute an influence, it is hoped, in favor of improved sanitation and governmental re-

A Child's Creed

Written by Lewis W. Hine

For the National Child Labor Committee

I believe in being Happy
I believe in being Busy
I believe in being a Boy
Bye'n-bye—I'll be a Man



Photo by Hine

Give us a Chance
We are citizens Tomorrow

sponsibility for healthful conditions in general.

Bulgarian physicians, as a class, says Miss Hay, are progressive in their profession and may be expected to welcome a higher type of nursing service.

STRIKE AMONG SOUTHERN TEXTILE WORKERS

MAKING CHILD LABOR one of their four complaints against their employers, from 800 to 900 operatives of the Fulton Bag & Cotton Mills, of Atlanta, Ga., are on strike and a bitter industrial conflict is in progress. Local newspapers have kept publicity to a minimum, in spite of the fact that the situation is significant as presenting the first effective organization of labor among southern textile workers. This is also the first time that an organized body of southern cotton mill employes have declared emphatically against child labor.

Mediators from the Federal Department of Labor have gone to Atlanta to look into the situation.

The present strike was preceded by a strike in the same mills several months ago, when the workers protested against the docking system of the company and the rules imposed upon them. The management agreed to certain changes and the employes returned to work. But nearly every man who had been active in forming the union was discharged, and as rapidly as the company could find them out all who joined were discharged with the explanation that "We haven't any more use for you."

Almost as fast as they were discharged they were evicted from their homes. The marshal, directing the piling of meager bits of furniture and household goods in the street, became almost a daily scene for weeks.

One young girl of eighteen, who was in confinement, was taken bodily, in spite of the doctor's orders that she be not moved, to a neighboring house, and a few days later gave birth prematurely to a child that did not live. Another woman, moved without regard to the physician's orders, died in convulsions, leaving a tiny child.

The second strike has reduced many of the strikers' families to the verge of starvation. The men are holding out, however, in the belief that this struggle will mean much to the welfare of thousands of mill workers of the South—men, women and children—who have never before dared speak out.

The operatives have laid down these four demands as the basis of their return to work:

Reinstatement of the men and women discharged for joining the union.

Elimination from the mill of all children under fourteen.

Fifty-four hours work per week for women and minors.

Fifteen per cent increase in wages.

From the first, company officials have

minimized the effect of the strike upon their operations. Children and Negroes have been substituted. "We can use whole families" appeared in big type over the company's name in the papers for days. The Cotton Manufacturers' Association, organized originally to fight child labor legislation, has loaned such of their skilled workers as would consent to go for the special compensation of two and a half dollars a day. The mill officials have asserted in public statements that fewer than one hundred of their employes had left, this be-

Thomas Evans is city warden of Atlanta, Ga. He says he is not an agitator. A bitter strike of the operatives of the Fulton Bag & Cotton Mills is going on there. In its efforts to give publicity to the cause of the strikers, denied in the news columns of the papers, the executive committee of the Men and Religion Forward Movement recently quoted Mr. Thomas as follows in a paid advertisement:

"Many mill owners help a great deal. But there is hardly a factory in the city employing this class of labor that pays the employes enough for their self-sustenance. Society through the City Government and private charities has to make up the deficit; that is, the immediate deficit. I don't know who pays the deficit in the lives of the little children who work in the mills.

"The profits go into the pockets of the mill-owners. I often wonder if the profits are equal to the value of the lives.

"I am not an agitator, understand. I am merely telling what I think of the causes of the City's poverty.

"THE TROUBLE IS THAT THERE ARE TOO MANY PEOPLE ON THE RAGGED EDGE OF POVERTY AND SUFFERING. With it all, there is work for every charitable organization and more. And there always will be, I suppose, as long as our system of woman and child labor with poor pay is maintained."

ing the number that walked out at one time in protest against the discharge of others.

On the failure of the newspapers to give publicity to the strike, and the consequent lack of public support for the strikers, the executive committee of the Men and Religion Forward Movement published display advertisements in the papers calling upon the workers to follow the example of their employers by uniting firmly, and insisting that the differences be arbitrated "by men whose sole object is to learn the truth and see that impartial justice be done." The committee denounced mill conditions and the refusal of the owners to treat with their employes collectively.

The guiding hand throughout the fight has been the United Textile Workers of America. It has been due largely to the influence of these organizers that the workers have been led to commit themselves decidedly against child labor.

"To put our little children in the mills before they are much beyond the cradle," said C. A. Miles, organizer of the United Textile Workers of America, in addressing a meeting of the strikers, "is only to keep them and the generation that follows poor and ignorant. The low wages and feudalistic system has fastened child labor upon us in spite of ourselves. What we want is decent living wages so that our children can be kept in school and have some chance to grow up healthy and strong."

MURDER, POLITICS AND VICE IN CHICAGO

THE TIDE seems at last to have turned against political protection of segregated, commercialized vice in Chicago. It required a grim police tragedy to turn it.

The reorganization of the police department, under the ordinance passed by the City Council two years ago, has been proceeding slowly and tortuously. The second deputy superintendent of police was required by the ordinance to be a civilian. On this account the capable civil service appointee to that office, Major Funkhauser, was deprived from the start of co-operation by the regular force. The effective supervision which he and his inspector of morals have increasingly exercised over the vice resorts which survived the breaking-up of the segregated districts seems to have been another grievance against him and his "morals squad."

A series of raids in the precinct including the old red light district, after the captain in charge declared it had been cleaned up, resulted not only in the disclosure of many open violations of the law and police regulations, but aroused the open enmity of the protected resort keepers and the silent opposition of the precinct officials.

After the prisoners captured in open violation of law had been sent in the patrol wagon to the station, the two officers of the morals squad left in charge of them, while their fellow officers hastened to make another raid, were viciously attacked by a mob of men, suspiciously followed by automobiles. Backing away under an elevated railway, where their assailants evidently planned to finish them, they were suddenly confronted by two new accessions to the crowd, who advanced upon them with drawn revolvers. The two officers then fired, and one of the other two men fell dead. There was a rain of bullets, from which these two officers strangely escaped the death plotted against them. The dead man was found to be a plain clothes policeman. The

wounded among the mob were spirited away by the automobiles of resort keepers.

One of these wounded men was afterwards discovered at a hospital to be a gunman, formerly identified with a New York gang, some of whose members were executed for the murder of the gambler Rosenthal. This man had been convicted in Montana of a murder. He was sentenced to 50 years imprisonment but was liberated by political influence in time to attend the funerals of his fellow gunmen in New York.

The police situation in this Chicago precinct was thus thrown so suddenly into the limelight that no one could run to cover. Pending the investigation ordered by the chief of police under the civil service trial board, and the grand jury inquiry by the state's attorney, and the "still hunt" by Major Funkhauser and his morals squad, the captain of the precinct has been summarily transferred. In his place one of the best commanding officers in the force, Captain Max Nootbaar, has been installed. He at once declared that with official co-operation he would "clean up the district in thirty days."

Whether he receives the co-operation of the men higher up than the chief depends upon the relative strength with the mayor of two factors of the situation. One is the political influence of the aldermen of the first ward, "Dinky Dink" and "Bath House John", who have

long disgraced the City Council and the city. The other combines the indomitable second deputy; the Committee of Fifteen's published lists of owners of record whose property is illicitly used; the vigilant press; Alderman Merriam's council committee inquiring into the causes of crime; the votes of 400,000 women, ever hanging on the horizon; and the explicit reminder issued by the chief of police, in the absence of the mayor, that segregated vice is no longer recognized, and that policemen taking orders from politicians would be cited before the trial board. Last week Mayor Harrison announced himself a convert to the forces standing solidly against a segregated vice district.

THE PROPOSED UNION OF CLEVELAND TEACHERS

THE RIGHT of Cleveland public school teachers to form a union affiliated with the American Federation of Labor has been supported by the courts and fought determinedly by the school authorities. As a result of the dispute which now has been running for nearly six months indignant citizens are heading up a movement for the extinction of the school board by state legislation and for the adoption of a new form of school administration. Other results may be a union of the school teachers, despite all obstacles, and a higher scale of salaries.

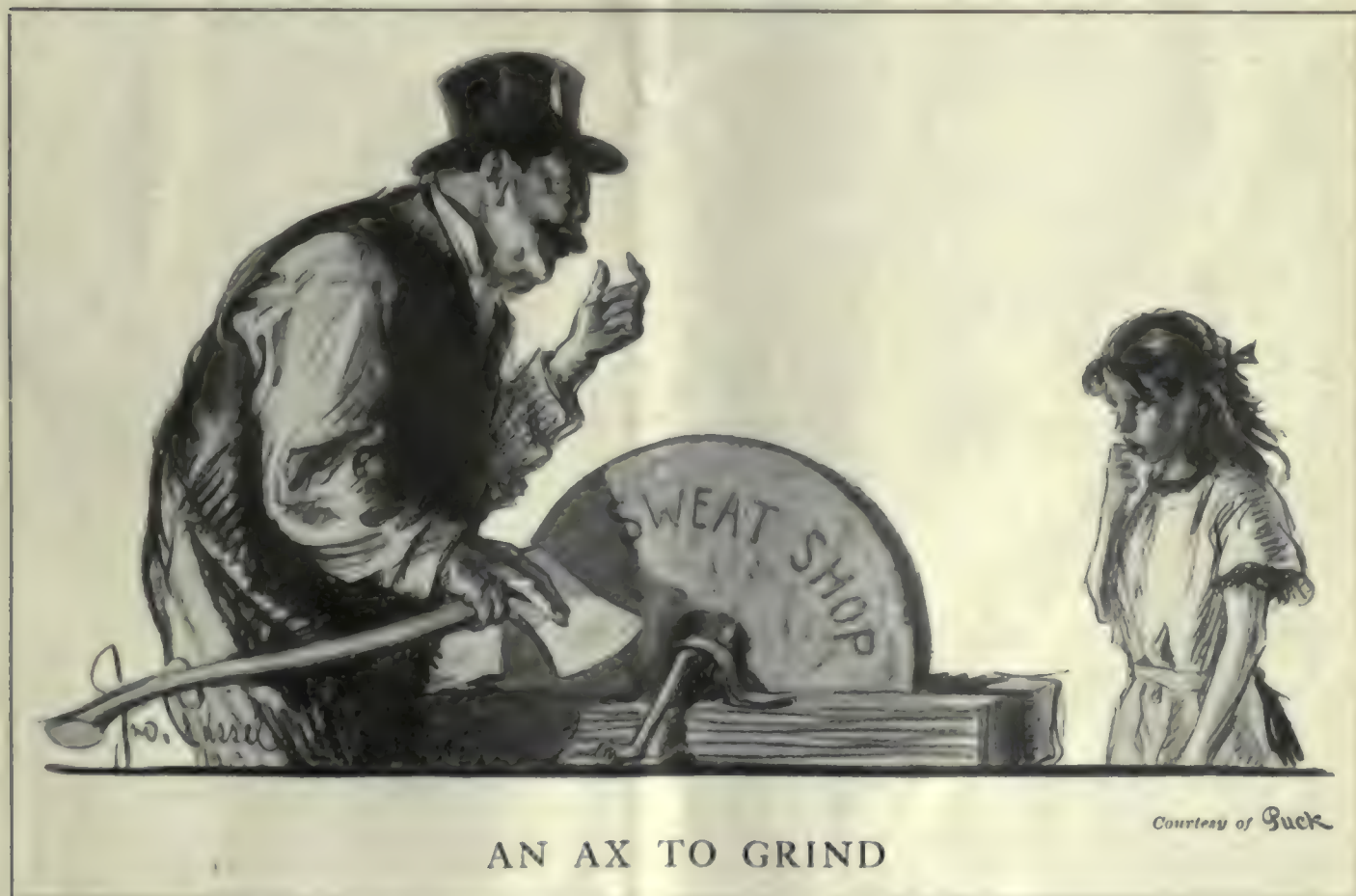
The present situation in which the

Board of Education is holding up appointments of teachers for next year, while angry citizens threaten state legislation which will allow extinction of the board by popular vote, arose from agitation started last winter by the Grade Teachers' Club. It maintained that the minimum salary of \$500 a year and the maximum of \$1,000, reached after 15 years of service, were altogether inadequate and that school instruction was suffering from over-supervision. The protest was formally presented to the Board of Education. It met with the reply that no funds were available for increased pay, and that the system of supervision had been well worked out and might be considered permanent.

The teachers responded with threats of a union which would force higher wages and other improvements. Leaders in Chicago's successful teachers' union came and gave their advice. At a mass meeting of teachers in mid-spring, under the auspices of the Grade Teachers' Club, a definite vote was taken to unionize.

This vote was followed by charges that less than half of the teachers had assented to unionization and that probably a majority of the teachers—but certainly a majority which had no organized expression—was against such action.

The Board of Education took cognizance of the proposed formation of a union by voting that any teacher who



Courtesy of Buck



THE CONSUMERS' LEAGUE LABEL

A temporary injunction has been issued against the Triangle Waist Company in New York for using a label alleged to be an imitation of the label of the National Consumers' League. The Triangle is the company in whose factory 140 girls lost their lives by fire. The figure 34 in the Triangle label is the size mark.



THE ALLEGED IMITATION

joined such a union would not be reappointed in the succeeding year, on the ground that a union would be bad for the spirit of the profession and would have harmful influence on the pupils.

The Cleveland Federation of Labor took up the cause of the teachers, and secured an injunction from Judge Neff in the Court of Common Pleas, with the ruling that the Board of Education could not legally fail to reappoint any teacher because of membership in any union or other organization. Action contrary to this ruling would be punishable as contempt of court.

The situation was further complicated by the vote of the Board of Education to restrict the teaching of German in the schools, which meant that a large number of teachers in any event probably would fail of reappointment. This vote was followed by a threat of court action on the part of German-Americans.

When, in the latter part of June, the board made public what it termed a partial list of appointments, many familiar names were missing. The board announced that further appointments could not be made until the exact status of German instruction was known. Some teachers had been left off "for the good of the service"; some others because they were German teachers, the board said.

But persons of inquisitive mind profess to have found that among those not yet appointed are most of the teachers prominent in the agitation for unionization. The Federation of Labor has promised legal action if final lists of appointments do not contain these names as well. Meantime, the teachers' union is unformed, and the independent school board is threatened with extinction.

THE CONSUMERS' LEAGUE LABEL AND ITS OFFSPRING

THE TRIANGLE WAIST COMPANY, New York, was last week temporarily enjoined from using on its goods a label declared to be imitative of that of the National Consumers' League.

This is the same Triangle Waist Company in whose factory a fire killed 140 girls in 1911—it being afterward proved that doors leading from the factory, which was on the ninth floor of a loft building, had been locked.

It is the same Triangle Waist Company that, two years and six months later, was again convicted of having its doors locked, and whose head, Max Blanck, was given the minimum fine on the ground that he was a first offender.

The National Consumers' League authorizes manufacturers to use its label only after investigation has showed that the goods on which it is to be used are made under "clean and healthful" conditions. The Triangle company has never been authorized to use its label.

The label declared to be an imitation, which is here reproduced, was first discovered by the Consumers' League last spring on some goods in a Boston department store. The buyer of the store told a representative of the league that he was buying waists with the league's label on.

It required several months to trace the label to the Triangle Waist Company. An effort was then made to induce employees of the Triangle company to sign affidavits declaring that the suspicious label was used by that concern. The employees' fear of being blacklisted among manufacturers frustrated this.

A few weeks ago the Consumers'

League served the Triangle Company with a summons and complaint in an action for a permanent injunction and with motion papers for an injunction pending trial, until final decision could be reached, which will not be till next winter. The league's action is based on the common law rules governing unfair trade and unfair competition. The label is not a registered trademark.

The Triangle company, in its answer, admitted the use of the label, but declared that it had not intended to imitate any other label, and denied knowledge of the existence of the National Consumers' League. It also questioned the right of the league to sue, on the ground that the league is not a manufacturer of shirt waists with a financial stake involved in the protection of its label, and therefore cannot invoke the common law rules cited above.

In granting the temporary injunction, Justice Leonard A. Giegerich, of the Supreme Court of New York county, declared that he was satisfied that the Triangle Company's label was an illegal imitation. While it is felt that this decision strongly presages the granting of the permanent injunction, it is pointed out that the question of law involved is a new one.

The nearest parallel case is said to be that of labor unions, which have been granted injunctions in behalf of their labels. These decisions have, however, rested on the ground that the members of the union had a financial stake, i. e., their wages, involved.

The league contends that it is but a logical extension of the "financial stake" theory to protect it in the use of its label. In anticipation of just this point, however, Bertha Rembaugh, attorney for the league, joined both a manufacturer of waists and a retail store in the action against the Triangle Company. These concerns, it is contended, have a financial interest in the protection of the league's label because their own sales would be affected by its fraudulent imitation. Should the case go against the league, it is feared that the opening which this would give to the imitation of the league's label would go far to destroy the effectiveness of the league's label work.

WAR

MARY CAROLYN DAVIES

THE women wait, and strain their eyes ahead,
One hand upon their eager sons, in dread.
Is there no other way that leads to light?
Must blood and darkness be the door to right
Nor nations treat until more lads lie dead?
The women do not speak. In silence still
They bear the constant old yoke of men's will.
They who have given life must watch it tossed
A sop to war; the gift they gave so, lost.
Thus old dark rules these later days fulfill.

The women weep alone. They do not know
The way to give their wishes words. For slow
Are bonds to break. But when, hand clasped in hand
The wakened women sure and strongly stand
In new-found freedom, will these things be so?
Will they who know the cost of life obey
The old tradition? send, for war to slay,
The sons that hold the future in their hands
Of all the races, all the earth's wide lands,
Or War's grim power be broken in that day?

HEALTH

SOME IMPRESSIONS OF A SEEKER AFTER HEALTH— BY ELIZABETH DOBELL

*I wish myself could talk to myself as I left 'im a year ago:
I could tell 'im a lot that would save 'im a lot on the things that 'e ought
to know.*
—Rudyard Kipling.

WHEN WE WENT WEST, we traveled for the last part of our journey through fields of azure, rose and violet pentstemons, enchanting as the magic flowers that bewitched Proserpine. Beyond these fairy meadows were the foothills; on the horizon, the Rockies, blue and snow-crowned, sun-dappled and black-shadowed, against the summer sky.

To the health-seeker, Colorado is in more senses than one a country of lights and shadows, of depths and heights. It is to him a world apart—a place of comedy and tragedy dramatically mingled—of baseness and of beauty. He is in a land of exiles fighting for their lives. If the sight of that contest sears, it still invigorates him with a richer sense of experience, a truer understanding of failure, and a deeper reverence for the unconquerable human soul.

From the very moment of arrival some of the difficulties of the situation become apparent. Outside of sanatoria, which are expensive and have other drawbacks, it is hard to find lodgings. You must hunt for a place to stay, at a time when you are unable to do so, not only because of illness, but because of the effect of the altitude. If your conscience permits you to say that your cough comes from bronchitis, that you took a little cold on the train, or if you will swear that you are not tubercular, some landlady will probably take you in, assuring you that she has no consumptives in her house. For though you lie and she lies, and you each know the other lies, this arrangement leaves her free to pursue the criminally dangerous course of taking no sanitary precautions whatever.

I have known newcomers who arrived filled with hope that the climate would act as an elixir under whose stimulus they would almost instantly regain health, to drag about day after day in a search for boarding places when every door was closed to them because they seemed so far gone.

I know of a boy who in the beginning of his illness, definitely injured his diseased lungs by carrying a heavy suitcase from house to house as he looked for rooms; and of another who applied at our colony having walked all the afternoon with a temperature of 104 degrees. He was given a glass of milk and nearly cried at such kindness. Then he fainted, and I am glad to say that as the head of the house, a former trained nurse, happened to be a humane woman, he stayed with us, and became a regular boarder.

I knew of a father and daughter with ample means who would have been evicted from their rooms because the gentleman's death was imminent if a clergyman had not interfered and told the proprietress that if she should be guilty of this barbarity she could not attend his church.

Similar instances are common. Colorado is overrun with invalids. The few well-managed places where they can stay are crowded and have long waiting lists. It is seldom that the patient is fortunate enough to be in the ideal position of having his family or any member of his family with him to make a home in the climate ordered.

Under these circumstances it is better, unless one has the most definite information in regard to the place where one is going, or has enough means to make one's own conditions, to seek health nearer home (not always at home, especially if that be in a smoky or congested part of a city). Nor need such a course seem a half-way measure, for the feeling was strong among many of the doctors at a recent meeting of the Climatological Society that climate is not as important in the care and cure of tuberculosis as has been supposed.

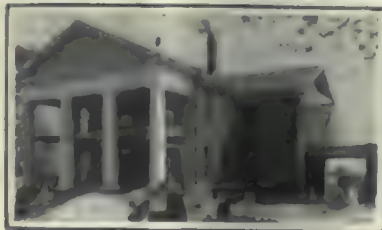
We were soon settled in an expensive tent colony under the shoulder of the range. Below us lay the plain dotted with scattered ranches, glinting reservoir pools and little mesas. All day blue cloud-shadows flickered across it, and at night the moonshine turned it to a white

ethereal sea. Above us rose the profoundly beautiful mountain, holding wonders of many kinds, from the glad little runs at its base which overflowed in the autumn with a glory of golden-rod and sunflowers, purple asters and red-berried kinnikinnick to the canyon near the summit, dark with that mystery which Doré's paintings so richly convey—a mystery of hanging mosses, twisted trees and lichened rocks, of gnomes and trolls and satyrs.

In that colony whose surroundings were so beautiful, that one felt, above any pain, the ultimate bounty of the earth, we had our first intimation of the cruelty with which sufferers from lung trouble are so often met in the West. We had known illness as something to be tenderly treated; to be if possible, comforted and succored, to be, at least, sympathized with and understood. We were not prepared to hear the amused sneers at a young southern girl who was kept by her mother in ignorance of her condition, and who, though she was crucially ill of consumption, believed that she had a light case of malaria; nor the irritated faultfindings with a woman whose cough annoyed the rest of us at night; nor the freely expressed relief of a fellow boarder when the coughing stopped—a relief which she followed by "ohs" and "ahs" of tongue-clicking surprise, but no real, human interest nor regret when she found that the coughing stopped because the annoying woman had died, alone, in the night.

We were shocked at the hideous jests about hemorrhages and weakness, and every form of tubercular ill; at the constant talk of symptoms, "cases" and horrors that would go far to turn the most healthy-minded person into a hypochondriac; and we shrank from the brutal gossip about a young lady who became a standing joke, because she was, in her weakened condition, piteously unable to conceal her passion for her physician; and from the ignorant harshness of a family who would not let their son come home to them because they were afraid of contracting his disease.

We had to listen to the talk of people who apparently delighted in the obscene jokes which go the round of most places where many sufferers from lung trouble are gathered together; and who, fearing the end, would yet jest about it in the most repulsive way. We learned that these stories were not due to painful and shocking lack of feeling, as we at first supposed, so much as to the uncontrol that is part of weakness and to a panic-stricken depth of fear that sought to hide itself in lightness of manner. We had naively supposed those rear so profound a presence as Death grew dignified, exalted; and we were bewildered and wrung to see in its shadow the bridge-playing young woman, and



**TUBERCULOSIS HOSPITAL
FOR NEGROES**

The main building of the Wilson Tubercular Home and Hospital for Negroes, just completed at Wilson, N. C., is used as a center for training nurses and testing the ailments of patients. In addition to this main building there is a farm of 40 acres, half of it in pine woods, on which it is hoped that buildings may be erected for patients who are able to work while taking the treatment.

the man who with only a short time to live, stole the funds which he was collecting for the owner of the colony and ran away to spend them.

We had also believed the world's maxims that "trouble breaks down barriers" and that "Death is the great leveller." But their truth was not confirmed by the experience of a young Jewish man in the camp, who was left out of any gayeties in which the rest of us took part, and patronized by nearly everyone. He was alone, he was ill, he was dying and I can hear him now, as he sat on the porch of the main building, his shrunken chest and emaciated body huddled into his overcoat greeting with friendly banter the group returning from a picnic party to which every other soul in the house had been asked. *Te morituri salute.*

In pleasant contrast to the snobs whose absurd and, under these circumstances, cruel, social traditions could not be set aside was a cultured and democratic English gentleman who, with a rich young butcher from Buffalo, afforded us most of the amusement we found at that boarding place. The former delighted us with reminiscences of a long and distinguished life; the latter with pleasantly rowdy stories, the favorite being a complicated tale of how he and three friends played poker every night, (through a summer when the police were searching for gamblers), in the ice box of his shop. One of his pastimes was guessing how much his fellow-patients gained or lost each week, an accomplishment in which he had become proficient during the two years he had earned his livelihood estimating weights in the side-show of a circus.

Fortunately we were later joined by a lady who not only keenly felt the slights put upon the less educated or less moneyed among us but was sufficiently well and sufficiently approved by the snobs, to draw all together in any general plans that were made for diversion.

Before her coming these plans had all been most harmful. As we were not in a sanatorium there was no resident physician and no rules save those regarding sanitary measures. Therefore the inmates, free to do as they chose, despairing of their condition and starving for entertainment, would rush periodically into gayeties which were insane for people in their state of health.

It is terrible to see a roomful of haggard, highly-feverish, coughing men and women, banging on the piano, tearing about, dancing, playing charades, and having pillow-fights. Yet similar scenes are common in every boarding house I have known where there were tubercular people. Nor were these invalids of an inferior type. Physically weakened by illness, and spiritually degraded by depression, they were like poor Hamlet, "all un-braced," and ready to commit any folly.

Consumptives are acknowledged by the medical profession to be *leicht-sinnig* and it is not surprising that they find it difficult to strike a happy medium between distracting but harmful pastimes and the weary alternative of endless hours of rest with their accompanying reflections.

Careful thought will reveal many amusements in which the sufferer whose disease is not in an advanced stage may indulge moderately with a clear conscience. Reading, naturally, is the greatest resource. Cards, as well as chess, we played at outdoor tables when the weather was so cold that one lady who was not ill but joined the festivities to be with her sick husband, had icicles in her hair. Word games and guessing games went on constantly, and the well people were pressed into service to read aloud, act charades, or play on the piano. At one time a fury for writing jingles possessed the camp. At another, a prize was given for the best short story. A lonely boy I know derived much satisfaction from a phonograph, and another friend found she could prop one of Belamy's charade-books up in front of her bed, and guess, when it was too cold and she was too weak to do anything else. Even in the graver stages one's physician will seldom forbid knitting for brief intervals (we had a co-educational knitting-school at the colony) or learning poetry by heart. And mental games, finding shapes in the clouds, telling oneself stories, fancying long, luxurious day-dreams and like diversions are not to be scorned if they play any part in keeping the spirit serene.

As nearly everyone who can read now knows, the chief requisites in the care and cure of tuberculosis are "fresh air, good food and rest." Impossible as these often are for people in poor circumstances to obtain, one might imagine the rich could achieve them with little trouble. Yet nearly every invalid finds the procuring of one or more parts of this essential trinity beset with the greatest difficulty.

Many people are unable to take the dozens of eggs, quarts of milk and great bulk of food which is needed to build up the patient's run-down system and furnish surplus power with which to overcome his disease.

Others—but these are few—cannot sleep outdoors in winter because, through poor circulation, weakness, etc., they lose more in resisting the cold than they gain by the fresh outer air. Some, who sleep out, feel they get air enough at night, and remain much indoors during the day whereas the intention should be to spend just as small a fraction of the twenty-four hours as possible in a confined place because in the active stages of tuberculosis every hour in the house is an hour lost.

The patient in prosperous circumstances may usually plan his day so that only time for bathing is spent indoors; and, in the cold weather, time for meals as well. It will not be so difficult to stay out if one takes pains to be comfortable; and this should always be done, for suffering from cold, sitting in a high wind, or sleeping in a thinly covered or damp bed will only hinder instead of aiding recuperation of wasted forces.

Keeping comfortable outdoors in the most inclement weather, by means of shelter, warm clothing and hot bottles, becomes a fine art, but it is one which can be practiced by anyone with means, in any climate, as is witnessed by the

fact that we slept outdoors and sat outdoors all day happily and successfully in the East, when it was ten degrees below zero and in Denver when it was twenty below.

Still other invalids—and these are by far the largest class—either do not, will not or cannot rest. One would suppose the invalid who lies awake in a torment of anxiety, wondering where the money to pay the bills is coming from, would be the one who could not relax. But a doctor tells me that the person who knows his stay at a sanatorium or a boarding place is limited, who *must* get well in a certain time or not at all, is the one who puts every atom of his will power into recovery. He is much more likely to succeed than the prosperous man who is apt to take his job more lightly and who, even if he intends to be conscientious, feels that when he takes a chance and slips a cog or two, he has plenty of time later to make up what he has lost.

We were familiar with many well-to-do invalids who said that they were "too nervous" or "too spirited" or "too energetic" to lie still, who "just couldn't do it" or who sincerely believed mild exertion as curative as complete quiescence. They saw no difference hygienically between a day of lying in a hammock and one of playing bridge. A danger for such patients is their tendency to compare themselves with those who are well or with themselves as they used to be—"why shouldn't I walk as far as the store? I used to walk twenty times as far without a thought." But the conscientious "chaser" must leave bitter comparisons behind or, as my doctor once said to me, "Don't regard yourself as a human being, but consider you are a clam."

Through our observation there grew in us a strong conviction that the invalid whose tuberculosis is active, is better for rest and rest and rest and more rest—and then some. Most physicians will prescribe rest, but few in this country order the unlimited quantities that we profoundly believe are needed in the active stages of the disease. For those who are not earning their living there can be no objection to trying the effect of complete quiescence, because it can do no harm. In our experience, with all those who have tried this course, it has done enormous good. There is a sanatorium abroad which keeps its inmates (whose trouble is in the active stages) in bed, and does not permit them to walk a step when temperature is above normal, no matter how slight the variation, and I know of discharged patients of that sanatorium who are at work breaking stones.

One of the most heartening aspects of our experience was the devotion of those who were caring for their relatives. I saw no more noble service than that of one girl who gave three years to saving her sister—a girl who kept house, cooked and worked, between times performing vaudeville stunts at the bedside for the invalid's amusement; who cheered, encouraged and comforted; who never left a stone unturned which might benefit her sister's health, yet always be-

haved as if the whole task and the exile from home were a delightful adventure, and who actually made it to her recovered patient one of the happiest memories of her life.

We were deeply impressed by a struggling, self-supporting, young woman who every month sent money west for the care of a former worker in the same office, a fellow stenographer.

From abroad came reports of the staunchness of a medical missionary who, after discovering that she was gravely ill with tuberculosis, stayed at her post with her disease gaining upon her every day because she would not leave her patients till her place could be filled.

The little wife I have mentioned, who played cards while icicles froze in her hair, was one of the most loyal standard-bearers in the fight. It is largely through her that her husband is now, after years of grave illness, to all intents and purposes well and leading a busy life as one of the most successful physicians in his community. "Many's the time," she once told me, "that I've put the wind into his sails, and then gone away to cry by myself." Theirs was indeed a true marriage, a real union "for better, for worse."

And of the same inspiring profundity was the relation between a young gardener of our acquaintance and his wife. They were practical, hard-headed young people, so the poetry and romance of their self-sacrifice and struggle was the more satisfying to the observer. He had left his work in an eastern city when his fiancée, a young girl doing general housework, broke down. He brought her west, helped pay for her care at a sanatorium, got employment as near her as he could and took a railway journey every week to visit her. He cheered and comforted her; though she said, there were times when her only solacing reflection was that when she died he would have her life insurance. She worked faithfully to regain her health, improved rapidly, and, as soon as she was well, they married. Now they have a baby and are going, like the prince and princess of the fairy tale, to live happily ever after.

But perhaps finest of all in his devotion was the husband who, because he was too poor to afford more than general care in a hospital for his wife, used to go early in the morning to bathe her and get her up, then work all day at hard physical labour, return in the evening to care for her, and reach his room in a cheap lodging-house late every night, so weary that he could not undress but only fall upon his bed to sleep till his manifold duties of nurse and wage-earner called him again.

These faithful ones and their charges had not only their love to sustain them, but they were working wisely in the right direction, without opposition. One of the difficulties in following the course mapped out for one is the lack of sanity in the attitude of most invalids toward the conscientious patient. The man who takes care of himself as he should (a process always spoken of in tuberculosis slang as "chasing the cure") is scorned by the majority of health-seek-

ers, while the man who kills himself by overdoing is lauded as a "dead game sport."

"Oh, yes," I overheard one of the boys on the piazza commenting one morning. "Bob's the best chaser in town. Came here three years ago on a stretcher. Been tied to his mother's and the doctor's apron-strings ever since. Never has missed his two quarts of milk a day. Never has been up later than seven o'clock. Worst old Dub and Nanny you ever saw. Oh, yes (grudgingly) he's getting well all right, all right."

The same boy had a profound admiration shared by most of the town for a New York man who, on his arrival in the West, had a good chance of recovery, and had thrown it away by spending his days in polo and tennis at the country club whose membership is largely made up of invalids, and his nights playing cards in a hot room or dancing.

"He's true blue," people said of him, "he'll die game."

It is possible to understand this boy's misconception of real gameness when one considers what a selfish work care of oneself may at a first glance appear. There is none of the glory of service for another. This seems an intensely petty task in all its infinitesimal detail. To conscientious men who feel bitterly their dependence on their families, the man who overdoes in activity, whether that activity be work or gayety, is, however mistakenly, enviable.

A young man, ill for more than ten years, who was taking a new, practically untried and very drastic, bacterial treatment, told me that he realized the method was one of "kill or cure," but that he would rather die than be supported any longer in idleness. This one despairing confidence, which he afterward laughingly said was just the result of a blue day, was the only sad remark I

PHILIPPINE MEDICAL METHODS

The pictures abundantly confirm the following extract from the latest annual report of the secretary of the interior, by Dean C. Worcester of the Philippines:

"The only thing which prevents my recommending a radical increase in the number of scholarships available at the training school is the fact that after exhausting every available inch of space in the General Hospital, and utilizing room badly needed for other purposes, existing dormitory facilities are very inadequate for the number of nurses already in training. The proposed new nurses home for the graduate Filipino nurses should be erected at the earliest possible time and I earnestly recommend that this be done."



Babies in the ward for native women in Philippine General Hospital.

Igorot Medicine Man treating a sick child. A silver dollar is rubbed on the blade of a bolo, held vertically. If the dollar sticks the child will recover; otherwise not.



ever heard him make. He was uniformly controlled, cheerful and amusing, but the long, long strain told finally, and he contracted a drug habit, married when he was in a dying condition, and made several attempts at suicide before his struggles ended in merciful death.

To do each hour in the day the little apparently trivial duty which is the doctor's order for that hour: taking temperature, swallowing raw eggs, walking five minutes, resting two hours—whatever it may be—to do this conscientiously and faithfully, yet never in its performance to grow self-centered or, as the phrase goes, "hipped about yourself"—to keep the spirit busy and happy while the body is wholly inert—to be cheerful, while suffering and despair are all about you—this is a colossal task.

It is not so for anyone who has help from without, but it is cruelly, desperately hard for the one that fights alone—and very many of the invalids in the West are alone. College boys, broken down in the midst of their rich and full young lives; women, whose husbands in order to provide for their care must stay at home and work; men whose business has absorbed them, and to whom much leisure is a heretofore unknown and a dangerous possession; girls who are weak and young and filled with desires for joy—people of all kinds, are here, alike only in that they have had to use before little restraint or control, and whose lives now depend on their using restraint and control and fortitude and wisdom and power and apparently all the gifts of the gods.

In our experience we were sorriest for the men. There are more of them (at the camp there were just twice as many sick men as women) and they are so resourceless.

The majority, like the old men in front of the country store, "Sometimes set and talk and sometimes jest set." They "set" with such drooping shoulders, such despairing eyes. Poor boys! It is not surprising that the richer of them are apt to fall into gambling and dissipation, and it is easier to understand than to blame those sick men and women whose stories are told in Blanktown with such gusto, and who did wrong because they were crushed by despair. Oh, the life of hearing a child of eighteen say "Life isn't worth the living!" And the mockery of imprisoning, in a room with nothing to enjoy except a volume of Emerson, a "drummer" who had never amused himself with anything except vaudeville, chorus girls, and poker!

There were many who, besides being like all mortals "with premeditated evil, round enmeshed," had to struggle with idleness, weakness and a tormented spirit. Yet we saw little sordidness or evil of which anyone who "knows his naked soul" must not acknowledge himself capable. And we saw courage that seemed beyond the power of man—divine—immortal.

There was the young minister, poor and gravely ill himself, who, finding a destitute and dying man sitting upon a doorstep, took him to his own tent. He performed this compassionate service for nineteen other wayfarers, until a score of men, fed by chance donations, were living with him in tents outside the town.

All were so sick that one day when a large bag of provisions was left on the ground outside the camp by a careless grocery boy, not one of the campers but was too weak to lift and carry it into the kitchen shack.

None of them had any money, nor much food, nor any of the care they should have had. But they had a great deal of faith. They all hung together and cheered each other, and usually one of the twenty was able to get about and cook, and so they kept alive from day to day. Now the camp is more prosperous. Most of the time the men have food. The future looks brighter to them than it did a little while ago, and they are still trusting, still fighting. Heart-breaking as their life seems, yet in the midst of its desolation a miracle is made manifest, for those who seem to have nothing, yet have what Galsworthy called the most hopeful and inspiring of all things on earth, "courage without hope!"

There was also the boy who at a crisis of his disease insisted that his mother should not be sent for because she would worry, and who said gaily to his nurse, when the doctors thought him dying, "Well, it looks as if I should have to buy a Stetson hat and a steamer rug and 'chase the cure' all winter, doesn't it?" We were profoundly stirred by the valiant little group at a sanatorium who, like shipwrecked mariners seeing a fellow sailor return to freedom, raised their voices and cheered when one recovered patient drove away.

We are all familiar with Stevenson's merry reference to the "damned bed" and with his remark about some trivial matter—"it is of no more importance than the blood on my handkerchief." But unheralded and unsung is the youth who, though he did not expect to live through the winter, could not keep his mind on so personal a fact, and spent most of his time happily poring over a gun catalog, choosing the rifle he would hunt with in the spring.

"Optimism is at once reflected. How great this influence may be we are learning more and more to appreciate." So Dr. Trudeau tells us in his inspiring address on The Value of Optimism in Medicine. It was our privilege to see illustrated more than once the wonderful effect faith radiating from one courageous soul will have upon other sufferers in their time of need.

In one sanatorium a child of six was strapped to a board from the waist up for many months. Laughing aloud, and kicking his little legs all day in sheer, bubbling, irrepressible joyousness, he encouraged and gladdened all the grown people about him.

A woman of my acquaintance used to make a half-day's journey into town for treatment every morning, when she was in a burning fever. Because there was no one to bring her food if she stayed lying down, she got up and dressed when she was pitifully weak. She had no place to sleep outdoors. In short, she was confronted by apparently insurmountable obstacles in regaining her health. Her own malady had been too advanced to permit her ever to become a "cure." But her case has been arrested, and she is able to live not only joyously, but

as actively as before her illness.

During the most doubtful months of her struggle she was always the light of the house where she lived. She amused people. She was sympathetic and gay and glad, and she gave ten or twelve formerly despondent fellow creatures an irresistible impetus towards healthier, happier lives.

"Optimism is the one thing that is within reach of us all, no matter how meager our intellectual equipment, how unpromising our outlook at the start, or how obscure and limited our careers may be." These words spoken of the medical profession are equally true of those who are struggling to overcome disease in themselves.

Optimism was seemingly the only asset of a needy dressmaker, who was told by several physicians that she could not live a month. She and her husband went to Denver and took a room which had no facilities for outdoor sleeping. She spent all her time in the effort to get well. She took an almost incredible amount of raw eggs, milk and beef juice. She went to the park and stayed in the open all day, when she was so weak she had to lie down on the seats of the street car. Her fight was a long one, but she persevered, and today she is absolutely well—and well not in idleness, but in the taxing and wearing duties of a housekeeper, seamstress and supporter of her family.

Although she lived in one of the most congested districts of Chicago, a little girl whose courage never faltered improved marvellously, sleeping in a backyard tent; and a young man to whom stopping work meant stopping his livelihood and who yet so sorely needed rest that it seemed he had no chance of recovery without it, found, by determined effort, light but profitable outdoor work, and is now cured.

We saw cures of the disease, as well as arrested cases of it, which seemed miraculous, and we learned to feel belief in the frequent, splendid results of conscientious and wise care under hard and often nearly impossible conditions. "Let us not, therefore, quench the faith, nor turn from the vision, and thus inspired many will reach the goal." And if for most of us our achievements inevitably must fall short of our ideals, nevertheless all will be well with us for, as Stevenson so rightly tells us "to travel hopefully is better than to arrive and the true success is in labor."

In the thought of the increasingly widespread and increasingly successful war against tuberculosis, let us take hope for those who may recover. And for those who may not, let us do all that lies in our power to do, remembering in the midst of our sorrow that this joy remains to them:

Oh joy of suffering!
To struggle against great odds!
To meet enemies undaunted!
To be entirely alone with them!
To find how much one can stand!
To look strife, torture, prison, popular odium, death, face to face!
To mount the scaffold! To advance to the muzzles of guns with perfect nonchalance!
To be indeed a god!

INDUSTRY

THE CLEAVAGE OF MASTERS AND MEN AT CHICAGO —By CHRISTINA MERRIMAN

OUT OF THE curious mixture of truths and half-truths, plain speaking and fencing, good will and bitterness, that made the Chicago hearings of the Industrial Relations Commission as interesting as any yet held, came some definite constructive suggestions for improving industrial conditions and making for industrial peace.

Some of those generally agreed upon as possible were an industrial court to settle legal issues, and a federal industrial council which could be depended upon for an impartial investigation and statement of facts in strikes, so that the public, always a strong factor in settling disputes, might have dependable data on which to base its judgment. Mine operators and miners agreed that in the coal industry federal supervision might do away with over-production and consequent unemployment. The secretary of the Illinois miners' unions told of co-operative stores which the unions had started, as a supplement to their wages, and which were yielding dividends ranging from 8 to 12 per cent a quarter.

Running through the testimony was an insistence on the part of the employers that the unions should change their methods and put in a higher type of men as responsible leaders, and an equally strong protest by the labor men at the methods used by employers to choke the spread of unionism. This opposition, they felt, was not based on the isolated cases of misused power cited, but was a fight against a movement which tended to equalize the power and put the union man in a position to enforce his demands for justice.

"There's a strong feeling," said Duncan Macdonald, secretary of the Illinois Mine Workers, "that the laborer is regarded as a nonentity, and there'll continue to be industrial unrest until he gains a greater share than he has now of his just due."

William O. Thompson, counsel for the commission, laid stress in his interrogations on the proposition that labor unions are essentially democratic organizations, —in theory, at any rate—and asked the labor representatives what remedies were available for meeting the complaint that many unions are dominated by "rings" and "bosses" who throttle the will of the rank and file.

Another subject for inquiry was the attitude of the unions towards the militia. All of the labor officials denied the existence of a rule forbidding their members to enlist, but condemned strongly the use of the militia "for purposes other than those for which it was created." When it was used for breaking strikes, one witness said, "the self-

Probing the Causes of Unrest

IX

The ninth of a series of interpretations of the hearings before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission by a staff representative of The Survey.



respect of every union man would prevent him from enlisting."

The gist of the testimony given by the employers—if such a diversity of opinions could be summarized—was that they believed in the principle of collective bargaining. They held, however, that in practice, as unions are at present organized, they had found it impossible to concede the constantly encroaching and unreasonable demands of the unions and continue in business, under the highly competitive conditions of modern industry.

The unions, they said, found themselves with a new and growing strength to enforce higher wages and shorter hours and were ruthless in their use of it. More than that, they charged, this advantage was used by unscrupulous officials and business agents for purposes of blackmail and extortion, especially in the building trades, where contractors were threatened with strikes unless they paid their price for peace. The contractor, driven to the wall, had the alternative of buying them off, or fighting the union.

They condemned too, the "permit system," by which a union man from another city was given a card which entitled him to work if there was a place for him; but in case a member of the local union was out of a job, the "permit" man was turned out by the union leaders, and the local unionist substituted for him. The contractors said this was done regardless of whether or not the permit man was the better worker.

In the building trades of Chicago, the employers organized in self-defense after being "held up" for some years by jurisdictional and "sympathetic" strikes, and because of the power this organization afforded had been able to force the

unions to come to an agreement which had in large measure done away with strikes and was working out pretty satisfactorily for both sides. The Building Construction Employers' Association and the Building Trades Council (the union organization) now deal with each other through committees, to which they refer all disputes.

In the metal trades, however, things had worked out less happily. Charles Piez, of the Link Belt Company, said at the outset of his testimony that he had started out a strong believer in unionism, but had been forced to change his mind. He told of long experience with the unions during which he had had dealings with Sam Parks, who, as walking delegate, had agreed to let non-union men do certain parts of the work. These non-unionists, however, had red-hot rivets and wrenches dropped from mysterious heights upon their innocent heads and when they protested were ruthlessly "beaten up."

"After that and for a term of years we were absolutely in their grip," said Mr. Piez. "We were so tied up with various contracts in New York that we could not declare any degree of independence. It was well known he was a crook, but he was kept at the head of that institution; and we had to deal with him in accordance with the methods that he outlined, not in accordance with the methods we cared to follow."

And this was not all, Mr. Piez claimed. In shop work, given union wages and demands, there was a "steady and insidious" restriction of output until the production was cut down 35 per cent. On the whole the unions had demoralized the shops by putting loyalty to the union ahead of loyalty to the employer; "and being in a highly competitive business," concluded Mr. Piez, "we felt we couldn't continue an agreement with an organization which followed monopolistic methods."

Since 1906 they have run what Mr. Piez claimed was an open shop. Union men who spoke later, claimed strongly that through a system of spies and blacklisting it was in effect and reality a closed shop against the union. And some color was given to this claim when, after Mr. Piez had added the use of the boycott to his list of objections against unionism, Commissioner Garretson brought out that the Illinois Manufacturers' Association has a system of carding the workers in various trades to which all employers have access and that it might be "possible" that these cards noted a man's union affiliations and activities.

"I presume a union man would call that a blacklist?" asked Mr. Garretson.

"I presume so," said Mr. Piez.

"And a similar list of employers kept by the unions would be called a boycott?"

"I presume so."

"But," protested Mr. Piez further, "there is absolutely no check on the rapidly increasing power these gentlemen on the other side are exerting except the check constituted by strong employers' associations. If you are going to permit unions to grow stronger, and extend their privileges by legalizing boycotting and picketing, you've got to counteract that influence by strong manufacturers' associations, or force the unions to incorporate or be subjected to federal supervision."

On the whole Mr. Piez's testimony was fairly indicative of the opinions of most of the employers. John D. Hibbard, commissioner of the National Metal Trades Association, added that the crucial test of collective bargaining was whether, granted certain wage increases were just under good business conditions, the unions would accept the corollary—reasonable decreases under business depression. The test came; the unions struck to protest against the cut in wages, and the result was the breaking of the unions' power. Since then there has been a so-called open shop in the metal trades.

Mr. Hibbard said very frankly that, while they did not question men as to whether or not they belonged to a union, he was not in favor of having in his employ "agitators" who would try to unionize the shops and teach loyalty to the union rather than to the employer. And given 50 or 60 per cent unionism, it was impossible to run an open shop. He was strongly in favor of unions when properly organized and officered. This, however, was not true of many of the unions in Chicago. And he quoted Barney, an iron-worker friend whom he had asked why a certain walking delegate had been chosen to represent "a decent lot" of men:

"You believe, don't you, that if all the people really had a chance to vote right in city elections, they'd elect good men? Show me why you have that bunch in City Hall, and I'll tell you why we have that walking delegate."

John Walker, president of the Illinois State Federation of Labor, was the strongest witness for the workers, who, he said, were organized to see that "those who work for a living get more justice." He did not mince words in going at what he felt was the root of trouble—labor's distrust of the courts, the employers' insistence on large returns regardless of the workers' conditions, and, most important of all, the "double standard" of the public in judging the demands of the employer and the employee.

This double standard, Mr. Walker explained, comes in when the working man is not supposed to ask for more than what the employer arbitrarily considers a fair day's wage for a fair day's work—which means that he is supposed to work until he's "tuckered out" and then be given just enough for rent, food, and clothing to keep his family from "being subjected to criticism for not being decent." Any demands for wage increase above that point were considered unreasonable.

On the other hand, there was no scale or standard set for a "reasonable" re-

turn for the employer. In fact, said Mr. Walker, "people accept it as all right if the employer doesn't work at all and they are given credit for getting as much money as possible for the least amount of work. The workers feel this, consciously or unconsciously, and there can't be peace while that condition exists."

Edward T. Bent, of the Illinois Coal Operators' Association and Duncan Macdonald, secretary of the Illinois Mine Workers, told of the joint trade agreement which had made the coal fields of Illinois famous. Although this agreement has practically done away with strikes and meant a better wage scale for the miners, there is a great amount of unemployment due to the fact that there are three times as many coal mines running as there is demand for fuel. As a result, the mines operate on an average of only 170 days a year, and the miners can't live on their earnings, which Mr. McDonald claimed average less than \$600 a year under these conditions.

Mr. Bent agreed with Mr. Macdonald that one way out was government regulation similar to the German system under which a mine cannot be opened unless there is a commercial need for it.

On the subject of the courts, the labor men and employers seemed hopelessly apart. Elizabeth Mahoney, of the Waitresses' Union, which is on strike now for a closed shop, told of constant arrests of peaceful pickets and of bail demands which amounted to over \$125,000; and charged that the employers in resorting to court procedure to bankrupt the union had at least the tacit support of the court.

Dudley Taylor, counsel for the Chicago Employers' Association, was equally emphatic in saying that for years the tide in the courts had been running strongly against the employer. And while he would hardly use the word "toady" he felt they were disposed to "pass the buck" through fear of antagonizing union labor.

He agreed with most of the witnesses on both sides that an industrial court for the settlement of legal disputes would be helpful. Mr. Taylor also thought the idea of a federal tribunal or council to act as mediators might be a good plan and raised a laugh by his naive statement that such a council would be most effective if made up of lawyers.

James Mullenbach, who served for two years as chairman of the Hart, Schaffner & Marx trade board, made up of employers and employees, was one of the strongest advocates of unionism that appeared. Under the present order of industry the worker was helpless, he said, unless he organized to express his desire and will through collective bargaining, and he should sacrifice his individual liberty, if necessary, and pool his activity to secure more reasonable working conditions for the majority. And when an employer is dealing with collective bargaining, it is to his interest to be faced by a strong union with responsible officials, on whom he can throw part responsibility for the conduct of that business.

He took a fling, too at those who had

disclaimed sympathy with violence in times of strikes.

"There's a great deal of pretense and some hypocrisy on both sides. As long as we are human beings we're going to have some violence when our livelihood is at stake. It's almost inevitable. The worker has his home at stake, his family, his means of earning a living. The employer has the responsibility for an expensive plant, machinery, and his output, and with such a clash of interests in case it comes to a strike it's only a miracle that prevents violence. All of us," he concluded, "are about the same variety of human beings."

And taken all in all, the onlooker at the hearings might conclude that we were. The employers who agreed with the principle of unionism, but charged corruption or lack of democracy in union practice, were not ready to say that members of employers' associations suspected of bribe-giving always got their just deserts.

During the hearings, a business agent of one of the unions was arrested in Chicago for extortion, and \$150 in marked bills was found in his pocket. Mr. Piez had charged in his testimony that often the unions were represented by men of the type of Sam Parks "well-known to be a crook." It was impossible to trust them or deal with them. Just here Commissioner Weinstock took a hand in the discussion:

Mr. Weinstock: "Would Sam Parks have been a bribe-taker had there been no bribe-givers?"

Mr. Piez: "You cannot have one without the other. Yet here is the point: When a man holds a gun to your head and says 'cough up!' what can you do?"

Mr. Weinstock: "Give up, of course; then go after him as fast as you can. Were not the employers of New York to blame for not bringing Parks to justice sooner?"

Mr. Piez: "On high moral grounds, yes; but on grounds of practicability I'm not so sure."

Mr. Weinstock: "What steps do employers' organizations take to drive out dishonest employers?"

Mr. Piez: "I think the standards of morality among employers are higher today than ever."

Whether they were high enough to drive out the bribe-giver and, more serious, the strike-buyer, was not brought to light although this question was put to many of them, and the recent lobbying activities of the National Association of Manufacturers was hinted at.

At the same time, there was a strong apparent feeling among some who were in sympathy with labor that in some of the unions there was need for housecleaning and a more democratic method of electing officers.

Mary McDowell, for twenty years head resident of the University of Chicago Settlement, said that while labor unions were essential for getting better conditions for the worker the exorbitant fees charged by some of them shut out many who were in great need of protection and help. She felt, too, that there should be more democracy in the election of officials and in the administration of union affairs.

One of the causes of industrial unrest, she had concluded after long and close contact with the workers' families, was the constantly increasing demands by the municipality for a higher standard of living. The worker's children are told at school that flies are breeders of disease. The worker has no money to buy screens. The same is true where dental and medical inspection reveals defects which the worker feels he cannot pay to have remedied.

There were, of course, individual expressions of opinion which stood out and away from the general discussion. John G. Shedd, president of the Marshall Field department store, which employs about 15,000 persons in its wholesale and retail departments, raised groans and laughter when he said that old-age pensions "would not be such a burning question if we, as individuals or collectively, had stamina enough to refrain from the use of tobacco or alcoholic beverages in any form. The savings thus produced, if deposited in a savings bank weekly, would insure our people and their families from dependence in both youth and age."

All of which brought more or less of a grimace from some of the women present and a round of applause for Commissioner Garretson when he inquired whether Mr. Shedd realized that for many laboring men these forbidden dissipations constituted the sum total of their luxuries.

Another expression of feeling came when John M. Glenn, secretary of the Illinois Manufacturers' Association, made a bitter attack on the unions. Unionism, he said, was "unpatriotic and un-American, a menace to civilization" and he didn't see how it was they could exist along side of the churches as the "church was based on love and unionism on selfishness."

"Just where is the laboring man more at variance with the church than the employer?" asked Mr. Garretson, whereupon there was a discussion as to who was driven out of the temple in the Bible version, and the "den of thieves," in which Mr. Glenn came out decidedly second best in his logic as well as his knowledge of Bible history.

Mr. Glenn volunteered the opinion that a good deal of the industrial unrest was originally created by a number of people interested in maintaining it, such as Edward T. Devine, Jane Addams, John M. Glenn of the Russell Sage Foundation, New York, and others.

However, as he said in almost the same breath that a state of unrest was healthy and without it "we'd all die of dry rot," the charge against the agitators simmered down, upon analysis, to their being a much needed vaccination against innocuous desuetude.

Mr. Glenn asserted that he was in sympathy with "humane" legislation, and that the employers had been the first to put forward a workmen's compensation act in Illinois.

"It's a fact, isn't it," said Mr. Garretson, "that it was generally felt that the bill supported by your association was a blind, and wouldn't really compensate?"

Mr. Glenn said that people were quite wrong in thinking so.

"Well, is it or is it not true that when a real workmen's compensation bill went through, the Employers' Association chartered a special train to go to the State Capital and ask the governor to veto it?"

Mr. Glenn replied that it was quite true, but it was because they objected to certain provisions of the bill.

Agnes Nestor, president of the Women's Trade Union League of Chicago, told of the fight for the woman's ten-hour law and the minimum wage and of the opposition of the Employers' Association to those bills.

"But even after we get the laws," said Miss Nestor, "a strong organization is necessary to enforce them. Employers are constantly discharging women because they testify to violations of the ten-hour law. Under union conditions we could protect these workers."

The hearings drew large audiences, among them many women, who followed the testimony with evidence of close interest. It is worth noting, too, that the Chicago papers gave very full reports of the testimony of both sides, which was not the case with the New York papers during the three or four weeks' hearings in that city.

And what with the Federal Board of Mediation and Conciliation in session in the effort to avert a strike of 55,000 railway engineers, and with a federal grand jury inquiring into alleged union blackmail plots of gigantic proportions, industrial questions were very much to the fore in Chicago during the week.

The Commission went from Chicago to Lead, S. D., to hold an inquiry into mining conditions, and from there will go west to Butte, Mont., Seattle, Wash., Portland, Ore., San Francisco, Los Angeles, and thence back to Denver, where it is due for a three days' hearing beginning September 16.

THE BASIS OF A SICKNESS INSURANCE BILL

A YEAR and a half ago the American Association for Labor Legislation announced a Committee on Social Insurance. Five months later it organized the first American Conference on Social Insurance, in Chicago, and with the published proceedings presented a convenient classified bibliography for the encouragement of students. At its annual meeting in Washington last December the association devoted half a day to the discussion of carefully prepared papers and reports on sickness insurance, believing it the most urgent of the problems in this field, now that much progress has been made toward compensation for industrial accidents.

Recently, after many conferences for discussion and revision of proposals, the committee has formulated a tentative statement of the essential lines which it purposes to follow in the drafting of a sickness insurance bill. In the hope that this statement may call forth helpful suggestions and be of substantial assistance in formulating legislative plans in the several states in which the subject has

begun to receive attention, it is published below:

1. To be effective, sickness insurance should be compulsory, on the basis of joint contribution of employer and employee and the public.

2. The compulsory insurance should include all wage-workers earning less than a given annual sum, where employed with sufficient regularity to make it practicable to compute and collect assessments. Casual and home workers should, as far as practicable, be included within the plan and scope of the compulsory system.

3. There should be a voluntary supplementary system for groups of persons (wage workers or others) who for practical reasons are kept out of the compulsory system.

4. Sickness insurance should provide for a specified period only, provisionally set at twenty-six weeks (one-half a year), but a system of invalidity insurance should be combined with sickness insurance so that all disability due to disease will be taken care of in one law, although the funds should be separate.

5. Sickness insurance on the compulsory plan should be carried by mutual local funds jointly managed by employers and employees under public supervision. In large cities such locals may be organized by trades with a federated bureau for the medical relief. Establishment funds and existing mutual sick funds may be permitted to carry the insurance where their existence does not injure the local funds, but they must be under strict government supervision.

6. Invalidity insurance should be carried by funds covering a larger geographical area comprising the districts of a number of local sickness insurance funds. The administration of the invalidity fund should be intimately associated with that of the local sickness funds, and on a representative basis.

7. Both sickness and invalidity insurance should include medical service, supplies, necessary nursing and hospital care. Such provision should be thoroughly adequate, but its organization may be left to the local societies under strict governmental control.

8. Cash benefits should be provided by both invalidity and sickness insurance for the insured or his dependents during such disability.

9. It is highly desirable that prevention be emphasized so that the introduction of a compulsory sickness and invalidity insurance system shall lead to a campaign of health conservation similar to the safety movement resulting from workmen's compensation.

The chairman of the Committee on Social Insurance is Edward T. Devine, and secretary John B. Andrews, secretary of the American Association for Labor Legislation.

STENOGRAPHERS INCLUDED IN EIGHT-HOUR LAW

The Colorado woman's eight-hour law is sweeping in its application, and includes bookkeepers, stenographers and cashiers who are employed in mercantile, merchandise and manufacturing establishments, according to a ruling of Judge C. C. Butler of Denver.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

THE SOCIAL SETTLEMENT AND ITS CRITICS—BY MARYAL KNOX, UNION SETTLEMENT, NEW YORK

IN THIS DAY of rapid changes new things arise, are of use and then are cast aside as antiquated in surprisingly brief periods of time. That the social settlement is one of these ephemeral productions of modern life is being said by many. Thirty years ago it did not exist, ten years ago it was a force and today, so say the critics, it is one of those outworn institutions that cumber the ground using money and energy to no purpose. If these critics were all in the ranks of its foes, the Settlement might ignore them, but the most discerning were formerly its friends. Some of them are still its friends but they have a protective apologetic attitude that does not add to the self-respect of the befriended.

We all know the criticisms:

"Settlements do not conduct classes in anything as well as the public schools conduct them. Why not leave teaching to the schools?"

"Settlements cannot disperse money with the wisdom of the relief society. Why disperse it at all?"

"The recreation center manages clubs in a more wholesale manner than the settlement. Why compete?"

The list might be prolonged indefinitely. There is not one activity of the settlement that is not or could not be better carried on by some other organization.

The fair answer to this line of argument has always been: "It is perfectly true and we are glad of it. It is a function of the settlement to find new ways of meeting old needs and having proved that the new is good, to pass it on to some group that can do for the many what the settlement has done for the few." And one thing more: the activities of the settlement are not an end in themselves, they should be conducted as well as possible, but they are only a means to an end, that of becoming better acquainted with the neighborhood.

There are other critics. Years ago there were many who said: "It is all very well to feed the body and to expand the brain but how does that help the immortal soul?"

The question is a little out of date, although it is still asked. But the modern form of the question is asked every day: "What is the use of being a friend of the working man if the trade union, the labor union and the various political parties that make for progress are not supported by the settlements as a whole?"

Do the questions seem different? They are not really so in underlying principle. Those who asked the first wanted the settlements to pledge themselves to work

for one form of religious faith. That they refused to do. They were firm in the belief that underlies Christianity and Judaism alike, that God is served by service to man. But they reserved the right to express that belief in whatever form they chose, and claimed that right for the people among whom they lived. As individuals they had their individual preferences, as organizations they had none.

Now the demand that the settlement ally itself with one party or with one organization is exactly parallel with this. Beneath all the dreams of the best leaders of all the parties is the one hope that our land, our states and our cities shall be so governed that every man shall have a fair chance. In every party there are those who work for this unceasingly and in every party are those who as unceasingly work for themselves.

The settlement resident must choose the party which seems to him to be working most constantly to realize his ideal, and to his neighbor he must leave the same privilege. The settlement can no more dictate the politics of its residents and neighbors than it can their religion. One thing more may be said in this connection: that settlement has utterly failed which has not given to some among its ranks a higher conception of the meaning of good citizenship, and it has also failed if it has not given to some at least a nobler ideal of the life of service.

There is a third group of critics who say: "If you are not educational institutions and are not political parties why don't you at least improve your neighborhoods? Oh, yes, we know you have had a playground or two opened by the city and have had a few public baths established, and you have a junior league for street cleaning here and there; but you do not improve your neighborhoods as a whole. Tenement house conditions are the same all over the city and the casual wanderer in the street would find it quite impossible to separate the blocks influenced by the settlements from those knowing no such organization. The outward and visible signs of the influence of a settlement upon its neighborhood are negligible."

Before admitting the truth of this criticism, attention is drawn to the fact that these particular critics refer to the New York settlements. Of course, neighborhoods show no visible signs of improvement—the neighbors are new every day. No sooner is part of one group helped to realize the best in itself than it moves away and another arrives in the steerage of the Imperator to take its place.

If the settlement can be proved to be worthy of a permanent place in New York its cause is won everywhere, for

nowhere else are such problems to be found. The overwhelming pressure of immigration subjects every agency in the city to continuous and well-nigh impossible tests. Things are always at the crisis in New York. There is never time to take account of stock, look over the situation and plan what is best to do next. Life is lived at the height of an ever-present emergency. Every effort must be made to meet the need of the moment, but no moment of the hour, no hour of the day is less important, less difficult than any other. We cease studying the figures of immigration. They appall the imagination and paralyze the will.

Perhaps it is true that there are no outward and visible signs of the settlement's life in its neighborhood. But in the outlying suburbs, in the country villages, in the less densely populated parts of the city itself, there are many who are desirable residents helping in all that makes for the welfare of their communities, because the first days of their life in America were spent near settlements. There they were helped to keep some Old World standards and to learn that, when translated, these standards need not be read in terms of dollars and cents alone but that in America, too, honor and duty count—that perhaps they can count for more than ever they did abroad.

The critics are right. In New York the outward and visible signs of the influence of a settlement upon its neighbors are negligible because the tide of immigration is ever bringing new neighbors to its door; also because these institutions for which the settlement has fought, such as baths, libraries and recreation centers have sprung up everywhere.

But why have they sprung up? Public opinion does not arouse itself and the struggle settlements have made to get some special things accomplished have borne fruit a thousand fold in the awakened social consciousness of the age.

Settlements are not responsible for every good thing—far from it. But, because the residents of settlements have lived in over-crowded neighborhoods, not from necessity but from choice, and there learning the necessity for reform have constantly kept this necessity before the eyes of the public, they have had their part, and it is not a small one, in the overwhelming zeal for social righteousness that is the glory of the Twentieth Century.

But the critics are not silenced. They say: "This is all true, but it merely brings us back to our original contention that the settlement is an ephemeral growth. It had a mission: to help to arouse the public conscience. But that conscience is now working in a hundred ways and

the settlement is no longer needed. It would better close its doors and let the neighborhood association, the social service nurse, the visiting teacher and the social center take its place."

But to this those of us who believe in the settlement say, No. The settlement has a distinct work to do today and it will need to exist as long as there is a difference between the East Side and the West Side; so long as there are groups of people upon whom our housing and our industrial conditions bear unfairly. When there are no longer unfair conditions, then will the reign of righteousness be established upon the earth. But until that day the settlement will be needed.

Why? For two reasons:

First, it is true that even in this day of one hundred per cent efficiency that the one hundred cannot be made efficient save by the integrity of each of the hundred, that the multitude cannot attain a level higher than that attained by each of the multitude. It is true that whatever work helps individuals to live up to the best that is in them helps the city, the state and the nation to reach a higher standard of righteousness. It is as necessary today to help one's individual neighbor as it was yesterday and it will be as necessary tomorrow as it is today. The settlement is not unique because it cares for its neighbor. So does the hospital, the school and the church. But the settlement does it, and for that reason it is of use.

The settlement is absolutely unique in its second claim and upon that one thing alone it could base its right to exist.

The settlement resident alone among all those who seek to help their neighbors sees life as it is really lived by the dweller in tenements. The school teacher sees life from the point of view of the child. She judges a family by the regularity with which it sends its children to school. That family which keeps its children at home to do the washing and care for the baby is viewed with disfavor and there is no time to seek extenuating circumstances.

The doctor thinks of tenements as populated by the sick. The relief visitor sees in them none but the financially dependent. The probation officer sees the streets crowded with bad girls and thieving boys, while the playground worker sees in them a horde of children in imminent danger of death from passing vehicles. To the trade union leader, men are possible members of the organization, while to the preacher they are probable sinners and potential saints.

But to the resident of the settlement who knows what he is doing and why he is doing it, the tenements are large groups of homes—homes without too much privacy and lacking in many of the external attractions of homes—but homes none-the-less, filled with fathers, mothers and children, groups of friends and individual enemies. It is normal life lived under abnormally crowded conditions.

Are the people in the tenements bad? Like those on Fifth avenue, some are bad and some are good. Are they lazy or industrious, temperate or drunken,



THE HANGING GARDENS OF CLEVELAND

ON a rooftop in the Haymarket district, the most crowded section of Cleveland where no green things do grow, the Central Friendly Inn Social Settlement has established a farm.

The farm is measured not in acres, but in feet—twenty feet long by eight wide. The barns and houses and cows and ducks are of pasteboard, and the families are dolls. But the beans and corn and morning-glories are real. And very real and live are the forty farm hands, little immigrant girls of the neighborhood.

THERE they are learning not only how oats, peas, beans, and barley grow, but something of the scheme of modern life—the duties of father and mother and children, the care of a house, whence come meat and vegetables, and how wool from a fleece comes to be a little girl's jacket.

WITH it all come lessons of the open air and the country. The whole plan was conceived by Elizabeth Neff, president of the board of trustees of the Central Friendly Inn, and carried out by Mary Wine, the volunteer teacher.

learned or ignorant? Like the dwellers in a country village, some are one thing, some the other. Are they dragged down by their surroundings or do they rise above them? Like the members of your own circle of friends, some of them yield to every temptation and others follow an ideal that rises ever higher as they approach it.

What is the use of having settlements if all they do is to prove that life in tenements is the same as life elsewhere? The relation of the settlement to other forms of social work is that of the family doctor and the specialist. The specialist sees the trouble, the doctor tells him what, in the history of the patient or of his family has caused it, and together they seek to remove it.

The use of the settlement to its residents and to its neighbors is to provide opportunity of seeing the oneness of life among those of all environments, that through this new understanding of the essential goodness of human life, they shall be aroused to ever greater and more constant efforts for the service of mankind.

What proof is offered for the truth

of these claims that the settlement does thus arouse its residents and neighbors to stronger efforts for good?

In the last analysis the only proof of the worth of an organization is the character of those most strongly influenced by it. It is the knowledge that children actually acquire and the habits of thought they form that proves one system of education good and another bad.

The children are the proof. It is by the lives of its adherents that a religion is judged. Thus it is by its people that settlements, too, are judged. Today, all over our cities, boys and girls are being trained to be of service to others because they have belonged to settlement clubs. Young men are going into the fight for good government because their ideals have been raised by some friend in a settlement. College graduates are seeking to serve their country because they have learned to wish to do so by residence in settlements. Men and women are treating those who serve them more fairly because through settlements they have realized that those who serve them have as real a life as they have themselves.

THE RISING ANTI-ALCOHOL MOVEMENT—By Elizabeth Tilton

AN ANTI-ALCOHOL movement is surely rising in Massachusetts. Blowing across from the laboratories of Germany, it has touched the selected minds first, and while it has not yet reached the "book" stage, it is voicing itself in pamphlets. Three notable ones have appeared this winter and spring; The Menace of Drink, by President Emeritus Eliot of Harvard; The Charge of Bishop Lawrence to the Episcopalians of Eastern Massachusetts; and the Report of the Commission to Investigate Drunkenness in Massachusetts.

Dr. Eliot sums up his reasons for becoming an anti-alcohol convert thus. First "the terrible effects of alcoholism in increasing the number of the feeble-minded, insane and criminal in our American communities. Later, I had the opportunity of studying the German investigations on the mental effects of very limited doses of alcohol, doses which most people have always supposed to be completely innocuous. The German investigations seemed to me to prove that even twenty-four hours after taking a small dose of alcohol the time-reaction in the human being is unfavorably affected. Now the quickness of the time-reaction is important to every mechanic; to every artisan, and particularly to every person who is engaged in a dangerous occupation, like driving an automobile for instance, or managing a circular saw, or, indeed, in the tending of any powerful machine or hot furnace. Lastly, somewhat more than a year ago, I had a long opportunity of observing the difference between the white race and the Japanese, the Chinese, the Indian, the Malay, and some of the Mahometan people, in regard to susceptibility to the alcoholic temptation. The white race is inferior to all the other people I have named in regard to this susceptibility to the temptation of alcoholism. . . . The alcoholism of the white must be overcome or that vice with the licentiousness that it provokes will overcome the race."

In his charge to his people, Bishop Lawrence summarizes the terrible economic cost of alcohol, especially in its relation to the social evil, and makes three clean-cut points: First, that "the time has passed when any intelligent person claims that drink makes a man more efficient. . . . Industrial efficiency is driving the drinking man, even the rather moderate drinking man, to the wall;" second, that "drink, and that not to excess but habitual, gradually disintegrates the physical, nerve and moral fiber;" third, "that every public spirited citizen, every parent, every man and woman who cares for his fellow men and women, every son and daughter of the Church of Christ will have this terrible scourge of society of which he is a part upon his conscience, and will in his personal habits and his public duty govern himself accordingly."

Lastly we have the report of the Commission on Drunkenness. This document piles up the costs of drink and its ramifications. In the year ending September 30, 1913, there were made in

Massachusetts 104,936 arrests for drunkenness. Since 1901, arrests for intoxication have increased 88 per cent, and the report calls attention to the fact that many drunkards never come to arrest.

It shows that in one year, 67 per cent of all our commitments were for drunkenness. It enlarges on the actual costs of these trials and imprisonments as well as all the ramifications following in their wake—accidents, disease, insanity and tuberculosis, poverty, neglected childhood, desertion, divorce; and lastly it shows that this tide of alcoholism must not be laid at the door of the immigrant, as 19 out of every 20 men arrested in 1912 were of American or British birth.

It recommends for this great and costly evil—among other things—education, municipal posting of the facts to the thinking people; municipal recreation centers, since men must meet and talk; no selling at drug stores except on a doctor's prescription; but lays its stress principally on the fact that drunkards are not criminals but alcohol-sick men and must be cared for in hospitals. It asks for a hospital for delirium tremens in Boston.

Dr. Southard, a member of the commission, put the whole idea in a nutshell when, speaking before a group of doctors, he said: "Individual liberty seems to be a great doctrine and from it I will not dissent. But I will say that a state that licenses shops that sell insanity should pay out its millions royally to support the victims of its hobby. We need hospitals all over this state for the alcohol-sick."

The Boston papers found the report "sane." The state papers were not so favorable. The *Springfield Republican* said that the recommendations were good enough in their way. The *Gloucester Times* found municipal recreation centers the only constructive measure, and asked if saloons were to run full blast forever and we to stand around and pick up the wreckage. The *Lynn News* said that the more people analyze the report the more evident it becomes that the commission did not have the courage to strike at the root of the matter and say that the present boasted license system is turning out drunkards faster than the state can take care of them.

One wonders precisely what the state of Massachusetts missed in that painstaking report. It was not, I fancy, prohibition, for even the Progressives of Massachusetts have not yet declared with their brothers in Maine, Ohio and Indiana, for national prohibition. I fancy what was lacking in that report was the note of Dr. Eliot—"the alcoholism of the white race must be overcome"—the note that says, not how shall we carry the alcohol-sick, but how shall we stop the manufacture of them. In short, Massachusetts is asking itself whether a sane people can devise no better method of recreation than the saloon, and no more potent treatment of the alcohol problem than our present licensing system, a system that gives us 67 per cent of our prison and jail commitments.

NBW FACTS ABOUT DELINQUENCY—By George Everson

NINE THOUSAND and nineteen children were arraigned in the New York county Children's Court during the year 1913. The report of the court for this period, with its charts and statistical tables, gives more detailed information concerning juvenile delinquency than has been given previously by this or any other court.

Twenty-five per cent of the children were brought into court for trifling offenses, while 38 per cent were cases of improper guardianship. This leaves 37 per cent who were under really serious charges. The ordinary statutory classification of offenses which are clear to the lawyer are apt to confuse the layman. In this report an endeavor has been made to give the statistics a more popular appeal and a less criminal sound by classification under such captions as "minor offenses against the peace," "offenses against property," "unlawfully employed," and the like.

The prevalence of tendencies leading to the gang spirit among juvenile delinquents is aptly shown by a table of "single and group delinquency." Over 54 per cent of the children were associated with others in offending against the law.

The table of "parental condition" shows that approximately 35 per cent of the children came from broken homes, where one or both parents were dead, the parents were separated, etc. The remaining 65 per cent came from apparently normal homes, though no account has been taken of drunkenness of the father or mother if the parents were living together and maintaining a family life. Authentic information regarding home environment is difficult to get but of great value when obtained.

The statistics relating to school and employment records are full of interest. Only about 6 per cent of the total number of children investigated are enrolled in special and ungraded classes. A study of the figures leaves the impression that much more can be done towards the proper classification of children with tendencies towards delinquency.

A table on residential distribution shows in what parts of the city delinquency is most prevalent, and the report expresses a hope that this will be of value to those interested in the general social problems of various sections of the city. The districts correspond with the boundaries of the 1910 census districts to facilitate comparisons between delinquency and other facts already available concerning these districts.

Other facts brought out are that about 20 per cent of the children had one or more previous court records and that the ages from thirteen to fifteen are the years when both boys and girls are most liable to get into trouble.

In preparing the report the officers of the court have had the helpful cooperation of the Committee on Criminal Courts of the Charity Organization Society.

CIVICS

FOUR CITY COMMISSIONS AT WORK FOR CHICAGO— BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

CHICAGO SEEKS GUIDANCE from four expert commissioners in developing the city's policy on railway terminals, municipal markets, the disposal of waste and unemployment.

The Railway Terminal Commission is the auspicious outcome of a long and strenuous struggle between citizens standing for some comprehensive city planning and a group of railways, allied with the Pennsylvania system, intent upon its own way regardless of all other interests.

Through public hearings and the educational agitation of the Chicago Plan Commission, the City Club and the Citizens' Terminal Committee, the City Council was supported in resisting the attempt to "railroad" ordinances through to vacate streets and alleys in order to make way for great passenger and freight terminals where they would have blocked all city planning and dangerously increased the congested traffic at the business center.

Upon the advice of two able engineers, whose report was adverse to the railways' plan, another site and scheme for this terminal was sought and secured from the roads. Then the Council Committee on Terminals became the nucleus of this Terminal Commission, consisting of experts representing the administrative, legal, engineering and traffic interests involved.

The mayor's dispatch of the commission to study the rail and waterway terminal facility in other American, Canadian, British and European cities has a public significance, which has been temporarily obscured by an incident due to an irritating misunderstanding. The coincident appointment of public school officials to inspect educational agencies abroad was publicly resented by one of the commissioners as an intrusion upon the party and plans for the study of terminals. Ella Flagg Young, superintendent of schools, and Gertrude Howe Britten, member of the Board of Education, promptly disavowed any identification between the two groups. Still less occasion for the unseemly objection to the presence of women appeared when several of the commissioners were accompanied by women of their own households.

The Terminal Commission's contribution towards some fundamental and comprehensive policy and plan for the solution of Chicago's acute terminal problem is expected to be highly valuable, not only because all the official and corporate interests involved are represented by their own specialties, including the street and steam railways, but also because of the presence of such experts as

Walter L. Fisher, the former secretary of the interior, Bion J. Arnold and J. F. Wallace, the distinguished engineers, E. H. Bennett who, as the partner of Daniel H. Burnham, designed much of the Chicago Plan and George E. Hooker, civic secretary of the City Club.

This club has just issued Mr. Hooker's valuable contribution to the present discussion and to the permanent literature of the subject, under the title *Through Routes for Chicago's Steam Railroads*. This handsomely printed book of 89 large pages, enriched by many interesting pictures and illuminating maps and diagrams, will be reviewed in a later issue of *THE SURVEY*.

The City Club has published also a program of a competition for plans for a neighborhood center, which was described in *THE SURVEY* for July 11. It is based upon an interesting discussion of the indispensable value of city neighborhoods to the city at large, and upon the important service to be rendered the neighborhood by grouping its public, social, trade and recreative buildings at a strategic center of its life and activities.

The Municipal Markets Commission's able preliminary report and recommendations emphasize the dependence upon better terminal facilities for shipping and distributing produce in any effort to reduce the cost of living by bringing producers and consumers directly together. The inadequacy of the commission men's famous "South Water Street," the farmers' and truck gardeners' stand at the Randolph Street "Haymarket," and the Ghetto sidewalk vending is vividly portrayed. The ample provision in other cities for the people's market is well described.

The saving of the cost of food by eliminating some or all the six or eight middlemen, always standing between producer and consumer, is estimated to

be at the annual rate of \$21.47 for each consumer, \$98.78 for each family, and \$51,393,304 for all Chicago.

So expensive are the delays in hauling goods through the congested streets, and the duplicated traveling involved in retail deliveries, that it costs less to transport 100 pounds of food stuff across the lake from Michigan than to deliver the same 100 pounds of goods five miles away from the dock in Chicago.

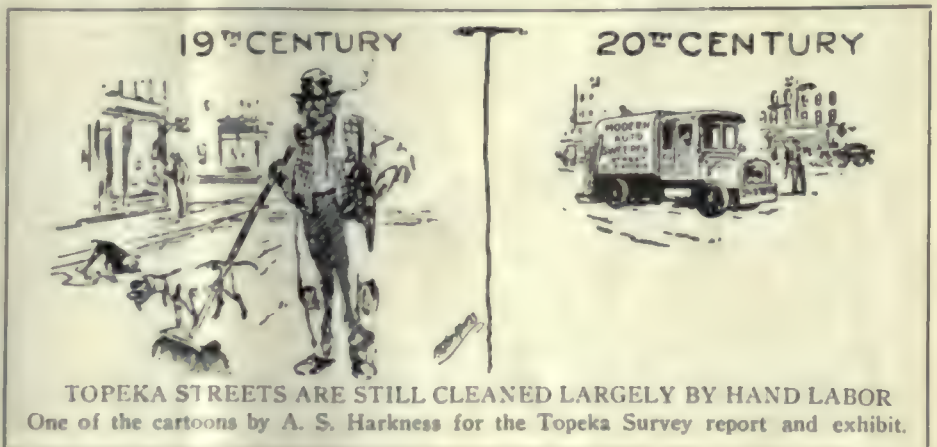
The commission recommends the city to establish and control a system of wholesale terminal markets; a retail market where food can be sold more cheaply than by retailers, privately, in rented quarters; farmers' markets, where the consumer may buy directly from the producer, and also to encourage and regulate peddlers, hucksters and pushcart men, and to permit trolley-freight service on street railways and interurban lines at night.

This commission, as constituted by the City Council, consists of three aldermen, three social settlement workers, one member each of the Association of Commerce, the City Club, and the Women's City Club, and one transportation engineer. The term of its service has been extended through the current year to render a final report on the location and management of public markets.

The Chicago City Waste Commission, whose interesting report was reviewed in *THE SURVEY* for August 1, has also been continued for a second year's investigation and co-operation with the city administration.

The Mayor's Commission on Unemployment was headed by Charles R. Crane as chairman, and by Prof. Charles Richmond Henderson as secretary, at whose suggestion the mayor appointed the commission. Its investigation extended over two years.

The effort to ascertain the extent of unemployment by the questionnaire method of getting facts from employers and labor union officials proved indecisive



and variable in result. A fine study of the casual and seasonal workers sheltered by the municipal lodging house, out of their working season, was furnished by James Mullenbach, covering part of the period during which he was its superintendent. Grace Abbott's discussion of economic, sanitary and moral conditions among some railway construction gangs was characteristically terse and suggestive.

The inquiry into the function and standards of private and public and pri-

vate agencies by Prof. E. H. Sutherland, which is printed as an appendix, is of permanent and general value.

The commission finds unemployment a chronic problem, frequently becoming acute, and therefore demanding a permanent public policy to deal with it. Labor exchanges in cities and states, co-operating with each other throughout the nation are urged. Bills for legislative acts to establish such agencies sum up the commission's recommendations.

ORGANIZING SOCIAL CENTER WORK UNDER PAID SECRETARIES

No one would think today of sending his children to school on the mere chance that a teacher would be found there ready to take charge of their instruction, or of asking that teacher to work without pay.

Why, then, should anyone think of sending his children to that same school for systematic recreation, on the mere chance that some one will be found there to take charge, or of asking that person to work without pay?

No deliberative body of elected representatives—aldermen, county supervisors or state legislature—would think of carrying on its work without authorized and paid secretarial service.

Why, then, should a deliberative body of those who are represented—meeting regularly and systematically in school houses and other social centers—carry on its work without authorized and paid secretarial service?

These questions were the motive power that drew together two recent conferences in Wisconsin—the breeding ground of social centers. The answer to them, after discussion, was a bill directing school boards to employ "civic secretaries" to take charge of non-partisan gatherings of citizens wherever these are organized as social centers. Half of this officer's compensation is to be paid by the school board, half by the state.

The bill will be urged upon the next Wisconsin legislature and upon the legislatures of other states in which there is provision for the community use of school buildings.

It was the sense of these conferences that this step is necessary to give force and direction from now on to the social center movement. And the social center movement, with its opportunities for wholesome recreation and for public threshing out of political and social issues, means, in the view of those who attended the conferences, nothing short of conserving and organizing the forces of democracy.

In his call to these meetings at Madison, addressed "to superintendents, principals and all others interested in community organization," C. P. Cary, state superintendent of public instruction, said: "We know from the results of experience in many places in Wisconsin and elsewhere that systematic and continuous social center development is possible only where there is definite placing of responsibility for secretarial service and leadership in each community."

At the first of the meetings, June 19-20, Edward J. Ward, adviser on civic and social center development to the University of Wisconsin Extension Division, declared that volunteer service in this field has been thoroughly tried. He sought to show that the very life breath of the social center movement depends on the provision of paid leadership. Last fall, said Mr. Ward, 800 school principals in Wisconsin who were the logical, though unpaid and unauthorized civic leaders in their communities were given suggested programs for social center meetings and were asked if they would do their part to bring about the general, systematic and continuous use of public school buildings as headquarters for community deliberation and recreation.

Only two hundred answered that they would undertake this task and of these only fifty, said Mr. Ward, achieved any real success.

Margaret Wilson, daughter of the President, summed up the central thought of the meetings as follows:

"If we, the people of the United States, are really to have a part in our government, we must organize. If we do not want the office-holders whom we elect to be under obligations to political machines not of our making, we must make our own machine, 'the machine of democracy,' and demand their allegiance to it.

"All of our representatives are organized into deliberative bodies. We, whom they represent, ought also to be organized for deliberation. The great work that we American people have before us—as I see it—is the conservation and organization of the forces of democracy.

"Not only should the schoolhouses be provided for this use without charge, but paid secretarial service should be furnished—just as this service is furnished for the meetings of aldermen, legislators and other sub-committees of the citizens."

It was the consensus of opinion among those who spoke that in the smaller towns, where the civic secretaryship can not be a full-time job, the work of the position logically falls to the local school principal or superintendent. Paying the school official for this service will have a double effect, said M. T. Buckley, principal of the Sauk City High School.

"You know and I know," he declared, "that the best men are not attracted to school work today. Legislation that will recognize the civic secretarial service of the school principal as worthy public remuneration will help to make school

principalship attractive to the strongest young men in the universities and colleges, for it will make school principalships look like a man-size job."

It was not merely that the work itself merits remuneration that led to these expressions of opinion, but the even more important consideration that only when such service is paid for does it assume desired importance in the eyes of the community. Only then, it was declared, does it have that official backing and endorsement necessary to make it effective. "The greatness that it will give the principal," said Mr. Buckley, "is the greatness of official recognition as the servant of the whole community."

At the second of the two meetings, July 2, the final draft of the proposed bill was approved. President Wilson sent a message expressing his "sincere and growing interest in the program and method" of social center development. P. P. Claxton, United States commissioner of education, and Frank P. Walsh, chairman of the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations, spoke in favor of the purpose of the conferees. Hosea E. Rood, patriotic instructor of the Grand Army of the Republic, made a plea for putting the responsibility for community organization for patriotic celebrations in the hands of the school principal as part of his civic secretarial function.

One of the duties of a paid civic secretary, as specified in the proposed measure, is to act as secretary at all meetings of the citizens' organization. He shall "organize, publish and announce such a program for each meeting of the citizens' organization as the organization may direct, shall communicate with and invite or notify such speakers as the citizens' organization may wish to hear, and shall carry on such correspondence as may be necessary to secure from the University Extension Division or other source of information, suggestive material upon such public questions as the citizens' organization may desire to consider."

FOR THOSE WHO MUST LIVE IN TENEMENTS—By John Ihlder

THOUGH WE may pray that no other American city will ever imitate New York's type of housing, it will certainly profit other American cities to study New York's problems if only that they may be confirmed in a determination to do better. The 46-page pamphlet issued by the Tenement House Committee of the Charity Organization Society under the title, *Housing Reform in New York City*, tells a story of progress and illustrates it with pictures that drive the points home.

The improvement of housing conditions is never an easy task, it was and is an usually difficult one in the metropolis which bears the doubtful honor of housing more persons per acre than any other city in the world. The pamphlet tells of some of the difficulties encountered and how they were overcome. It tells of the law, of the work of the Tenement House Department which administers the law, of some of the more important court decisions upholding the

law and the department, of improvements which experience has shown are desirable.

Then it takes up some of the questions still awaiting answer: the fight over the three-family house and the two-family house, the proposal to regulate the height, area and location of buildings, the possibility of providing small houses instead of tenements for workmen, the proposed building code, the education of the tenant.

Here in small compass is a record of accomplishment and a prophesy of greater accomplishment.

Mildred Chadsey, chief of the Cleveland Bureau of Sanitation, has written a report which gives us glimpses—but clear and interesting glimpses—of the best, the average and the worst housing conditions of the workmen in her city. Too often housing reports deal only with the worst, perhaps necessarily at the beginning of a housing campaign when the leading citizens in their ignorance are firmly convinced that theirs is a city of homes. It is necessary to shock them awake, and it is often necessary to make the shock a severe one by directing attention exclusively to the worst.

But Cleveland has been awakened. So Miss Chadsey shows not only what can be done but what has been done to provide good homes for wage earners. With the latter pictures before its eyes, we shall be surprised if Cleveland does not make them its standard and rid itself of all the encumbrances which fall below this standard.

The report is published in pamphlet form by the Department of Public Welfare and is illustrated with many half-tones.

Education, more education, and then still more education has been insisted upon at the National Housing Conferences as essential to any housing program. New York city evidently believes so too. New York has had more experience with bad housing, has accomplished more in raising its standards, has in its Tenement House Department a more effective piece of administrative machinery than any other American city. So if any city knows all there is to know about its housing conditions that city certainly must be this city.

But there are new people constantly moving into the city. Add these to the people who forget and those who missed previous opportunities to learn and the necessity for continuous education is evident.

So the New York Tenement House Department and the Tenement House Committee of the Charity Organization Society are co-operating to teach the people of the city their next housing lesson. This is contained in a sort of primer which bears in white letters on a blue cover the words "For You."

The pages inside tell the inhabitants of the tall tenements what their rights under the tenement-house law are, and why. They tell the tenants how to get those rights, and then put it up to them to do as they would be done by if they were landlords or neighbors. City life



The Fairgrounds Pool, St. Louis, the largest artificial outdoor swimming pool in the world, opened its first full season in June. The pool was completed in the middle of the summer of 1914. It is the only public outdoor swimming pool in St. Louis. As it has never been possible to use the swift-running and capricious Mississippi for public bathing purposes, the pool has had enormous patronage from all over the city.

It holds almost 4,000,000 gallons of water and accommodates 2,500 bathers at one time. Over a half million bathers patronized it in last summer's short season. It is located in a newly-acquired park in the north-central section of the city, is under the management of the Public Recreation Commission. The entire park of 130 acres, laid out by George E. Kessler, is devoted to recreation.

is a complex thing. If city dwellers are to be well and happy they must themselves have, in addition to good intentions, some knowledge and intelligence. This little book supplies the knowledge which will enable New York "cliff dwellers" to use their intelligence and their good intentions to the best advantage.

BRIGHTER HOMES FOR BROOKLYN

THE TENEMENT HOUSE COMMITTEE of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities has published a report of its work during 1912 and 1913 which contains a number of surprises for many who live no further away than the Manhattan ends of the East River Bridges. For instance, Brooklyn, the one time city of homes and churches, contains more tenement houses than does Manhattan, the old city of New York which Jacob A. Riis has pictured for us. While the Brooklyn tenements are smaller than the Manhattan tenements, there is a warning in the fact that they are beginning to approximate them.

The report describes at length frustrated attempts to weaken the tenement house law which protects a constantly increasing proportion of Brooklyn's inhabitants, of clean-up campaigns and of campaigns of education designed to in-

form tenants of their rights under the law. The most striking achievement is reported from the campaign against dark rooms. In 1909 a census by the department showed that Brooklyn had 172,286 dark rooms. On December 31, 1913, it had only 26,766. The number of windowless rooms was reduced from 49,000 in 1910 to only 909 in 1913.

Best of all, a considerable part of this progress was made with the hearty co-operation of tenement house owners.

CHICAGO QUIET

Most unthought-of sources of noise are revealed in a little circular put out by the Committee on Reduction of Noise of the City Club of Chicago. Restriction is put on dogs, hucksters, auctioneers and hotel runners. There are also laws regarding whistles on autos and motorcycles, locomotives, river vessels and stationary engines. Blasting, firearms, and transporting of metals on the streets are covered in other ordinances, and there is a law against disturbing religious meetings by making noise.

The committee urges citizens to give publicity to these ordinances by distribution of the leaflet.

Communications

The latch-string of the Communications Department is out to all readers of THE SURVEY. Lively debate and good cheer are to be had within. But the space available for the department makes necessary the following house rules:

1. Communications of 250 words or less, criticising, protesting against, or developing something published in THE SURVEY, will be published, so far as possible, in the first issue after receipt.
2. All other accepted communications will be published in the order received, if space remains after the letters described in paragraph 1 have been used.
3. The maximum length of communications is 500 words, except in cases where the writer convinces the Editor that more is needed. The extreme limit is 1,000 words.
4. Contributing Editors and authors of signed articles will be given an opportunity for rejoinder in the same issue in which letters of criticism are published.
5. In discussions back and forth between readers, each succeeding letter is limited to half the length of the previous one from the same contributor.
6. The Editor reserves the right to reject letters which he regards as libelous, letters of spite, letters on subjects outside the field of THE SURVEY; and for other good and sufficient reasons which he would be prepared to defend.

THE 7-DAY WEEK

TO THE EDITOR: Indeed, but I meant to pay no compliment to THE SURVEY in my protest against a so-concentrated food in weekly doses. It is annoying to come home tired on Saturday night and meet it—the dose—on the doorstep. And worst of all, the package is so attractive and the coating so well applied that I swallow it, package, coating and all, although I very well know that the process of digesting the weekly allotment will carry along into Sunday. And now that I come to think of it, you advocate and I believe in a six-day working week. So much for consistency! A. C. B.

FOR TRAVELERS

TO THE EDITOR: The National Brotherhood Council of England is now arranging a great campaign, "To every man in England" to be held from November 8 to 15 of this year. It will be more upon social service lines than the so-called missions have been, and is for the purpose of showing to every man that brotherhood principles can and will solve many of our difficulties and sorrows.

Extensive preparations are being made throughout the country for thousands of meetings to be held and a large amount of literature is being prepared for distribution.

Some of your readers who are interested in the progress of humanity may be intending being in England at that time. I write to say how pleased I shall be to introduce them to the movement and to receive their help in speaking at some of the meetings.

The presence and assistance of brothers from across the water would be an exemplification of brotherhood and do much to aid us in bringing it before the manhood of England. Will any who are interested or who are coming, please write to me? W. G. WILKINS.

[Alderman and ex-mayor]

Derby, England.

POSTING WORK TIME

TO THE EDITOR: I note in your issue of July 11, in reporting the hearings on the recodification of the New York state labor law, that I am quoted as urging the posting of state regulations of working hours in department stores. That is a mistake. What I advocated was the posting of the exact working hours of each girl working on shift or overtime. At the present time it is difficult to properly enforce the 54-hour law for mercantile workers because there is no way of checking up the exact number of hours employees work.

A law regulating the posting of the working hours of irregular workers in the mercantile trade is in force in Massachusetts. In New York state there is such a provision for factory workers.

ELIZABETH DUTCHER.

[Treasurer, Retail Clerks' Union]

New York.

WHAT'S THE USE?

TO THE EDITOR: There should be some systematic comparison made, showing results where the new social experiments have been tried. What is the use of an expensive laboratory for the purpose of repeating tests which are already available? For a few instances:

New Zealand has enforced arbitration of labor disputes. But no one goes to New Zealand to live.

Australia has an 8-hour day, and is a labor union paradise. But Australia has only a population equal to that of Ireland, and it has not increased one per cent in ten years.

Colorado has had woman's suffrage longer than any other state. But Colorado is the only state in the union today without a republican form of government, order being maintained by United States troops.

Berlin has had the benefit of the highest talent in city planning. But Berlin has more one-and two-room tenement homes than New York.

Western Canada has some form of the single tax. How does it work?

Iowa has the highest percentage of cultivated farms, and Iowa shows a decrease in population by the last census.

Wisconsin is a model in making its state university useful to its rural population. But many Wisconsin counties show a loss in population in the decennial period, the growth of the state being almost entirely in the cities.

Instances come to mind faster than I can record them. In the name of pragmatism, let us see whether these things "work" before we try them all!

JOSEPH D. HOLMES.

New York.

EARLY CLOSING

TO THE EDITOR: In your issue of July 11 an interesting statement is quoted from a Buffalo firm, recognising the right of its employes to shorter hours, and announcing its intention of closing at six o'clock on Saturdays, "no matter if every other retail clothing establishment in Buffalo keeps open till midnight and does a land-office business." In your comment on the progressive spirit thus shown by C. A. Weed & Co., men's clothiers, employing men only, you remark that an early closing movement for men is practically unknown outside the large cities such as New York, Philadelphia, and Chicago.

May I bring to your attention the fact that a number of Syracuse firms employing men only, have for three years past given a Saturday half-holiday, although the custom is not general even among department stores, as it is in Buffalo. One large hardware firm in particular, Alexander Grant's Sons, has shown a fine spirit in closing alone among retail hardware stores.

It is no doubt due to such a progressive policy by a few, that a committee was this year appointed by the Syracuse Business Men's Association to bring about a general six o'clock closing on Saturday for the summer months. It is hoped that this may in no way interfere with the Saturday half-holiday movement which has been supported by some hundred firms including a single department-store, Dey Brothers and Company, always a leader in improved conditions for employes.

EMILY LEVETT EATON.

[President, Consumers' League]

Syracuse, N. Y.

EMPLOYING LEISURE

TO THE EDITOR: A canoe trip this week took me down the river to Ipswich. It chanced to be the last of the week and the men who work in the mills Monday, Tuesday and Wednesday were having holiday. Occasionally one was found working in a little garden and I learned of some who spent their three off days each week clamming or at other work that offered itself. The greater number, however, crowded the pool rooms or played cards on the door steps or in vacant yards.

The people seemed to be Poles and Greeks. Many of the women were doing fancy work. The houses, judging by bedclothing airing on lines and fences, must be overcrowded. The children crowded the streets. There was a large playground in which a number were swinging in the hot sun. Boys I talked with were well informed on the child labor and compulsory education laws as well as concerning how much they had earned in the blueberry fields.

Toward evening I tramped out of the town and met a party of boys coming from a ball game. The leader, probably fifteen years of age, called to a man sitting on his door step. The answer was "Four days and twenty per cent off." The boy exclaimed "Thank God, that will help my poor mother out."

The question that comes to me is: What has been done in any community to utilize the forces set free from work at the time of slack occupation? Is there any city which has met this problem from the standpoint of either recreation or directly productive activity?

FRANK A. MANNY.

East Bedford, Mass.

WITH APOLOGIES

TO THE EDITOR: I was interested in the article on longshoremen in your issue for June 20 [report of the Industrial Relations hearing, page 320].

You speak of "F. W. Hursey, of the Bush Terminal," when as a matter of fact he represents the Funch, Edye Line, who lease a Bush Terminal pier, but are in no way a part of the company. That the pier or steamship people have been too indifferent in the past to the irregularity of employment and to compensation of accidents among their employes, goes without saying.

I think, however, you give the impression that the Bush Terminal Company expresses itself, through F. W. Hursey, (who is not in our employ) as satisfied, and "justifies" the bad conditions that exist. This is so far from the truth that I think you will be fair-minded enough to let me protest. Before my entering the employ of the Bush Terminal Company it had an accident department and paid the employes, when injured, a larger compensation than is required by law, and also cared for the widows of the men killed, while in the employ of the company.

As a company, we do not employ longshoremen. The business of the Bush Terminal Company is storing, and we fill the warehouses with the goods, which the longshoremen on the piers take from

the ships. Our laborers receive even poorer pay than the longshoremen, but it is more steady work—so much more steady that many of the wives of the men prefer it to longshore work, with its irregular hours and pay.

We are not satisfied, however, and are at work at the moment on a scheme to put the reliable laborers, who have been for years with the company, in a different class of increased pay. This will eventually affect from 600 to 1,000 men, and will be of as great benefit to the company as to the men, for increased remuneration always means increased efficiency.

ANTOINETTE GREELY.

[Social Service Dept. Bush Terminal Co.]

Brooklyn.

SUFFRAGE

TO THE EDITOR: In the July 4 issue of THE SURVEY there was an article by Graham Taylor on the Biennial Session of the General Federation of Women's Clubs in which the full text of the resolution passed by the federation endorsing woman suffrage was given a prominent place in the center of the page. Dr. Taylor dismisses the fact that there was a minority report with a few brief words.

In a spirit of fairness and for the sake of the many readers of THE SURVEY who earnestly endorse many of the principles for which the editors stand, while taking issue with them on the question of woman suffrage, I hope you will give space in your columns to this letter of mine as well as to the minority report, as introduced at the General Federation, a copy of which I enclose.

ALICE HILL CHITTENDEN.

Guilford, Conn.

"The minority members of the General Federation of Women's Clubs wish to present and place on record a protest against what is called the *unanimous* action of one million women in an endorsement of equal suffrage.

"When such leaders as Sarah Platt Decker, a pronounced suffragist individually, stated publicly and privately that such endorsement by the federation would militate against the educational value of the federation, in different sections of the country; when well known and unknown women throughout the United States, as directly interested in this convention as any delegate present, have also opposed such endorsement, a great injustice is done by the widespread assertion that a million women composing this body favor political equality."

[Professor Taylor's report stated that the resolution "supporting the cause of political equality" was adopted by an "overwhelming majority of affirmative votes" and continued: "But when the big majority had gone far enough to express their enthusiasm, the president summarily cut off excessive demonstration, and afterwards declared it in order to spread upon the minutes the protest of the minority against any impression that the endorsement of equal suffrage was unanimous which claimed that not

only those opposed to woman's suffrage, but some favoring it, deemed endorsement by the federation inexpedient."—ED.]

SAFETY-AT-SEA

TO THE EDITOR: A considerable amount of misinformation has been published on the question of safety of life at sea, and I fear some of the articles in your excellent magazine have not been right to the point.

The chief perils of late seem to be (1) fire, and (2) quick sinking of the vessel from collisions, stranding, etc.

The first—fire—can be controlled in any vessel and at small expense. A vessel carrying cargo, or its equivalent, below the main deck or at most, below the spar deck, i. e. in tight holds, can have installed a system using a gas that will smother any fire. There are several on the market. If a vessel has also, passenger accommodations cabins, alleyways, etc., etc., they can be supplied with thermostats and a sprinkler system which will hold a fire there.

The second—quick sinking—it is quite within the ability of our marine construction engineers to overcome by double hulls and bulkheads. This is far more expensive but it is not commercially or financially out of reach for new vessels.

It would certainly be a great relief to the traveling public to know that all vessels using our ports, either inland or coastwise, whether engaged in foreign or domestic trade, ten years from now must be thus constructed and equipped, and that meanwhile the present fleets are approximating as much as possible, those conditions.

The need and demand we now have for a life boat seat for every passenger should not exist. Eliminate fire hazard and furnish a ship which cannot sink for days, and the wonderful aids to navigation and to summon help will save every one on board and probably the vessel itself.

I believe the United States steamboat Inspection Service have the authority today to compel these changes, but if the authorities at Washington think the present statutes are insufficient it would be a simple matter to give the power to the Government Service which is now especially entrusted with safety of life at sea.

WILLIAM C. BREWER.

Newton Center, Mass.

THE MELTING POT

TO THE EDITOR: I note that in your article of the fourth of July, called A Pageant of the Melting Pot, you speak of "Americans with no folk-lore of their own, no traditions, no specific expressions of mood in music, movement or color."

I am afraid that your characterization is nearly true as regards music and movement, or at least that our one-step and rag time are not subjects for rejoicing. You ought not, however, to forget some of the phenomena of undergraduate life like football songs and the serpentine dance at Harvard after a fortunate Yale

game. I do not think the Comarinskaia can beat the latter for dizzy effectiveness.

As for color, I do not know that there is any existing school of art that can much beat Whistler, Sargent, Tarbell, Benson and the other late exponents of American painting. But perhaps that is not the sort of color in daily life that you mean.

As to traditions, I don't know why it should be said we have none. It seems to me that from the Mayflower to Apomatox we have traditions that are worth preserving and that are as valuable as those inherited by the Irish, Bohemian, Croatian, Polish, and Ruthenian peoples whom you mention—although I confess that I am personally not well versed in Ruthenian or Croatian history. To many of the old stock the Fourth of July itself still stands for something.

As to folk lore, Newell says in his *Games and Songs of American Children*—of which he gives more than a hundred examples—that America at the time he writes of (namely, the time just before the great immigration) was richer at least in that important form of folk lore than any other country, the reason being apparently that it had been up to that time a fairly homogeneous country and one whose people lived largely in village communities.

But whatever the value of American or of foreign tradition, folk lore and power of expression, the phrase "melting pot" is well applied. Whatever of this sort Americans or foreigners possess is almost certain to disappear when the various races have melted into an indistinguishable mass. Language—at least of a sort of pigeon English sufficient for daily use—will survive; and a few necessary institutions such as the legislature and the courts will still be carried on; but artistic expression must inevitably perish, as our literature has already done.

Foreign peasants, it is true, are still willing to come out and show their costumes in pageants, but they will not wear their costumes in daily life, and will not have them even to show for very long. Nor will they teach their native dances to their children for more than a generation or so, while the American folk lore has already so thoroughly disappeared that you in your article speak of it as non-existent.

"Melting pot" means the reduction of every race, with all that it has learned, to the bare value of the crude metal of which it was composed. So far as what we had previously learned was an evil and not a good, the change will be to our advantage. So far as there was anything valuable in what the various races have painfully acquired during the last few thousand years, it must be a loss.

Boston.

JOSEPH LEE.

SAID OF THE SURVEY

Enclosed please find stamps for one copy of *THE SURVEY* for January, 1914. You will please mail this to me at my home, as I think it worthy of a "place on my piano."

Milwaukee.

HENRY HILL.

JOTTINGS

Ohio State University, Columbus, will hold a county life week August 10-14.

Robbins Gilman, headworker of the University Settlement, New York, has resigned to take effect September 1.

Examination of candidates for the position of welfare nurse, Department of Public Safety, Trenton, \$1,000 a year, open to women only, will be held by the New Jersey Civil Service Commission, August 12.

The Bureau of Child Hygiene of the New York City Department of Health will request a budget allowance for 1915 of \$554,670, or \$123,780 more than this year. The increases asked for are to provide for 9 additional medical inspectors, 3 surgeons, 9 dentists and 84 nurses.

In a recent bulletin, it is disclosed that the Census of 1910 finds the word "pauper" is gradually passing out of use along with its local habitation, the "poorhouse." The new terms are "poor," "indigent," "dependent," and "infirmary," "hospital," "home."

A study of training for public health service and of the organization of such service in England, Germany and Denmark will be made by the General Education Board as a basis of formulating a plan for creating schools of public health.

21,000 signatures—7,000 more than enough—were secured to a petition to put the proposed Arkansas child labor bill before the voters next month. This is the first child labor bill submitted by initiative action. The bill is modeled on the National Child Labor Committee's model law.

New York's one-day-rest-in-seven law has been upheld for the second time in a decision by Judge Fish of the Niagara County Court. The New York and Massachusetts acts, both passed in 1913, replace the old Sabbath observance laws in permitting seven-day operation in industry provided each worker is given one free day out of each seven.

Rose McHugh, district secretary of the Chicago United Charities and last year a Red Cross worker at Dayton, has been put in charge of the investigation and the rehabilitation work at Salem. The bread line has been abolished and effort centers now on finding employment. Secretary of Labor Wilson is co-operating in this. Subscriptions to the relief fund are over a half million dollars. In addition, Congress has voted \$200,000 and Massachusetts \$100,000.

Just before Austria declared war against Serbia, it was announced that Prussian government officers would make an unofficial tour of inspection of American prisons and reformatories in August and September. The trip, lasting about thirty-five days, has been arranged by the Prison Association of New York. Last year four official representatives of the Prussian government spent a month and half on a similar visit, but their report has not yet been received.

The Alumnae Association of Bryn Mawr College is raising a fund as a memorial to Carola Woerishoffer. The income is to be given each year "to the furtherance of such work of social betterment or improvement in New York city as the committee believe most nearly for the time being represents the lines of activity in which Carola Woerishoffer was during her lifetime interested."

A "personal" in the *SURVEY* for July 18 stated that John R. Howard, Jr., had resigned from the general secretaryship of the Thomas Thompson Trust, Boston, to become superintendent of the New York Orthopaedic Dispensary and Hospital at White Plains, N. Y. The hospital at White Plains is the country branch of the main dispensary and hospital on East Fifty-ninth street, New York, of both of which Mr. Howard is superintendent.

RECENT PAMPHLETS

The Newsboy of St. Louis. A study by the School of Social Economy of Washington University, St. Louis, Mo.

The Regulation of Public Dance Halls, Municipal Legislation, to which is added a brief summary relating to cabaret performances and public dancing in restaurants and cafes. Prepared by Andrew Linn Bostwick, Librarian Municipal Reference Branch, St. Louis Public Library.

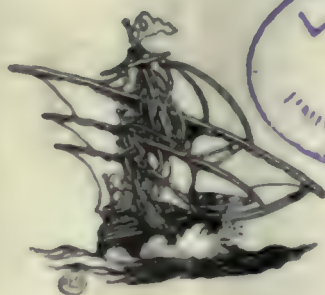
A compromise with Socialism; some practical suggestions. By Walter H. McClenon. Published by the author, 323 Philadelphia street, Los Angeles.

Reform of Legislative Procedure. Budget in Nebraska. A report by a joint committee of Senate and House. Bulletin No. 4 of the Nebraska Legislative Reference Bureau, Lincoln.

A Study of the School Inquiry Report on Ungraded Classes. By Elizabeth E. Farrell, inspector of ungraded classes, New York city. Reprinted from the *Psychological Clinic*.

Problems of Social Assimilation; papers and proceedings, eighth annual meeting, American Sociological Society. Minneapolis, December, 1913. University of Chicago press, \$1.50 net.

THE SURVEY



The Tammany Tiger's Paw on Labor in
New York State

The Value of Tuberculin in the Treatment of
Tuberculosis

An Episcopal View of the Michigan
Copper Miners' Strike

Sagamore—An Open Forum of
Peace and Good Will

SURVEY ASSOCIATES

PUBLICATION OFFICE
105 East 22d Street
New York

INCORPORATED

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WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 20

Contents

August 15, 1914.

THE COMMON WELFARE

WAR AND ITS EFFECT ON IMMIGRATION	495
LEGAL COMMITMENT OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED	495
A CAMPAIGN FOR COOK COUNTY INSTITUTIONS	496
PROTECTING NEGRO CHILD LABORERS IN VIRGINIA, A. J. McKelway	496
WAR CARTOONS	497
CANADA'S NEW POLICY OF DEPORTING THE UNEMPLOYED, Rufus D. Smith	498

OH, GOD, FORGIVE	Madge E. Anderson	498
------------------	-------------------	-----

INDUSTRY

THE TAMMANY TIGER'S PAW ON LABOR LAWS IN NEW YORK STATE	Mary Chamberlain	499
---	------------------	-----

CHURCH AND COMMUNITY

Edited by Graham Taylor		
AN EPISCOPAL VIEW OF THE CALUMET COPPER MINERS' STRIKE		503
A SERMON ON HEALTH BY AN ASSISTANT SURGEON GENERAL		504
THE INSIDE OF THE CUP	Gertrude Seymour	505
COMMON PROBLEMS OF NEGRO AND WHITE IN THE SOUTH		508

HEALTH

THE VALUE OF TUBERCULIN IN THE TREATMENT OF TUBERCULOSIS	James Alex. Miller, M. D.	507
A NEW UNIT IN MEDICAL SOCIAL SERVICE	Daniel Morton, M. D.	508
BOSTON BABY WELFARE COMMITTEE		508

SOCIAL AGENCIES

SAGAMORE—AN OPEN FORUM OF PEACE AND GOOD WILL	Warren Dunham Foster	509
IMMIGRATION AND THE WORLD'S CONFERENCE OF THE Y. W. C. A.		510
JUST HOW THE INFANT WELFARE MOVEMENT STARTED		511
BOSTON SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL WORKERS		512
BORROWING DISCOURAGED BY LOAN SOCIETIES		512
ST. LOUIS SCHOOL OF SOCIAL ECONOMY		512

COMMUNICATIONS		513
----------------	--	-----

JOTTINGS		514
----------	--	-----

Price

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The GIST of IT—

THE Senate, having before it the immigration bill with a literacy test, which has passed the House, is speculating on what effect the European war will have on immigration. Page 495.

MAGISTRATE Privott of Suffolk, Va., has been deprived of a tidy income secured from selling working papers to Negro children under the legal age. Page 496.

AFTER years of a big and florid campaign of advertising for immigrants, Canada suddenly finds herself with an oversupply of labor and has jumped to the other extreme of deporting aliens who are unemployed. Page 498.

EPISCOPALIANS of the Marquette diocese set forth their views of the Michigan copper strike, which are, in general, a blanket endorsement of everybody and everything except the union leaders. Page 503.

A SERMON by a surgeon, having to do particularly with industrial diseases. Page 504.

FRIENDLY good spirit was put forward as the first plank in a program of race co-operation at an Atlanta conference of Negro educators and ministers. Page 506.

TAMMANY has captured the enforcement of the New York labor laws. Most of the positions filled this year in the State Labor Department and the Workmen's Compensation Commission have been exempt from civil service tests. Commissioner Lynch got a few for his fellow labor unionists and Tammany got the rest. The records of the new men. Page 499.

JUST where tuberculin stands today in the treatment of tuberculosis. Page 507.

TODAY a medical laboratory is a greater social asset than a hospital. Each community should have its own, properly endowed, and trustee by scientists as well as business men. Page 508.

THE Sagamore Sociological Congress has succeeded to the point of threatening to become a constellation of bodies given to hearty free speech. Something of the technique of managing an open forum for those who are, or believe they are, unchurched. Page 509.

WOMEN of twenty-six countries who gathered at the World's Y. W. C. A. Conference at Stockholm, found many things in common—things both spiritual and social. Page 510.

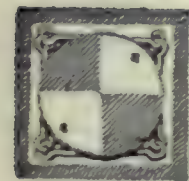
IN the beginning, it appears, the infant welfare movement started in the Garden of Eden and seldom thereafter dropped out of sight or history. A veracious epistle to the moderns. Page 510.

THE year's work of the Boston School for Social Workers and the St. Louis School of Social Economy. Pages 511-12.

REMEDIAL loan societies are attempting with considerable success to discourage unnecessary borrowing. Page 512.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



WAR AND ITS EFFECT ON IMMIGRATION

THAT THE EUROPEAN war will have an important effect on immigration is the opinion of men in both houses of Congress. It is of particular interest in the Senate, which has before it the Burnett immigration bill which passed the House by a large majority.

Anthony Caminetti, commissioner-general of immigration holds that the natural thing to expect after peace is declared again is a quickened flow of immigrants to the United States. If the war is serious and causes general business depression in the countries which it affects, increased numbers of the working classes will have to seek opportunities in this country.

The normal flow of immigrants to this country is now more than 90,000 a month. Those who have already planned to come but have been held back by the war, Mr. Caminetti expects to sail as soon as they can get accommodations after peace is declared. Moreover, many of the foreign men who may leave this country to take part in the war, if they can obtain passage, he expects to return later to resume their work here. Adding together those whose trips have been postponed, those who have left the United States temporarily and the normal yearly number would send immigration records up to a new high mark.

That, however, is pure speculation, and Mr. Caminetti doubts if we shall beat our biggest records—1,285,349 in 1907, more than 1,218,000 in the year ended June 30, 1914, and more than a million each in 1905, 1906, 1910 and 1913.

Against the tendency to sail Mr. Caminetti checks "the resumption of commerce and agriculture in Europe [which] may mean an increased demand for laborers which will keep a great number of people at home who otherwise might come to America in case of foreign depression." But, on the other hand, there is a possible increase of one-third over last year so far as boat accommodations stand today, for he estimates that the trans-Atlantic liners could have carried that many more immigrants.

In view of the situation, it is now a question in Washington whether the

Senate will pass the pending bill to regulate the immigration of aliens to and the residence of aliens in the United States, during the present session. This bill includes the literacy test which will meet opposition in the Senate as it did in the House. And in view of complications which might arise it is believed by a number of Senate leaders that the immigration bill will be postponed until after Congress meets in December. There are some members, however, who may press for its passage before adjournment.

The bill as it passed the House is similar to the one which was acted upon favorably by the same body during the previous administration but was vetoed by President Taft because of the literacy test. There has been some speculation as to whether President Wilson might not also veto the present bill with its similar provision.

New York State Workmen's Compensation Law.

Beginning Monday July 20th, 1914, one cent will be added to the amount of every laundry bundle. We think it but just to our customers to say that it is on account of the cost of the Workmen's Compensation Law. This charge is made, instead of raising the price of any one article, to provide for part of the cost

We are firm believers in Workmen's Compensation, but it undoubtedly increases the cost of production

All increase in the cost of production, whether they be caused by shorter hours, increased wages, increased cost of raw materials, or Workmen's compensation, must be borne by the consumer. There is no other way IF BUSINESS IS TO GO ON. In this instance the employer simply acts as the tax collector and we are told that was the intention of the framers of this law

PUTTING IT ON THE CONSUMER

New York city laundries have met the cost of insurance under the new workmen's compensation law by charging one cent extra on each bundle, as announced in the circular letter reproduced above. For the first ten days after the law went into effect applications for compensation came in at the rate of 1,000 a day.

LEGAL COMMITMENT OF THE FEEBLE-MINDED

GOVERNOR GLYNN of New York has appointed the commission authorized by the last Legislature to investigate "the subject of the public provision for the care, custody, treatment and training of the mentally deficient, including epileptics." Robert W. Heberd, secretary of the State Board of Charities, is chairman and the other four members are: Dr. Max G. Schlapp, director of the New York Clearing House for Mental Defectives; Dr. Charles Loomis Dana, professor of nervous diseases at the Cornell University Medical School; Prof. Stephen P. Duggan, Psychopathic Laboratory of the College of the City of New York, and Mary C. Dunphy, superintendent of the Children's Hospital and of the Custodial Asylum and School for Feeble-Minded at Randall's Island.

The commission is directed to make its report, with recommendations, by February 15, 1915.

Many students of the feeble-minded in New York feel that the greatest need at present in the effort to segregate this class of defectives is more buildings.

The last legislature passed a bill which makes it possible for a judge of a court of record to commit a feeble-minded person to an institution upon certification of his feeble-mindedness by two physicians and after a hearing before the court on the part of those interested. This was supplemented by another measure allowing the heads of institutions for the feeble-minded to apply to the courts for the formal commitment of persons now in custody.

This puts the care of the feeble-minded in this respect on a par with that of the insane in New York. The segregation of the former still lags woefully behind that of the latter, however. Of 32,000 feeble-minded persons in the state, only 5,000 are in institutions designed for them. One of the greatest services which the new commission can perform, therefore, will be the creation of a public sentiment that will demand from the legislature adequate appropriations for new buildings for the feeble-minded.

A CAMPAIGN FOR COOK COUNTY INSTITUTIONS

THE CRISIS of the struggle to determine the future of the great humanitarian service of Cook county (Chicago), has been transferred from the Board of County Commissioners, as described in THE SURVEY for July 11, to the vigorous campaign for the county elections in November.

While no party has had the bravado to renominate any of the majority commissioners, who are charged with doing much harm, most of the minority commissioners have been renominated. Alexander A. McCormick heads two primary tickets for renomination to the presidency of the County Board—the Progressives, and a formidable independent Republican ticket. Mrs. Joseph T. Bowen and Mary E. McDowell are also running on the Progressive primary ticket for nomination to commissionerships. Mrs. George Bass, president of the Chicago Women's Club, is named by the Democratic party for commissioner. The commissioner who dared break with his colleagues of the dominant party, is its choice in the primary for nomination to the presidency of the board.

The county, therefore, is assured of an honest administration whatever party wins. But the great future for its humanitarian work, initiated by President McCormick and his minority colleagues, depends upon their re-election and reinforcement.

A citizen's non-partisan county committee is preparing to announce a citizens' split ticket, including the best nominees of all parties. If a strong working majority is elected to support the minority policies, Cook county will be assured of an enlightened and advanced development of all its welfare institutions and agencies.

The contrast between its management and that of the majority is counted upon to help decide the election.

The psychopathic hospital was built under President McCormick's supervision at a cost of \$2,100 a bed.

The still unfinished Cook County Hospital, contracted for by his predecessor the notorious Peter Bartsen, will cost \$4,600 per bed; and would have cost \$5,800, had not many wasteful expenditures been prevented. The big hospital costs the county over \$6,000,000, has a capacity of only 517 patients, and has required three years to construct it.

If the same efficiency and economy had been available for its construction as for that of the psychopathic building, only half the time would have been required, half the cost, and there could have been ample provision for 1,800 instead of 517 patients.

To Whom This may come:
Permit Mary Bernell's
daughter Callie to
~~work~~ who is 10 years
of age to work
as it is necessary for
the support of the
family. If you are
doing this shall be
your authority.
E. G. Privott Jr.
Mich 16/1914

PROTECTING NEGRO CHILD LABORERS IN VIRGINIA —BY A. J. McKELWAY

THE JOHN KING Peanut Company, of Suffolk, Va., was found by Inspector Clinedinst, of the Virginia Bureau of Labor, to be employing 217 Negro children under 12 years of age, to whom permits had been sold by the local magistrate, E. G. Privott, at 50 cents apiece. The mayor of Suffolk was one of the stockholders in the peanut factory, and according to the testimony of Privott he authorized the magistrate to grant these permits on the ground that it made no difference about Negro children.

The Virginia law, which has lately been superseded by a better child labor statute, allowed children between 12 and 14 to be employed upon a permit issued by the magistrate. One of these permits, showing the children to be 10 years old, is herewith presented.

The commissioner of labor felt that the law had been so flagrantly violated that he moved the impeachment of Magistrate Privott before Judge McLemore. The testimony which had been prepared in the criminal prosecution of the peanut company was not made available because the company plead guilty, being fined twenty-five dollars and costs. Judge McLemore reprimanded the

magistrate but balked at fixing upon him the disgrace of depriving him of his citizenship through impeachment. The action of the judge was severely criticized by the Richmond *News-Leader*, one of the leading papers of Virginia.

Incidentally, the unofficial testimony of some of the local physicians was secured as to the tendency to tuberculosis among the workers in the peanut factory, the processes of cleaning the peanuts from the soil adhering to them, and the subsequent polishing to render them more marketable, creating conditions of dust in the atmosphere that have been peculiarly efficacious in the spread of tuberculosis among the workers.

The incident is interesting as showing the interest which the authorities and newspapers of Virginia have taken in this case of the local employment of Negro children. The present Virginia law still maintains a poverty exemption clause for children between 12 and 14 years of age, but it is so guarded by requiring that the facts shall be entered on record before the judge of the court instead of before the magistrate, as heretofore, that not much trouble is anticipated in the way of the abuse of this rather unfortunate provision.



Donahey in Cleveland Plain Dealer



Arlland in Chicago Tribune

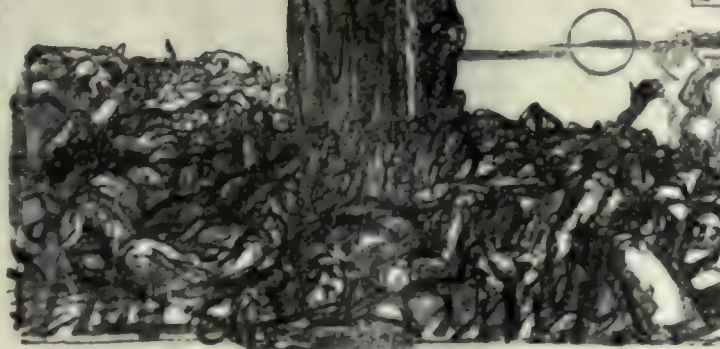


Weed in New York Tribune



Rehse in New York World

1814



Cesare in New York Sun

1914



McCutcheon in Chicago Tribune

CANADA'S NEW POLICY OF DEPORTING THE UNEMPLOYED—BY RUFUS D. SMITH

SECRETARY, MONTREAL CHARITY ORGANIZATION SOCIETY

RECENTLY a deputation of Ukrainians and Ruthenians waited upon the Canadian superintendent of immigration with the request that something be done for them as they were without work, without funds, and had no prospect of immediate employment. The reply, which was given wide publicity, was to the effect that the Immigration Department would deport to their own country all out-of-works dependent upon public charity who had been here under the three-year limit.

This step, in the light of present-day extensive unemployment in Canada, is very serious and radically changes the immigration policy. Heretofore able-bodied men temporarily out of work have been refused deportation. Since this new policy has been made public, Canadian charitable agencies have been besieged by requests for deportation. A batch of twenty-five Ruthenians have just sailed under it.

In a few years, Canada has quickly built up its immigration by systematic advertising, by bonuses, by subsidies and by payments to immigration agents. Never has artificial stimulation been so extensively used in persuading people to emigrate to a new land. Fifteen years ago the newcomers to Canada numbered a few thousand. During 1912-1913, 400,

000 reached its shores. Compared to its widely scattered resident population of seven to eight million, 400,000 immigrants is an enormous number to get planted and safely rooted in a single year.

Many newcomers have been able to secure only what amounts to odd jobs. Especially was this true in the West with its real estate speculation and wild cat values.

Business depression began about last August and continued throughout the winter. The suffering among the newcomers has been extensive and severe. Social agencies in the West were few, constructive leadership on the part of the government was badly needed and unemployment drifted along from bad to worse in the hope that the turn would come in the spring. Such has not been the case and unemployment is to be found in nearly every Canadian city in all lines of activities.

In British Columbia all immigrants, skilled and unskilled, have been excluded for six months and this order has been extended for another period. The immigration department has endeavored to check its over-stimulation by officially advising those intending to emigrate that only agriculturists and domestics are needed in Canada.

Immigration laws at the border are being rigidly enforced. As a result, immigration will be from 50 to 70 per cent less this year than last.

After a year of greatly increased burdens, it is impossible for private charitable societies to shoulder the unemployment problem. Government measures on a large scale are needed but as yet the federal authorities only sit by and state that they will deport out-of-works as undesirables.

Near Montreal is a stretch of clay road running through the fields which connects this city with the King Edward Highway, the main road to New England and New York. After every rain, automobiles and wagons are stuck in this stretch like flies in tanglefoot. Urgent appeals have been made to the government to put six hundred men to work on it at once. Not a move has been made as yet although able-bodied men are being deported from Montreal on their own request.

If the Canadian government had stood aloof from attracting immigrants, it could rightly refuse the responsibility of doing something in this situation, but having adopted the policy of artificially stimulating immigration, it is the duty of the Canadian government to do something towards carrying the unemployed immigrant through this period of stress. To deport able-bodied men under the present circumstances is making a farce of British justice.

OH, GOD, FORGIVE

MADGE E. ANDERSON

OH, God, forgive me that I fail to see
The heroism now surrounding me,
Nor count that hero great, whose spirits fail
Because his body poorly fed does quail
Beneath a task which he is set to do,—
A task too hard for him,—that we the few
In idle ease on luxuries may live:
My God, that we forget him, oh, forgive.

All day my Brother labors in the field;
Labors that the brown Earth may richly yield
Its strength of substance, that my life may live,
I do not think of him—oh, God, forgive.
And this my sister in the sweat-shop stands,
Her heart so human, struggling with weak hands,
'Till Death, more kind than Life, says: "Cease to live"

Oh, God, I thought not of her—oh, forgive.

Within the heated depth of darkest mines,
Ten thousand slaves of poverty one finds,—
They never see the sunshine. In the dark
They labor on 'till Death does stiffen stark

Our Brother's forms. Let their starved spirits
rise

To life in Light, in homes beyond the skies.
We thought not of them, laboring to live,—
Remembering now we pray: oh, God, forgive.

Upon our streets the clubs our watchmen wield
They wield for us, our safety, nor do yield,
No matter how their weary arms may ache
Nor feel for needed rest, they can forsake
A duty tedious, stale of interest,
In care for you, for me, that none molest.
Ah thus from year to year we see them live,
Yet never think of them, oh, God, forgive.

The fireman rushing to the burning home,
The sea-men who o'er angry oceans roam,
The builders of the iron-trails which link
This world of men, from oceans brink to brink,
The men who swing great bridges high in air,
And those whom pestilence can never scare—
These all are Heroes, and among us live
We seldom think of them—oh, God forgive.

INDUSTRY

THE TAMMANY TIGER'S PAW ON LABOR LAWS IN NEW YORK STATE—BY MARY CHAMBERLAIN

THE "SPECIAL INVESTIGATOR" of the New York State Department of Labor is announced. Whereupon the merchant or manufacturer is led to expect a careful overhauling of his establishment with particular attention and expert advice in relation to hygiene, sanitation and safety.

The "special investigator," be it known, is no ordinary factory or mercantile inspector, but is supposed to be a more expert person receiving a salary of \$2,000 a year instead of the \$1,200 to \$1,500 paid the factory and mercantile inspectors.

Neither is he subject to the orders of the inspector-general of the department, as are the regular inspectors, but is under direct charge of the commissioner of labor in the Division of Industrial Hygiene, the expert arm of the labor department. It is upon him that the Industrial Board must largely depend for information as to the special problems affecting the safety and healthfulness of factories and mercantile establishments.

Yet this special investigation of stores and workshops in New York state is being conducted by professional politicians, ex-saloon keepers and factory hands.

Although the work concerns particularly the hours and working conditions of women and children, not one of the investigators is a woman. They are nearly all active politicians; half of them well distributed through assembly districts are members of democratic county or city committees, engaged, apparently, not for any particular experience or qualification, but for ability in "landing" votes for Tammany Hall.

Indeed, so meager is the technical knowledge possessed by these men that for three months following their appointment they were obliged to accompany regular factory inspectors on their rounds, and since that time, it is reported, they have frequently relied in making their investigations on the assistance of a medical inspector transferred from her own duties.

This is especially true in cases involving women, as in the investigation of hours of work of women ticket agents in the Brooklyn Elevated system when it was almost impossible for a male investigator to secure data without the aid of a woman inspector. In other words, results which ought to be obtained by one trained investigator at a salary of \$2,000 have been costing the state twice as much money through the employment of incompetent political appointees unfamiliar with industrial hygiene.

But these inexperienced, unknown investigators in the Bureau of Industrial

Hygiene must not shoulder all the blame. They are only one example of a tendency manifesting itself more and more to make the enforcement of labor laws in New York state the reward of political aspiration.

When the State Labor Department was reorganized in 1913, it was believed that an efficient system had been evolved to administer the progressive legislation of the past two years. The first indication that the lives of factory workers were to be subserved to political ends came with a request from Commissioner of Labor Williams in April, 1913, that 28 positions in the reorganized department be exempted from civil service examination. At that time the Civil Service Reform Association, the Consumers' League, the New York Child Labor Committee and other organizations, made an earnest appeal to the State Civil Service Commission that the petition be denied and the entire inspection force organized on a competitive basis.

The State Commission delayed action for several months but later, when Commissioner Lynch renewed the request of ex-Commissioner Williams, the Civil Service Commission granted 21 exemptions including the positions of investigators in the Bureau of Industrial Hygiene. All were approved by Governor Glynn.

The inspectors and investigators who were appointed under this exemption aroused the mistrust that the Department of Labor was being loaded with political hangers-on and labor-union graduates with more or less political influence. Since that time the selection of other men to fill vacancies in the department, both by Governor Glynn and by Commissioner Lynch, has increased the suspicion.

More recently a Workmen's Compensation Commission has been appointed in New York state. The law which this commission will administer is in many ways superior to any other law thus far enacted in the United States, and the commission will be charged with greater powers and responsibilities than any similar body. They must pay compensation to thousands of injured workmen every year, they must approve systems of mutual insurance and self-insurance, they must as time goes by face actuarial problems fully comparable to those encountered in great insurance companies.

Not one of the men placed on this commission by Governor Glynn possesses scientific knowledge with respect to the intricate problems with which they will be called upon to deal.

Unquestionably J. Mayhew Wain-

wright knows more about the problem than any other member. As chairman of the Employers' Liability Commission of 1910, he has to his credit a constructive piece of work, and he acquired by that experience a knowledge of compensation and insurance principles that will be very valuable to him in his new position.

John Mitchell, too, by his acquaintance with labor conditions and his sympathetic insight into the problem of work-accidents from the standpoint of the wage-earner, will bring to the commission an indispensable element. The appointment of Wainwright, Mitchell and Professor Mosher, a third member, could only be applauded if the other members of the commission possessed the scientific knowledge which they lack.

As it stands, Mr. Wainwright, who knows probably more about the subject than any of the five, serves, at his own request, for one year, while the full five-year term and chairmanship at \$10,000 go to Robert E. Dowling, better known for his Tammany affiliations than for his interest in workmen's compensation. And the three-year term goes to Dr. Thomas Darlington, defeated Tammany candidate for borough president in 1913.

In designating members of the commission, Governor Glynn has declared that his choice was made without regard to politics and with the single purpose to get the best candidates. It is possible that this object has been attained. But that the selection was made without political influence bearing an important part, seems dubious since the recent appointment of ten deputy commissioners by the board itself. Again there are to be found admirable appointments, such as that of Cyrus Phillips of Rochester and certain labor men who will render valuable service to the commission. But these are outnumbered by appointments which are doubtful or notoriously unsuitable.

Furthermore, there is at present before Governor Glynn a resolution to exclude from civil service examination 18 assistant deputies, an inspector of risks and safety engineer, an examiner of claims and several minor positions in the commission's employ. The State Civil Service Commission, consistent with its year's policy, has already sanctioned the request, and it now remains for the governor to decide between an impartial test of ability and an opportunity for patronage grab. Should he follow the latter course, it may be predicted that, as in the Labor Department and in other commissions, in proportion as the positions become less conspicuous the men will be selected less for merit and more for political affiliation.

Nearly \$700,000 has been appropriated for the Department of Labor this year. Three hundred and fifty thousand dollars

has been appropriated for the administration of the workmen's compensation act. It is criminal neglect of the working men and women in the state, it is unjust to employers and unfair to taxpayers that even \$4,000 of this money be used to support a political "heeler" instead of an experienced, efficient deputy.

On the honest and efficient expenditure of this money depends the health, happiness and usefulness of wage-earners. The following records of men appointed during 1914 in the Department of Labor and on the Workmen's Compensation Commission testify to the public usefulness which may be expected of each appointee:

The Labor Department

Member New York State Industrial Board. John G. Walsh, New York city. Appointed by Governor Glynn for four years beginning December 1, 1914, salary \$3,000. (Full time not required.)

For many years traveling salesman for John Dwight Soda Co., Royal Baking Powder Co., Stalwert Bros. Chocolate Co., vice-president J. Monroe Taylor Soda Co., president four years of New York state branch of the Travelers' League, claiming 85,000 members whose purpose is to induce traveling men to return to their home cities for elections. Mr. Walsh asserts that the league backed the last presidential campaign and the McCall (Tammany) campaign for mayoralty. Mr. Walsh claims to be "an independent democrat with a clean political record." It is not politic for me," he declared, "to be a member of Tammany Hall, though my affections are there and I am a close personal friend of Charles F. Murphy."

Secretary New York State Industrial Board. John Williams, Utica. Appointed by the Board, salary \$5,000.

Appointed commissioner of labor by Governor Hughes, 1907. After the adjournment of the Senate in 1913, Governor Sulzer accepted the resignation of Mr. Williams and made John Mitchell a recess appointee as commissioner of labor, with Williams as first deputy. Both appointments were declared illegal by the courts. After that Mr. Williams was connected with the department in a semi-official way performing the work of first deputy until John R. Shillady, former secretary of the board, was ousted from his position on the grounds of "incompatibility." A carpenter by trade. Former president United Brotherhood of Carpenters and Joiners of America. Elected to the Assembly as a Republican from Oneida county in 1897-1899. Appointed state factory inspector by Governor Roosevelt in 1899; in 1901, when various branches of the Labor Department were consolidated, appointed first deputy. In 1911, while commissioner of labor, affidavits were filed with Governor Dix, alleging that Williams used the influence of his department to aid Republican candidates in Westchester county. The charges were denied by Commissioner Williams.

New York State Commissioner of Labor. James M. Lynch, Syracuse.

Appointed by Governor Glynn for four years, salary \$8,000.

Member Typographical Union since 19 years old. President Syracuse Typographical Union at 22. President Syracuse Central Labor Body for seven years. Vice-president 1898, president 1900 International Typographical Union and served continuously until elected labor commissioner. During his presidency of the International Union, led the printers' fight for the eight-hour day, instituted the old-age pension and insurance benefits and promoted a membership increase from 33,000 to 65,000. Nominated for labor commissioner by Governor Sulzer but not confirmed by the Legislature. Renominated by Governor Glynn and confirmed October 22, 1913. Endorsed by the New York Typographical Union No. 6 and by nearly every prominent labor organization in the state. An enrolled Democrat of Syracuse and is understood to have had the backing of William Kelly, regular Democratic leader of Onondaga county. In commenting upon his appointment both the New York *Herald* and the New York *Tribune* state that the Democratic organization had no objection to him before, but refused to confirm his nomination because the patronage of the office would be controlled by Governor Sulzer in his fight against Tammany.

First Deputy Commissioner of Labor. Frank J. Prial, Brooklyn. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$5,000. Serves as inspector general of the state.

Formerly head of the bureau of claims, New York city finance department, salary \$5,000. Entered the department as a clerk and received rapid promotion under Comptroller Metz (Tammany). Retained under Comptroller Prendergast for four years. Instrumental in organizing civil employees association to secure legislation granting to dismissed civil employees the right to court review. During the McCall mayoralty campaign (1913) publicly supported McCall, the Democratic candidate, opposing Comptroller Prendergast, his chief and President McAneny, who is opposed to court review. After election, salary was reduced from \$5,000 to \$2,400 and title changed. Declined to accept and was dismissed as a "martyr to the cause" according to the civil service employee newspapers. It is reported that Senator Wagner "took care of him" and got him appointed first deputy. Member Democratic County Committee from the 16th assembly district, Kings county; 6th congressional district committee, 5th municipal court district committee.

Chief Factory Inspector. Edward D. Jackson, Buffalo. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$4,000.

Democratic assemblyman from 8th district, Erie county, for past 7 years. Voted with Tammany, but a leader in securing legislation to better the condition of wage-earners. Sponsor of the 54-hour bill for factory women, bill prohibiting employment of women at night, "full crew" bill. Member Employers' Liability Commission appointed 1909 by Governor Hughes and of State Factory

Investigating Commission, 1911. Occupation, as given in the legislative directory, switchman. Member Switchman's Union of North America of which he was secretary for four years.

Chief Factory Inspector. Jeremiah J. Flood, New York city. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$4,000.

A lieutenant of Senator Frawley. Under Borough President Ahearn, was superintendent of construction of sewers at \$3,000, but was dropped by President McAneny in 1910. Became known in connection with the famous "Letters to a Boss" published in the New York *American* in December, 1909, a correspondence between Charles F. Murphy and his political henchmen in New York city. Certain of these letters from John Skelly, assistant secretary to the Municipal Civil Service Commission, discussed the finding of a snug berth for "Jerry" in the Dock Department before the new administration came in. "Jerry" was Jeremiah J. Flood. Appointed one of the four supervising factory inspectors made exempt by the previous Civil Service Commission, and was the only one of these who later did not enter the examination for the other inspectorships, which had been made competitive. Member Democratic County Committee from the 26th Assembly district; city committee; 18th congressional committee, 6th municipal court committee. A plumber by trade.

Assistant Chief Factory Inspector. Edward L. Pierce, New York city. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$3,000.

Appointed by ex-Commissioner Williams at \$2,500 as one of four supervising factory inspectors exempted from civil service examination in 1912. Later, when these four positions were placed in the competitive class, Pierce was "covered in" and retained. An enrolled Democrat of the 2nd assembly district, the leader of which is Assembly leader "Al" Smith. Was janitor of a building at 110 Front street where he lives.

Chief Investigator Bureau of Industries and Immigration. Marion K. Clark, New York city. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$3,000.

Mrs. Clark states that since 1898 she has investigated child labor and other conditions in the Pennsylvania anthracite coal fields; alien children in public schools in and near New York city, and immigration on the Pacific coast. Her work was done independently, she says, not under the auspices of any organization, and none of it has been published. She is said to have been Senator Frawley's choice.

Assistant Counsel. Max S. Levine, New York city. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$3,000.

A lieutenant of State Senator Christopher Sullivan (relative of late "Big Tim" Sullivan) in the 8th assembly district and his partner in the law office at 51 Chamber street. When Florrie Sullivan (Tim's cousin) was leader of the 8th, Levine was his right hand man. Appointed by "Big Florrie" as district captain in 1903, served as his personal

secretary and for four years as secretary of the Florrie Sullivan Association. Tammany alderman from the 8th district 1905 to 1913 when he was defeated by Fusion. As alderman, voted against the Folks ordinance regulating motion picture theaters, against measures for reform in police administration, and for measures attacking the merit system for city employees. According to the Citizen's Union he "voted consistently against the public interest." Is a graduate of the New York University Law School and a member of the New York County Bar Association. Member of Democratic county committee for the 8th assembly district, city committee, 13th congressional district committee, 2nd municipal court district committee. Known as the "Former Mayor of Avenue B."

Supervisor Printing and Publication. John H. McCann, Albany. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$3,000.

Enrolled Democrat. Printer on Albany Argus, democratic machine paper supporting Governor Glynn. Member Albany Typographical Union.

Special Investigator. John McArdle, Brooklyn. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$2,000.

Democrat, 16th assembly district, Kings county. Connected with Mailers' Union No. 6. Vice-president Allied Printing Trades Council of New York state.

Special Investigator. Edward V. Gilmore, New York city. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$2,000.

Tammany alderman 1911-1913. 22d assembly district, Manhattan. As alderman, voted against the Folks motion picture ordinance, against measures for reform in the police administration and for measures attacking the merit system for civil employees. The Citizens Union reports "when recorded on important issues voted against the public interest." Lives in Senator Frawley's district. Member Democratic county committee for 22d assembly district; city committee, 18th congressional district committee, 6th municipal court district committee. At one time a foreman in a tin-foil factory; also recorded as a salesman.

Special Investigator. Michael Coan, New York city. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$2,000.

Enrolled Democrat 34th assembly district. Business representative Garment Workers' Union.

Special Investigator. Robert M. Wood, New York city. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$2,000.

For seven years an inspector of highways. Promoted to inspector of vaults by (Tammany) Borough President Ahern and Superintendent Scannel. Member Negro Democratic Club and Charles F. Murphy's first lieutenant in matters pertaining to Negroes. President New York State Colored Democracy. Appointed by Governor Sulzer as chairman of the Emancipation Proclamation Commission. In this capacity he has "stacked" the commission with Tam-

many men. Member Democratic county committee 24th assembly district.

Special Investigator. Richard E. Quirk, New York city. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$2,000.

Member Democratic county committee, 32d assembly district. Formerly a trainman.

Special Investigator. Antonio M. Caridi. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$2,000.

Italian interpreter in the municipal court, Manhattan, 1911, pending the establishment of an eligible list. On October 18, 1911, the Municipal Civil Service Commission promulgated the eligible list with Caridi 36th on it. The civil service rules, which have the force and effect of law, require that provisional appointments shall not continue for more than ten days after a list has been established. Notwithstanding this, the name of Caridi on the payroll was approved until January 31, 1911. When the Civil Service Commission refused to approve Caridi, he appealed in turn to the corporation counsel, the legislature and the aldermen. Did not succeed. Said to be the secretary of the Italian Tammany Club in the 3d assembly district.

Special Investigator. John E. Hickey, Valatie, N. Y. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$2,000.

Enrolled Democrat; occupation, saloon keeper.

Special Investigator. Robert Nethercott, Portchester, N. Y. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$2,000.

Member Democratic county committee and 7th election district committee. In 1906 Democratic and Independence League (Hearst) candidate for Assembly in 4th Westchester county district. The N. Y. Daily News (Tammany) for October 30, 1906, stated that he based his fight for the Assembly on his friendliness for the labor movement and his opposition to the local option bill which Mr. Wainwright introduced in the legislature. By trade a bricklayer, for many years secretary of the local bricklayers' union, also its business agent. Member legislative committee, N. Y. State Bricklayers' Union.

Confidential Agent. Jacob Heintz, New York city. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$1,500.

Member Democratic county committee for 22d assembly district, 1st congressional district committee. Occupation (city directory), salesman.

Confidential Agent. Charles E. Hurley, Albany. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$1,500.

Enrolled Democrat. Salesman for wholesale produce dealer.

Detective (not created by statute). Joseph Grandon, New York city. Appointed by Commissioner Lynch, salary \$1,500.

Clerk Senate Committee on Finance, of which James J. Frawley was chairman. Member Democratic county committee for the 26th assembly district (Senator Frawley's district).

The Compensation Commission

Member Workmen's Compensation Commission. Robert E. Dowling, New York city. Appointed by Governor Glynn for five years, salary \$10,000, as chairman of the commission.

President City Investing Company and a prominent real estate man. Chairman executive committee Citizens' Committee on Rapid Transit for New York city, 1910. In 1911 organized the Tilden Club to regenerate the Democratic Party in a campaign against Tammany Hall but in 1909 he was discussed by Charles F. Murphy as candidate for mayor. His friendship for Murphy is shown in the following from the *World* when returns were received at Tammany Hall on the night of the last election: "Murphy had just returned from Delmonico's and was seated against the wall between Robert Dowling and Justice Joseph Moss." Member New York State Factory Investigating Commission 1911, but seldom attended meetings. Member Democratic county committee, 15th assembly district.

Member Workmen's Compensation Commission. John Mitchell, Mt. Vernon. Appointed by Governor Glynn for four years, salary \$7,000.

Twice nominated for commissioner of labor by Governor Sulzer, but both times the Senate refused to confirm his appointment on the ground, according to the *World*, that he once supported J. Mayhew Wainwright, Republican candidate for senator in Westchester county, and that in 1912 he had refused to endorse the Democratic candidates put up by leader "Mike" Walsh, a friend of Murphy's. "In other words, the established independence of Mitchell," says the *World*, "constituted the reason for Murphy's refusal to accept him." When made a recess appointment as commissioner of labor by Governor Sulzer, his appointment was held invalid by the courts. President United Mine Workers' 1889-1908 and leader in the anthracite strike of 1902. Worked in the coal mines from childhood. From 1908-1911 chairman Trades Agreement Department National Civic Federation; but, it is said, the radical element of the miners' union compelled him to resign. Also a member of the Civic Federation's joint commission on the operation of workmen's compensation laws. A vice-president of the American Federation of Labor.

Member Workmen's Compensation Commission. Dr. Thomas Darlington, New York city. Appointed by Governor Glynn for three years, salary \$7,000.

Ex-commissioner of health (Tammany) under Mayor McClellan, 1904, and defeated Tammany candidate for borough president, 1913. His appointment as health commissioner credited to Louis Haffen, leader of Tammany in the Bronx. During his administration, first class laws enacted against sale of drugs, a plan of school inspection formulated, fight waged against the sale of impure food, death rate declined from 20.01 in 1904 to 15.98 in 1910. It was said, however, that he was practically

controlled by his assistant, Dr. Walter Benschel. Mayor Gaynor stated in 1910: "I suppose every informed person knows he [Darlington] has not run the Health Department for over three years, though nominally at the head of it." Elected chairman general committee Tammany Hall, 1911. When the old general committee of Tammany Hall was reorganized into the new county committee, Dr. Darlington was elected chairman in 1912. Re-elected 1913. Dropped as a member of National Democratic Club along with Murphy, Foley, Gaffney and Plunkett, but reinstated later. Appointed a sacheem of the Society of Tammany April 20, 1914. Graduate College of Physicians and Surgeons, Member New York County, State, and American Medical Associations. Welfare secretary American Iron and Steel Institute.

Member Workmen's Compensation Commission. Howard Mosher, Rochester. Appointed by Governor Glynn for two years, salary \$7,000.

A professor at Rochester University. Chairman county Democratic committee, 1910. Ran the campaign of James S. Havens, Democratic candidate for representative in Congress against the Republican boss, George W. Aldridge. When Democratic State Chairman William Connors, friend of Murphy, offered the services of the state organization in the campaign, Mosher wired him to "keep out of the fight."

Member Workmen's Compensation Commission. J. Mayhew Wainwright, Westchester. Appointed by Governor Glynn for one year, salary \$7,000.

Republican senator from Westchester county since 1908. Assemblyman 1901-1908. Nominated by the "Ward machine" of Westchester county, but grew steadily independent and has made an excellent record. A friend of Governor Hughes and supported most of the Hughes reform measures. Active in investigation of graft charges in Senate, following Allds bribery investigation. Chairman Hughes Employers' Liability Commission, 1909, and sponsor of several bills on workmen's compensation. Author of the compensation law declared unconstitutional by the Court of Appeals in 1911. Went to Europe in 1910 to study methods of dealing with industrial accidents. A lawyer by profession. Two years president of the Westchester Bar Association, two years in district attorney's office New York city. An active supporter of Theodore Roosevelt at the Chicago convention but did not bolt to the Progressive party.

Secretary Workmen's Compensation Commission. Frank A. Spenser, New York city. Appointed by the commission, salary \$5,000.

From 1906 to 1914 secretary New York City Civil Service Commission, beginning as a clerk in 1896. When the Mitchel administration came in (Fusion, 1913) new commissioner asked him to seek a transfer. Tried to transfer to the Board of Estimate and was then appointed on the Compensation Commission. As secretary of the Municipal Civil Service Commission, Spenser was implicated in

the transactions between John Skelly, assistant secretary, and Tammany Hall. A letter written from Skelly to Senator James Frawley (Letters to a Boss) intimated that Spenser had stretched the civil service law so as to pass a constituent of Frawley's who was up for police promotion and that he was "digging up" a place for "Jerry" Flood in the dock department. Skelly wrote: "We have a friend in Spenser and a friend that can be relied upon who is willing at any time to go the limit for us." Later President Polk asked the State Civil Service Commission to investigate the case of Spenser and he was absolved by the state board from blame.

Deputy Commissioner Workmen's Compensation Commission. Patrick Whitney, New York city. Appointed by the commission, salary \$4,000.

Tammany commissioner of corrections 1910-1913. First deputy fire commissioner under Commissioner Hayes (Tammany) in the McClellan administration. Tammany made a great effort to place him in the Gaynor administration and he is said to have obtained his appointment after he received the endorsement of the mayor's friend, ex-City Chamberlain Hyde who was later convicted of fraud in connection with the failure of the Carnegie Trust Company. As commissioner of corrections, Whitney and his warden, William Wright, were accused of favoritism to William Crimmins, president of the Carnegie Trust Company, and Charles H. Hyde by allowing them the "warden's suite" and other privileges while incarcerated in the Tombs. Although the grand jury found that Commissioner Whitney had entrusted the entire management of the Tombs to Warden Wright, Whitney did nothing towards removing Wright. Whitney was also accused of mismanagement in connection with the penitentiary workshops. He appointed, on recommendation of Tammany Assemblyman McGrath of the 20th district, Dr. Baxter, the man recently convicted for selling drugs to inmates of the workhouse while physician there. More recently Mr. Whitney has been involved in the connection between the New York, New Haven and Hartford Railroad and "14th Street." It has been brought out that he was in the employ of the New York, Westchester and Boston Railroad between the time the Board of Aldermen gave the Westchester the franchise and the date the Board of Estimate modified it according to the desires of the New York, New Haven and Hartford. Mr. Whitney states that he was employed during that time as a "clerk," but the New York World of April 29, 1914, states that he was carried on the payroll "at a salary in excess of that paid to the general manager of the concern." Member Democratic county committee, 12th assembly district (Murphy's district); city committee, 15th congressional district committee, 4th municipal court district committee. A life-long friend of Charles F. Murphy, an active member and for many years treasurer of the Murphy political organization in the 12th district, the Anawanda Club, and for a

time recording secretary of Tammany Hall.

Deputy Commissioner Workmen's Compensation Commission. Thomas J. Curtis, New York city. Appointed by the commission, salary \$4,000.

President Central Federated Union, New York city. Fifth vice-president New York State Federation of Labor. President Joint Compensation Conference of the Labor Bodies of New York. Secretary International Tunnel and Subway Constructors' Union. Business agent Rock Drillers' Union. In 1909 while Curtis was the labor representative on the Reform Committee of 18 which came together to select a committee of 100 in the Fusion fight against Tammany, he called on Charles F. Murphy to declare for John Benschel (Tammany) president of the Board of Water Supply, as candidate for mayor. Curtis explained that he was only acting as a representative of his union and that he personally was with the Committee of 100. The explanation was accepted, but Curtis was viewed with suspicion and disciplined by the committee.

Deputy Commissioner Workmen's Compensation Commission. Thomas Drennan, Brooklyn. Appointed by the commission, salary \$4,000.

Secretary Board of Assessors since 1910, recently resigned. Prior to that, deputy receiver of taxes for Brooklyn to which position he was transferred by (Tammany) Comptroller Metz from collector of arrears. Democratic leader 4th assembly district, Brooklyn. When the Kings county Democrats rebelled against the leadership of Senator Patrick McCarren, in 1908, Mr. Drennan remained loyal to McCarren and in the primary which ensued won the 4th district leadership. Member Democratic county committee, 4th assembly district Kings county; judiciary committee, city committee, 5th congressional committee, 3d municipal court district committee. McCooey (Brooklyn Democratic boss) reported in all political gossip to have promised him this job and to have had hard work landing it.

Deputy Commissioner Workmen's Compensation Commission. August Lauter, New York city. Appointed by the commission, salary \$4,000.

Cashier in Sheriff Julius Harburger's office (Tammany) January 1 to March 1, 1912. Secretary German Democracy in the Bronx (Democratic club). In the real estate and fire insurance business.

Deputy Commissioner Workmen's Compensation Commission. John N. Fitzgibbons, Oswego, N. Y. Appointed by the commission, salary \$4,000.

Ex-mayor (Democratic) of Oswego. Legislative representative Brotherhood of Railroad Trainmen. Said to have had a secret ante-election bargain with Governor Sulzer whereby Sulzer was to sign the "full crew" bill in return for Fitzgibbons' campaign help and said to have written a letter to the brotherhood men recommending Sulzer. This correspondence with Sulzer used as one of

[Continued on page 514.]

CHURCH and COMMUNITY

Edited by GRAHAM TAYLOR

AN EPISCOPAL VIEW OF THE CALUMET COPPER MINERS' STRIKE

THE COMMISSION kept itself in daily touch with the situation for the twelve months past and in personal touch with many of the principal actors on both sides of the question, basing its statements on facts carefully verified at first hand. They endorse the report of the Copper Country Commercial Club as an accurate statement of conditions in the affected district. They highly commend the attitude of the governor of the state of Michigan, and the efficiency of the militia as an auxiliary of the civil authority in restoring order. They point out how the difficulties of those who were trying to bring about an equitable adjustment of the difficulties were augmented manifold by careless statements, and deliberate falsehoods sent out broadcast. These prolonged the strike four months and aroused a nation-wide bitterness which bodes no good to the efforts of those who would promote a harmonious relationship between labor and capital. Justice can never be built upon falsehood.

Industrial and Social Conditions

These compare favorably with those of the average American worker; work is steady; general lay-offs unknown; unaffected by nationwide panics; in fifty years no labor disturbances of any importance; safety first; average death rate below that of other copper producing states; called the ideal mining camp.

Churches numerous, of many languages, well attended; miners incline towards enthusiastic types of religious life. School system complete; Calumet High School enrolls over 1,000; one of best equipped in Michigan. Physical director of Chicago Public Schools said that he had never seen healthier or better dressed children than those about the Calumet schools.

Housing conditions superior to those of large cities. Generally well furnished; many pianos; tables well spread; average person per house 6.3; average per family 5.4; some houses crowded usually from choice; one such of five rooms has ten men, two women, three children; this rents for five dollars a month and has an income from the mine of seven hundred dollars a month. At new mines the companies must build houses for the men until the success of the mine is assured. These rent for one dollar a month, including pasturage, garden space, etc. There are about 1,800 company houses and 16,000 privately owned houses.

The common danger which attends the underground worker, and the rugged life develops a spirit of comity, of good fellowship, and social unity. The tendency in the individual is towards inde-

*I*N this department of *The Survey*, contributions are published, as are the communications from readers in other columns, without committing any one but the authors to the opinions expressed. Here as there *The Survey* is hospitable to those who agree to differ in freely expressing their opinions. It cheerfully prints views at variance with its own and claims the right to continue to differ from such views.

The following view of the Michigan copper miners' strike is printed at the request voted unanimously at the annual convention of the Marquette diocese of the Protestant Episcopal Church, "that an abstract of the report of the Social Service Commission be made and forwarded to *The Survey* by the secretary of this convention together with the request for its publication."

*I*T is only fair to call attention to the fact that this account of the situation differs materially from the report of the patient investigation made by one of our staff and published in *The Survey* for November 1, 1913. Comparison is invited, for instance, between the primary causes of the strike cited by *The Survey* and the very secondary considerations alleged as such in the abstract—"innate laziness" for example.

The contrast between the accounts given in *The Survey* for January 10, 1914, of the Citizens' Alliance, and the indiscriminate "credit" given it in this abstract is hardly explained by the emphasis placed upon "the fact that public meetings for consultation were opened with prayer and closed with benediction."

The accompanying abstract was furnished by the Rev. James E. Crosbie of Vulcan, Mich., secretary of the diocesan convention which met at Negaunee on June 3.

pendent self-reliance combined with a willingness to do one's part.

Political domination in the mines is a possibility minimized by the Australian ballot. The present judge, county attorney and congressman in Houghton county (population 90,000) were not the choice of the mines. There is a large citizen body living in many villages only indirectly connected with the mines; an

influential businessmen's club of several hundred; many social clubs; literary clubs; fraternal societies; civic improvement associations; \$75,000 Y. M. C. A.; a great deal of travel at home and abroad.

Causes of the Strike

Influx of large foreign population not yet absorbed in community life.

Minor grievances. Inflammatory talk calculated to arouse class hatred. False promises.

Innate laziness. To quote from prominent strike sympathizer, "Many of the strikers will not return to work if the federation is recognised or not. Such people believe that the world owes them a living, and they seldom make any effort to secure a livelihood. It is usually from such that the greatest demonstrations are heard. It is useless to talk to them."

The Real Issue

Recognition of the federation which meant that shortly all mine workers must join this union, and all negotiations between workers and employers must be supervised by the officials of the Western Federation of Miners.

The operators had the support of more than 60 per cent of the men; the federation of less than 30 per cent. The men petitioned the managers not to recognise the federation. At the Calumet and Hecla less than 400 struck, about 400 left the district, about 3,400 signed a request that the mine be reopened and they be allowed to earn their own living.

Why the Strike Failed

We gather from federation sources the following: "premature"; "bad advice"; "did not receive the endorsement of the A. F. of L."; "misjudged and defied local public opinion."

From other sources we gather the following: Grievances did not justify upsetting the industrial peace of 100,000 people. Unprovoked and premeditated violence. Over against fifty years of industrial peace of the mines the workers set the stormy career of the federation. Because of the characters of the local leaders. Because the majority of the men opposed the strike. Because of the failure to fulfil promises.

We quote from an attorney who for eight months gave intelligent support to the strike, a leader among his nationality: "Think wisely—do not permit yourselves to be deceived by the agitators. Others are taking your places—they come to the copper district because they can earn more money than elsewhere. Public opinion has been against this strike from the beginning and no strike has ever been won where public opinion was against the strikers. The people of the copper country believe the federation will bring nothing but harm to this

district and their belief is based on the history of the organization in the west. Added to this is the confession of John Huhta, the federation secretary of South Range, who admits his complicity in the brutal murder of Painesdale. * * * The time will come when those who are still striking will find that they have been willfully deceived. When the strikers know the facts, God have mercy on the agitators."

The Strike Hung on After it was "Lost"

Governor Ferris said, "If outsiders would keep out the employers and employees would quickly adjust their difficulties." Liberal strike benefits, comfortable houses, inherent laziness, intimidation of those who would return to work, hope of further concessions, and that the mines would ultimately be turned over to those loyal to the federation, discharging all others, kept many in the rank of the strikers.

Violence

There was much unprovoked and premeditated violence, fostered by paid agitators. Intimidation of workers, of women and children, and of strikers who were losing interest. The attitude of the mobs was frequently that of small boys stoning frogs and laughing at their struggles. An official of the I. W. W. said that when it came to rough work the W. F. M. had it on the I. W. W. The midnight murder at Painesdale was deliberately plotted by a federation official and not the outcome of untoward

events.

This intimidation was exercised against many who wished to remain neutral. The violence and braggadocio and insolence of the labor leaders when in power for one week lost for them the confidence of the better class and, when contrasted with the liberal policies of the mines for fifty years, caused the citizen body to cast the weight of their influence with the men who wished to work.

The Attitude of the Citizen Body

The citizens generally had no desire to 'take sides.' But found they could not shirk a manifest responsibility. The promptness with which responsible citizens took hold after the James murder prevented retaliation, stopped violence, set the dormant courts in motion, secured a promise from the managers to keep their jobs open for the men not aggressively violent, alleviated suffering, tried to prove that old friends were the best friends, formulated plans for teaching the foreigner the customs of his new home.

We credit the fair-minded attitude of the citizens in this crisis to the fact

that the public meetings for consultation were opened with prayer and closed with benediction, while intercessory prayer was held by the women in adjacent churches. This represents the attitude of 90 per cent of the population excluding actual strikers.

Suggestions

No law can prevent these outbreaks but the spirit of Christ in men's hearts. Arbitration laws should rigidly exclude all who profit by these disturbances. Steps should be taken to graft the foreigner into community life and instruct him in the obligations of citizenship. Certain laws should be readapted to meet the needs of mining communities. The Church should preach the Golden Rule as the one fundamental on which social justice can stand, without which the most utopian scheme is doomed to failure. It was St. Paul's message of Christian love, "Receive him as a brother", that broke down Roman and Grecian slavery, and not the revolution of Dymakos or Spartacus. She must ever say, Why do ye strive? Are ye not brethren? One interest must ever be upper-most the interest of humanity.

A SERMON ON HEALTH BY AN ASSISTANT SURGEON GENERAL

DR. W. C. RUCKER, assistant surgeon general in the United States Public Health Service, has this to say

on The Relation of the Church to Industrial Disease:

"Should we as Christians permit such things to continue? Should we allow the necessities of our lives to be produced at the cost of human suffering which is entirely needless and wholly preventable?"

"If any Christian is really desirous of knowing the conditions under which the things which enter into his life are produced, let him but investigate one industry, and he will be appalled at the sacrifice of human life which he will find therein. The porcelain dishes from which we eat are covered with lead glaze in the production of which hundreds of human beings contract chronic lead poisoning. Other glazes are just as practicable, yet lead is used because it requires a lower degree of heat and therefore lessens the cost of production.

"A portion of the clothes which we wear is made of cloth the initial fabric of which was gathered from the garbage dump by women and children and sorted in dusty rooms by women. A few years ago, in investigating the rag industry in a certain portion of this country, I was told that Russian women made the best rag sorters, 'because' said the foreman, 'they last the longest.'

"Consider the high morbidity rate among the women who work in the pneumatic tire manufactories of England. Think of the chronic brass poisoning which occurs in the foundry workers who have made the bright work on your automobile.

"Imagine, if you can, working in a steel mill under high temperature for twelve hours per day, seven days in the week, three hundred and sixty-five days in the year, and you will comprehend that you, as a Christian, have a duty to perform in the correction of these evils.



MAROONED *Newark Evening News*

"Even the very festival which celebrates the birth of our Lord and Master means a physical drain upon the shop girl, who for \$6 or \$8 a week is selling her very body, and perhaps her soul. The toys which are given to children at Christmas-tide have been produced for the most part by the labor of other little children—little children in foreign lands, perhaps, but none the less our brothers. If as Christians we believe that the body of man is the temple of God, it is our duty to drive out these money changers in the temple, who would transmute the souls and bodies of men and women and little children into the coin of exchange.

"The men of this congregation will go to their businesses tomorrow morning and will take no thought of the cleanliness of the halls and rooms of the buildings in which their offices are located. If they will but wait until nine o'clock tomorrow evening they will see the bent and broken figure of a woman kneeling on the cold flags of the floor, scrubbing. Recent investigations show that these women are for the most part widows, having dependent children, and that the wage which they receive is barely enough to sustain life. The little children are left at home alone all day to acquire what habits no one knows, and as soon as they are old enough to command a certain price in the labor market they are put to work.

"The Russian mother, on her flying sledge,
Chased by the leaping wolves, the hungry wolves,
Is said to throw one child to those fierce fangs
To save the others—may be, throws them more.
So, mothers of the poor, beside whose doors
The wolf sits always, scratching at the sill,
Send out one child to stop his mouth awhile,
Or two, or more, to keep the rest alive."

"There are many laws upon the statute books prohibiting the employment of children under certain ages. Yet anyone who has investigated the subject knows that age certificates are constantly being falsified in order that girls may receive the kiss of death from the shuttle, and that boys may pick the slate from the coal around whose ruddy glow we Christians gather for our family prayers.

"It is not through the impracticable doctrines of the zealot that this will come to pass. We must investigate, we must correlate, we must legislate, and we must administrate and while the problem as a whole is so great and there is such an entanglement of right and wrong that it cannot in its entirety be grasped by a single mind, there are nevertheless many tangible things on which we may lay hold, and as individual Christians work toward remedying the conditions of industry.

"And so will come the conquest of industrial disease, if we, the members of the living Church of God, will but accept our individual responsibility to the toilers of this earth. The remedy cannot be fixed and inelastic. The problem is

too great to be grasped by the mind of man and reduced to a set formula or equation. It is as big as God's own nature and it is only by approaching its solution in His spirit that we can hope for the alleviation and cure of this disease which rots the very woof and warp of our social fabric."

THE INSIDE OF THE CUP—By Gertrude Seymour

AN ANTHOLOGY of reviews of *The Inside of the Cup* [Macmillan Company, \$1.50 net] would seem more feasible than a new review at this time when the book is in its eighteenth printing. For the opinions expressed about Mr. Churchill's work are legion.

The book has been relegated to the era of Robert Elsmere and the days when *A Singular Life* was really singular. It has been criticised by scholarly churchmen as inaccurate in its hostile data, as the portrayal by a hostile pen of Christianity with Christ left out. The hero has been called unfair, untrue. No man, the protest goes, could in this day and generation remain for fifteen years, in even a small and secluded parish, unaware of the intellectual unrest surging through the world. No church could be so belated, so benumbed, as to allow its rector to vegetate, undisturbed, for fifteen years.

This last criticism has, however been guarded against by an inconspicuous sentence, as brief as it is significant: "Whiteley's men had never struck." The Rev. John Hodder was not unaware of the great unrest; it simply had not come nigh him. Chiefly because Whiteley was Whiteley, Hodder's gentle parish lived undisturbed by strikes, and socialistic theories remained in books read by ineffectual men. But as his leading parishoner drives him through the dingy streets between the station and the parish house of his new charge, he looks out through the carriage windows as if in recognition of possibilities foreseen. And his response to Mr. Parr's comment on the new and different conditions awaiting him is instant: "I know it."

So the dramatic necessity of the story is met. Given the conditions, given the personality—from their meeting there can be but one result.

The more technical theological criticisms must be passed by. We are not theologians. Detailed ecclesiastical history is beyond our ken. We have not read up the Arian heresy nor studied the Council of Nice. We read patiently all the chapter of Hodder's dissertation to Alison Parr, yet our chief impression was of wonder at the lady's power of attention—explained in some degree, of course, by "human interest."

But the story's great significance lies, it seems to us, not in the arguments, be they logical or otherwise, but in the enlightenment and readjustment of a strong personality in a new contact with other personalities. As a student, Hodder turned first, inevitably, to history and record in his attempt to square the circle of his problem. Yet it was not in history and record that he read an answer to the questions that tortured his life. The new Hodder, all the dynamics

of his conviction and his work, came from contact with people who, wronged, suffering ignored, were nevertheless spinning eternal truth out of the stuff of every day. And before this eternal truth, all doctrine that was merely academic slipped away.

But all this is, of course, an individualistic interpretation. There remains when one has closed the book, a question of social significance—what became of St. John's on this new basis?

Perhaps considerations of space prevented Mr. Churchill from carrying his story beyond this question mark. Or is there no material available for the purpose? Up to this point the story need not be deemed wholly imaginative. Hodder's glowing words have been quite equalled. Witness, for example, a resolution passed last fall by the convention of the church which Hodder represents:

"We . . . do affirm that the church stands for the ideal of social justice and that it demands the achievement of a social order in which the social cause of poverty and the gross human waste of the present order shall be eliminated."

But was the resolution wholly a forecast? Back of its conviction was there not accomplishment? Some, undoubtedly. But on the whole, Hodder stands not an exaggeration but a representative of new faith, and of new work, newly begun.

The book leaves a twofold challenge: to the church—so to multiply its Christian service in practical social endeavor that knowledge of it cannot be hidden away, tacitly classified, in "reports;" to the skillful writer—to find and to illuminate the significance of this new service, turning "reports" into literature and challenging action as he has challenged thought.

THE LONDON SURVEY

What new ground plans are being laid by the churches for their own community work is happily illustrated by *The London Survey*. It is a report on a limited survey of education, social and industrial life prepared for the Men's Federation of London, Canada, by the Presbyterian Committee on Religious Education, the Methodist Department of Temperance and Moral Reform, and the Presbyterian Board of Social Service and Evangelism.

The pamphlet is unusually graphic and practical in its outlay of the work done and projected. Pointed and pithy are the recommendations based upon the facts tabulated and presented in graphic form. Industrial education is discussed in its connection with religious education. Industrial conditions including wages and family budgets, housing and markets, are considered as the concern of the churches. The relation between delinquency and recreation as it bears upon conditions in London is vividly portrayed. The liquor problem and social vice significantly follow the discussion of public health.

Such surveys give promise not only of new vitality in church life and new aggressiveness in church work, but also of newly planned and reconstructed communities.

COMMON PROBLEMS OF NEGRO AND WHITE IN THE SOUTH

THERE GATHERED recently in the buildings of Clark University and Gammon Theological Seminary, Atlanta, Ga., (two institutions for the advanced training of Negro students) one of the most notable companies that has come together in the South in many years. There were 550 students and professors, representing eighty-one Negro institutions throughout the South, some forty or fifty of the leading ministers of the Negro church and about seventy leading southern white men and women who came together to discuss the common problems that face the two races in the South.

The first purpose of the conference was a study of the Negro church and its message for the present day. The four morning sessions were given to addresses and to the discussion of this most fundamental problem. The Negro church has a larger relationship to the Negro race than has any church to the white race. It is not only the place of religious life, but it is the social center as well as amusement and recreation place. One morning was given to a careful study of the relationship of the Negro church to better homes; another to the relationship of the church to the up-building of race ideals and race consciousness.

Afternoon sessions of the conference were given up to the study of race co-operation. Addresses on the basis for economic co-operation, religious co-operation, and educational co-operation were discussed, both by the leaders of the white and of the colored races.

Evening sessions were devoted to discussion of the Christian leadership of the race, including the ministry, the men who should be sent to Africa as missionaries, the secretaryship of the Young Men's and Young Women's Christian Associations, and other similar organizations.

In all these sessions both Negro men and women in the South and white men and women spoke. There was not a session in which there were not both white and colored speakers appearing. This is a great step in advance, the two races coming together in cordial co-operation for the study of the fundamental problems of Negro life.

Dr. John R. Mott of New York city, who is head of the Foreign Department of the Young Men's Christian Association, and also head of the Student Department in the home field, acted as presiding officer. His counsel and inspiration was invaluable to the whole conference. He also made two addresses, one on the present-day opportunity throughout the world for the advance of Christianity, and another on the Christian life as a basis of all co-operation.

Throughout the entire four days of addresses and discussions there was hardly a jarring note. There was a most cordial sympathy from both sides and the utmost frankness and thoroughness of expression. The harmony that prevailed throughout this conference did

not arise out of suppression of conviction but out of a wholesome spirit of brotherhood dominated by the spirit of

Jesus Christ.

At the close of the conference the following statements or findings were unanimously adopted as expressing the spirit, the purpose and the results of the meeting:

FOR THE CONSERVATION OF THE CONFERENCE

Adopted by the Conference

Recognizing fully the difficulties of making this conference a reality in our communities, recognizing fully the handicap under which the colored people in the South labor, and recognizing just as fully the fact that all co-operation is two-sided, that both races need to be ready to do their share in bridging the chasm of misunderstanding, we wish to make the following suggestions for the conservation of the work of this conference:

First: We believe that race co-operation can be promoted only by the good spirit which has characterized this gathering. Bitterness of expression, sarcasm and stinging words from either side will never bring us together in brotherly fellowship. Here we have had Negro men and women, and southern white men and women, meeting side by side in the spirit of friendliness. We were told by timid souls we could not do this, but we have done it,—and this is not the first time. If this can be done here, then all the people in the South can do this, when the spirit of Jesus sufficiently dominates our hearts that colored and white alike forget their prejudices, their grievances, and their difficulties and rejoice in a chance for united service. We would, therefore, recommend that each member of this conference go back to their respective communities to urge this mutual confidence and trust between races.

Second: Believing as we do that religion is life, and life is right relationship, we recommend that a renewed emphasis be placed on a sane but aggressive evangelism. To this end we recommend that white and colored churches in various cities and in country communities enter upon united evangelistic campaigns, such as have been so successfully conducted in some of our southern communities.

Third: Believing that faith and mutual understanding will be promoted not by criticism but by service, we recommend that an effort be made in every community to unite the races in community wide social work. This work may well take the direction of improving health conditions, working out a plan of real sanitation for all sections of the city, seeing to it that the housing conditions are improved, that saloons and houses of pollution are not saddled on any part of the community, and that back alley, back yards and other hidden spots be cleaned up—thus working for a truer and sweeter community life.

Fourth: Believing that ignorance is always the harbinger of prejudice, we wish to urge that white and colored colleges and churches alike

start thorough classes in the study of the conditions of the needy people of both white and colored in our cities. It may not be known to you that this conference here is the legitimate outgrowth of just such study groups in scores of colleges and churches, both white and colored. This meeting not only could not have taken place, but it would not have taken place if there had not been in the last few years thousands of students and professors studying these difficult problems.

Fifth: Recognizing that 70 per cent of the colored people live in the country, we recommend that our colleges give much attention to the organization of classes in the study of the country problem, including the study of the country church and the country school, rural sanitation and health, and rural economics.

Sixth: We recommend further that every delegate shall seek every opportunity to report, not only the facts but also the spirit of this conference in the colleges, churches, young people's societies, and public schools of their local communities. We should all write one or more articles for our local papers.

If this conference has brought heart and confidence to us, we have a definite obligation to take this message of confidence and answering trust back to those who have not had this privilege. If this conference does not send us away, both white and colored, with a sweeter temper, with a greater confidence, with a profounder faith in each other, then it has been a failure, and just in so far as any one of us goes away to criticize, to complain, to nurse our prejudices or our wrongs, just in so far as this conference failed. Mutual confidence, mutual respect, mutual trust and love are the keynotes of this conference, and these key-notes can alone be made to dominate our lives through the spirit of Jesus Christ, and it is an obligation to foster this spirit in both races.

The most marked characteristic of Jesus Christ lay in the fact, that though He always spoke with perfect frankness, His words were touched with that sweet gentleness that left no sting in the human heart. If the members of this company go back to their several communities to speak frankly, but without bitterness or rancor, we shall have made a valuable contribution toward the removing of barriers between man and man. For all days to come may it be said of us as it was said of the Great Deliverer,—a bruised reed would He not break, and smoking flax would He not quench.

HEALTH

THE VALUE OF TUBERCULIN IN THE TREATMENT OF TUBERCULOSIS—BY JAMES ALEX. MILLER, M. D.

WHEN ROBERT KOCH in 1882 announced the discovery of the tubercle bacillus as the germ cause of tuberculosis, hopes for a method of successfully coping with the germ were immediately aroused. When eight years later this same scientist announced that he had discovered in tuberculin an agent which, when injected into animals or human beings with tuberculosis, appeared to have distinct curative value, all the world was immediately aroused to a high pitch of excitement. A sure cure for tuberculosis was confidently hoped for and when, in a comparatively short time experiments demonstrated that tuberculin was not such a cure, the reaction was as intense as was the previous enthusiasm.

In those days tuberculin was given in large doses, and it was easy to prove that in many cases great harm was done. The good effects reported were less striking and for many years lost sight of.

A few patient investigators, notably in this country Dr. Trudeau of Saranac Lake, continued to experiment with tuberculin in the laboratory and in the clinic until a method was devised very different from the original one suggested, by the use of which no harm could result and considerable benefit in certain types of cases was observed.

Encouraged by these observations, tuberculin gradually became more widely used in small doses, until in the last decade it has re-established itself as an important aid in the treatment of tuberculosis.

Tuberculin, as originally prepared by Koch, is a preparation of glycerine broth cultures, in which the tubercle bacilli has grown for several weeks, and then the germs are removed by heat and filtration. This preparation contains some of the poisonous products excreted during the growth of the germs and also small particles of the broken up bodies of the dead bacilli themselves. These small particles probably represent the active principle in the tuberculin.

There are many other preparations of tuberculin; one in particular worth mentioning is prepared by grinding up the particles of tubercle bacilli into a glycerine emulsion. It would appear, however, that all the preparations of tuberculin act in a similar manner and that their special action is due to the same element in all.

In recent years, scientists have learned a great deal about the problems of immunity in various infectious diseases. One of the most interesting phenomena is what is known as anaphylaxis, or the increased sensitiveness to bacteria, or to be specific, an increased sensitiveness

Announcement by a New York hospital of new methods of administering tuberculin, of marvelous results from its use, and of a training course for physicians in the administration of tuberculin, led The Survey to ask for this article by Dr. Miller. He is widely known in tuberculosis work, both as chief of the tuberculosis division of Bellevue Hospital, New York, and as a director of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.—Ed.

to the protein constituent of the body of the germ.

In tuberculosis anyone who has ever had the germ in his body, be it even in a very slight degree, has this increased sensitiveness which is most generally recognized in the tuberculin reactions. Of these, the skin or Von Pirquet is the best known.

It now develops that this increased sensitiveness to tuberculin is one of the processes of immunity and the problem in tuberculin treatment is to so influence this reaction in the body cells that either an increased resistance to the germ may be produced, or else an increased tolerance to the poisons of the germ in the system. Recent investigations would tend to indicate that there is no direct immunity in the ordinary sense of the word to tuberculosis, but rather an increase of resistance to what is known as superinfection. For example, a slight infection with tuberculosis during early life may never give any symptoms, but the individual will as a result always react positively to the tuberculin test, and also very possibly has developed an increased resistance to later infection with the same germ.

It is thus evident that in tuberculin treatment we are dealing with very sensitive and delicate reactions. The results obtained are not always easy to see and the treatment itself should always be given with the utmost care by those well versed in the proper methods.

The great majority of cases of tuberculosis would better never be treated with tuberculin at all, but for certain other cases, the selection of which should always be left to an experienced physician, the results appear excellent. In general, it may be said that the more suitable cases are those in which the disease has become localized in the system. This is best seen in cases of so-called surgical tuberculosis, that is of the bones, glands, or joints, etc., and similarly to the more localized chronic cases

of pulmonary tuberculosis.

The injection of small increasing doses of tuberculin seems to favorably influence the course of the disease as evidenced by diminution of general symptoms, with a corresponding improvement in general health, and particularly by diminishing the liability to relapse when the patient goes back to ordinary methods of life.

Another way in which it has been suggested that tuberculin can be given is by what is known as autoinoculation. If a patient with tuberculosis takes physical exercise and does physical work it has been shown that there is produced a reaction in the blood due to the absorption of the poison from the diseased area. This poison, to all intents and purposes, corresponds to the artificial tuberculin.

Dr. Patterson of Frimley, England, devised a method by which the work or exercise of his patients should be very carefully graduated and the reactions checked up by careful blood examinations. In this way a system of controlling the amount of poison liberated into the blood was developed, that is, autoinoculation was controlled, and tuberculin treatment was in that way carried out without the necessity of the hypodermic injections of the artificial tuberculin.

This method is now in use in a number of places and good results have been reported. It must be said, however, that many conservative physicians consider this method of treatment somewhat dangerous as it is not easy to absolutely control the amount of autoinoculation. In any event this method should never be carried out excepting where patients are under the very strict supervision of expert physicians.

The results reported from this method are very similar to those reported by the use of injections of tuberculin, and the type of cases in which it is employed is the same.

In the past few years laboratory investigations looking toward the cure of tuberculosis are beginning to be more in the direction of finding some chemical agent which will act directly upon the germ without doing harm to the tissues of the body. The brilliant results which have attended experiments in this field are "Chemotherapy." In other diseases, notably syphilis, the results lead us to hope that the future has something in store along these lines for the treatment of tuberculosis also.

Certain it is that, in the tuberculin and other similar methods of treatment designed to act favorably in tuberculosis by influencing the resistance or immunity to the disease, we have a very limited field of usefulness.

In the first place, as we have seen,

the cases which are suitable for this treatment are but a small proportion of all. Secondly, the amount of increased resistance obtained is relative and not absolute. It is therefore to be hoped that the newer field of "Chemotherapy" may have something better to offer.

In summarizing the present status of tuberculin in the treatment of tuberculosis we may say:

First—That a method has been devised by very small and gradually increasing doses by which no harm can result, provided only suitable cases are selected.

Second—That considerable clinical evidence exists showing that in such suitable cases tuberculin helps the patients to improve, and also makes their improvement more permanent.

Third—That any increased resistance of immunity to tuberculosis, which tuberculin treatment may produce, is quite limited.

Fourth—That tuberculin is in no sense a cure for tuberculosis, but is simply an aid to the other generally accepted methods of treatment, such as good food, fresh air and the proper regulation of rest and exercise.

A NEW UNIT IN MEDICAL SOCIAL SERVICE—BY DANIEL MORTON, M. D., ST. JOSEPH, MO.

BETWEEN THE METHODS of the doctor of today and those of his predecessor of a quarter of a century the contrast is great. The practice of medicine and surgery has been completely revolutionized by the application to medical research of the inductive method, as well as by the appropriation from biology, chemistry and physics of discoveries applicable to the prevention and relief of disease, and to the prolongation of human life.

The practice of medicine is today an applied science drawing upon every field of human knowledge for facts that may prove useful. The principles of laboratory investigation used in the physical sciences have been applied to the problems of health and disease. Out of this condition of affairs has come the medical laboratory with a necessary division of labor in medical practice, one physician confining himself to the execution of laboratory methods, another to the application of their results in actual practice. No longer may one man cover both fields.

It is the function of the Medical Laboratory to study by all known scientific methods, the solids, the fluids and the parasites of the human body and to relate the information thus gained to the diagnosis, cause, relief, cure and prevention of disease.

The part which the medical laboratory plays as a factor in the community for the conservation of human life and efficiency is therefore paramount and fundamental. Upon it the whole superstructure of scientific practice is built, it matters not whether that practice is in hospital, in home, in city, in town, in country.

For this essential aid, both people and doctors must depend upon a central medical laboratory located with reference to tributary country, and to rapid and efficient communication by rural route, parcel post, automobile and telephone. Here may be sent for analysis all the specimens from the sick, telephone reports on the findings being made to the doctor in attendance. It thus becomes a clearing-house for pathological specimens. The doctor adds the information thus obtained in the medical laboratory to that which he has himself obtained by a study of the patient.

Thus located it may supply the need to all the inhabitants living in the geo-

graphical and trade zone of its home city.

In the scheme of medical social service, the laboratory should be an independent factor having a physical plant of its own supported by endowment, donation, and fees, and conducted by a board of trustees. It should not be an adjunct to a hospital, but an essential unit of coequal or greater importance. It should not be a private agent for the commercial exploitation of medical knowledge with no thought of its social relation to the community.

In the medical laboratory there is always the possibility of bringing to light some unknown medical truth that will be a boon to a suffering world. It is here that the problems of tuberculosis and of cancer will finally be solved. The work constantly broadens the horizon of medical knowledge. It is, therefore, essential to progress. "Investigation and practice are thus one in spirit, method and object" (Flexner).

Heretofore the hospital has been looked upon as the great material agent for the improvement of medical knowledge. Hence endowed hospitals abound on all sides. What is the present day condition? The medical laboratory is the fundamental agent for advancement in the fields of medical research, of preventive medicine, and of curative medicine. It is therefore, far and away, more important than the hospital. In the field of curative medicine alone it may be made to reach a larger number of sick. Ninety per cent of all the sick are found in the homes of the land, only ten per cent in the hospitals.

In the hospital the direct benefits are confined to the sick coming within its walls. The medical laboratory may be made to benefit not only those within the walls of the hospital but it may reach the suffering in the homes of the entire territory tributary to the city in which it is located, the ninety per cent. Thus the benefits of modern medical science may be carried to the patient on the distant farm, sick at home.

No field of medical social service for humanity offers greater returns for money invested than the medical laboratory. No method of foundation is better than endowment.

When trustees are named to carry out bequests of this nature they are usually chosen with exclusive reference to abil-

ity as business men. It would seem, however, that the ideal board of trustees of a medical laboratory should be composed of men, some of whom are financiers, but others of whom are men having a personal knowledge of the work to be done as the result of lives devoted to it, physicians and social workers.

Thus would be insured a comprehensive survey of this type of social service, the very nature of which requires special technical knowledge in the three branches of human endeavor—medicine, sociology and business. Co-operative endowment offers another method for financing medical laboratories and affords opportunity for investigation and discussion before investment. The best example of this type is that of church foundation with the membership as a permanent financial asset upon which to draw for support.

Twenty-five thousand dollars would be sufficient to establish a clinical medical laboratory in a community of one hundred thousand population having a tributary territory of four hundred thousand additional people. Its demonstrated usefulness would result in the acquirement of a physical plant and an endowment.

No other material agency will do as much to provide adequate medical service in the home, the most important unit of society.

BOSTON BABY WELFARE COMMITTEE

AS A RESULT of a conference called last June by the Milk and Baby Hygiene Association of Boston, there was organized a co-operative committee of the chief agencies in Boston dealing with babies. The purpose of the committee has been to study the field of welfare work for babies in Boston with a view to finding gaps, suggesting means of filling them, and stimulating effort toward preventing duplication and toward meeting unmet needs. The results accomplished during the first six months were of such moment that the committee, which was formed at first only for the summer, has been continued, and may possibly be permanent.

The early studies of the committee pointed to a general demand for convalescent homes. As a result of the committee's work, the State Board of Charity has undertaken an investigation of this subject with a view to ultimate authoritative report.

The committee last summer printed and circulated widely a list of all the medical and non-medical agencies in the city that might be called on for aid for babies. The committee will work for proper health appropriations in the budget of the city which comes up in February.

NEWTON MEMORIAL HOSPITAL

Through a bequest of Elizabeth M. Newton, Chautauqua County, N. Y., will have a hospital for tuberculosis. A site is yet to be chosen. The bequest includes funds for building and maintenance. Management is given to the County of Chautauqua.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

SAGAMORE—AN OPEN FORUM OF PEACE AND GOOD WILL—BY WARREN DUNHAM FOSTER

TWO HUNDRED PEOPLE spent three days together in a little Massachusetts village. They talked informally about the race problem. The addresses were no more informing than many others by the same and other great leaders. The program committee sat together for a few hours and produced a set of resolutions no more brilliant than the smoking lamp by the aid of which they were finally written.

Why, then, is the meeting absolutely unique? Why does it have a distinctive power in this land of the free-discussion and home of the brave convention-trotter?

The answer is twofold.

First, the Sagamore Sociological Conference is a real meeting of real minds. The discussions discuss. No speaker has an audience as an audience is commonly considered. Every one speaks to his peers, who, the next moment, will speak. And woe is he, if his thinking has not been clear. The spirit of Sagamore is the spirit of the Ford Hall Meetings. That the Sagamore meetings are made up of the leaders, titular and real, of the social world and that the Ford Hall Meetings are made up of dwellers of the North and West Ends makes no whit of difference.

Second, George W. Coleman, the originator, president, and chief host of the conference has given to it the tone that makes it of genuine usefulness in a world deafened by superficial, cut-and-dried, heart-ignoring discussion.

The conference, with Dr. Riley of Alabama, decided that the Negro wants and should have a hook, not a fish; with the colored clergyman of Springfield, Mass., that he should have a man's chance, no more, no less; with the calm, sane, A. Caswell Ellis of Texas, that the Negro in the South is a brother and a problem; with Dr. Griffis that to the thoughtful man, there is no East, no West; with Professor Evans that every man should be proud of his race but much prouder that he is a human being; with Freda Rogolski that her Christian neighbor going to church and she going to the synagog are taking the same road—the road of righteousness.

When Dr. Schmidt proved that there is no such thing as the Jewish race or the Anglo-Saxon, his fellow speakers applauded. When Dr. Loeb insisted that biology had no word to offer against the intermarriage of the races, two hundred men and women listened in respectful and interested silence. As in all cases, however, they were interested in the statement, not the eminence of the man who made it.

THE TIME:

Now—the moment before the breaking of world blood madness.

THE PLACE:

Rose-covered sand dunes blown by the winds of Cape Cod Bay.

THE PEOPLE:

Jew, Gentile; Negro, Caucasian; Oriental, European; Southerner, Northerner; leaders Here and There; plain people, all; hard-thinking, soft-hearted; citizens of a world-republic, one-God-ruled.

THE RESULT:

Knowledge, insight, persecution, scholarship, experience, fused by vigorous, free discussion, by warm friendliness, into an intelligent body of common understanding—race sympathy substituted for race antagonism.

THE CAPTION:

Eighth Annual Sagamore Sociological Conference.

Two tangible movements were stressed at Sagamore.

A committee is at work to determine whether or not Sagamore Beach shall be made a permanent home for sociological meetings. If a sufficient national need is found, at the little village by the bay there will be erected the buildings to accommodate, throughout the summer, the various organizations concerned with social work, that wish a meeting place away from city distractions yet accessible. Since the parent Sagamore Conference has now outgrown the facilities at hand, either enlargement or abandonment is necessary. Already several organizations have responded enthusiastically to the idea. The headquarters of the committee canvassing the situation, of which the writer happens to be chairman, are at 41 Huntington avenue, Boston.

Following the Sociological Conference, one hundred and fifty clear-thinking, result-accomplishing leaders, each giving himself aggressively to the task of showing to all men God at work in the world, came together to discuss methods for forwarding and perfecting open forums. Clergymen and laymen gave reports which showed that from one end of the nation to the other open forums are in efficient operation, bringing the unchurched to the church and making the church a still greater power

for righteousness, here and now, in the common life. These reports demonstrated conclusively that the vast ethical and spiritual forces lying just outside the church are dynamic-charged for civic betterment, and that the right-to-talk-back, the particular discovery of the Open Forum, is as effective psychologically as it is democratically.

Although no attempt was made to define the purpose of the Open Forum, or to standardize it, George W. Coleman, director of the Ford Hall Foundation, stated the consensus of the council's opinion when he said that the Open Forum exists to

Bring the church to the man who hates it—or thinks he does—and distrusts religion and everything tagged with that name.

Bring together opposite and extreme views.

Discuss those great social and economic questions often neglected by the church.

These purposes, the council discovered, are being carried out in many ways. Out of the many examples of successful forums in actual operation reported to the Council, the Ford Hall Foundation now has record of types of proved effectiveness sufficient to furnish specific precedent to almost any church under almost any circumstances.

Unique among the open forums reported is that conducted by the Rev. Julius F. Hecker, head of the Russian department, Settlement and Church of All Nations, Methodist Episcopal Church, New York city. Hundreds of Russian immigrants, taught by the Greek Orthodox Church of the nation whence they fled to hate all the name of religion, Mr. Hecker has brought within the institution which they thought they despised. How? By proving to them that the church is intelligently and aggressively interested in those problems that are crushing in upon them from every side.

An informal round table discussion of the practical questions threw much light upon the practical management of open forums. The main addresses range in time from twenty to ninety minutes; questions from the floor, answers from the speaker, and discussion from the floor, take from forty minutes to a period terminated by the sexton's convincing threat that if the audience doesn't go home he will turn out the lights. Addresses, it was thought, should be related definitely to community problems, even though under most circumstances questions of partizan politics and denominationalism should be excluded. In some forums, a distinctly ecclesiastical tone has been maintained; into others, nothing remotely suggesting the church routine has been allowed to

creep. All, however, have been fundamentally religious, in that they have powerfully furthered the Kingdom of God. Symposiums have proved valuable, but debates have been questionable. Questions from the floor should always be spoken, never written. Although questions must be restricted to the subject under discussion, the utmost freedom must prevail.

The conferences—the Sociological Conference and the Open Forum Coun-

cil—were notable in that they practiced what they preached. Southern white men, Negroes, Japanese, syndicalists, socialists, trade unionists, business men, conservative churchmen and radical churchmen—all sorts of real men and real women of the most widely divergent views—frankly discussed with perfect friendliness and without personal controversy the most controversial topics. Never was there a better example of the effectiveness of the open forum.

IMMIGRATION AND THE WORLD'S CONFERENCE OF THE Y. W. C. A.

WHEN PEOPLE from twenty-six different countries representing widely separated social points of view and many different expressions of the Christian religion, join together in a common expression of their common faith, it means progress. Less than a generation ago, such a meeting could not have happened. On June 14, during the Fifth Conference of the World's Young Women's Christian Association, the conference of 800 people joined in a united communion service in the old Cathedral of Stockholm.

The papers and discussions developed the fact that not only the "young countries" and European nations but the Near East and the Far East as well, are all actually at work upon the same great problems.

The general conference subject was the life of women today—in church, in home, in community, in nation. Under the title of Women's Life in the Community a three-sided discussion from Holland, Sweden and France brought out the fact that the social, and hence political, position of women is changing in every country. The speaker from France pointed out that this changed position is no new or sudden revolution but is one which has been silently in process for many years; that amongst some nations the movement has gone on more swiftly than in others; that today nations are presenting only different periods of the same universal process.

Each speaker in a different way make the point that this coming of women into the life of the world as "individuals" amongst individuals—in place of the old separation into a "class" by mere circumstance of being in one sex instead of the other—entails obligations, private and public, upon women, which under the old regime have not been recognized. At the same time the speakers made it clear that this change in position and equalizing of individual opportunity does not mean a wholesale change of occupation—that the foundation of society is still homes.

In different addresses during the conference, speakers gave the opinion that largely upon women rests the responsibility for spreading the accepted standard of personal morality known in all languages as the "single standard." Again and again, from speakers of different races, came condemnation of the modern barbarism called the "white slave traffic."

Emigration and immigration aroused intense interest because the subject had

These notes on a world-wide meeting of women at Stockholm were written and mailed from Russia three weeks before the outbreak of war by Mrs. Harry M. Bremer, in charge of immigration work for the National Board of the Y. W. C. A. in New York.

practical application to every country represented. Speakers from countries sending out emigrants—Russia, Finland, Sweden, Denmark, Germany, the Balkan States and Greece, Hungary and Italy—gave statistics of emigration, conditions inducing emigration, and efforts of governments and private agencies to counteract the general restlessness of the people and to protect those determined to move.

The countries which are receiving immigration—Egypt, Australia, Canada, South American, and the United States, were all represented except South America. From the composite view it developed that "the whole world is on the move;" that the newer countries which are receiving annually large numbers of foreign settlers represent only one phase of a world-wide phenomenon; that the movement is mainly amongst the youth of every nation; that although proportions have shifted in the past decade, the actual numbers annually on the move are increasing.

The governments of Germany, Denmark and Sweden do more than other countries for departing emigrants. Italy and Sweden do most to encourage would-be emigrants to stay at home. Russia does most in regard to internal emigration, which in her country is enormous. The United States both has the largest problem of arriving immigrants and does more than other newer countries for their protection and friendly assimilation, though Canada and the states of South America, Egypt and Australia are active.

A special session was called to consider how the World's Y. W. C. A., through national committees in each country, can do its share towards giving practical assistance to emigrating girls. The result was a plan by which the world's committee, from its headquarters in London, is to enlist the co-operation of the various national committees in compiling and distributing along main routes of migration, much needed information about countries through which

strangers pass en route to ships, and about laws and customs of strange countries to which they go.

The president's message sums up the social resolutions of the conference: "Movement and progress are the watchwords of the twentieth century, especially as regards women. The age of complacency, if ever there was one, is over. We must face present social conditions with courage if we are to stand for advance of womanhood. If we would have girls live good, pure lives we must make it possible for them to do so by striving with others to remove stumbling blocks of all kinds, including unsanitary conditions and inadequate wages. As an organization we must help to form a right public opinion on these matters. The time has come for national associations to be recognized by governments of their countries as strong powers working for righteousness."

The Hon. Mrs. Waldegrave of England was elected president to succeed Mrs. Tritton. The next conference will meet in Egypt in 1918.

JUST HOW THE INFANT WELFARE MOVEMENT STARTED

Dear Madam:

You ask for information as to "how the infant welfare movement started, and by whom."

It is difficult to make an unqualified statement on this subject for the reason that the recently discovered Babylonian inscriptions have not yet been fully deciphered but, so far as the record goes, I understand that the infant welfare movement started soon after the closing of the Garden of Eden and was carried on with unequal success in the first two cases. There is a record of a successful effort to save a difficult case by Hagar in the wilderness.

The first definite study of eugenics is believed to have been made by the Hebrew breeders association, under the leadership of Jacob, who discovered that the laws of heredity were not infallible in that even twins displayed the most unequal development.

The founder of modern methods in dealing with foundlings was her Royal Highness, the Daughter of Pharaoh, who originated the method of boarding out babies in family homes. She made her selection with great discrimination and the results were highly satisfactory.

King Solomon made some discriminating studies of the matter of maternal instinct and parental affection resulting in the conclusion, which has been confirmed by some recent experiments, that the mother should be allowed to bring up her own child when practicable. This is doubtless the origin of the mothers' pension movement.

King Herod made some interesting studies in the matter of infant mortality, from which it appears that in some cases the mortality of infants in Palestine ran as high as 66 2-3 per cent. This gratifying record, however, was excelled by some of the institutions of the nineteenth century which succeeded in getting the rate up to 90 per cent and, in some cases, even to 100 per cent.



FIRE DRILL AT THE CHILDREN'S VILLAGE

Probably the hose cart is the most popular piece of equipment at the Children's Village of the New York Juvenile Asylum at Chauncey. The boys not only man it, but draw it, two abreast, after the very best traditions of all volunteer fire departments. The directors of the juvenile asylum, which is one of the model cottage in-

stitutions of the country, have made a strong plea for larger city appropriations for school and shop work. They state in their report that while the city appropriates \$15 a year for the education of these delinquent and dependent boys, the per capita cost for children in the public schools is about \$47.

Some scientists have maintained that the law of natural selection and the survival of the fittest would preserve the virility of the race and would ultimately eliminate its weaker elements. The Spartans, however, held that the law of natural selection should be supplemented by artificial selection. They adopted the plan of exposing unpromising infants on the mountain tops where only those of extraordinary vitality survived. The modern Hindus and Chinese, perhaps owing to sentimental prejudices, have adopted the milder methods of drowning and suffocation, but there are sanitary reasons which might perhaps lead to a preference for the Spartan plan.

The question of a reliable milk supply has received a great deal of attention. It is now generally agreed that the wet nursing plan is to be preferred. The efficacy of this plan was demonstrated in the case of Romulus and Remus, and has been confirmed by the Italian method of driving goats from house to house and insuring the purity of the supply by allowing the infant to take it direct from the original source.

Babies' welfare! It has been studied from time immemorial and, in our day, we have come back to the original principles that have been advocated for ages: healthy parents; a natural wholesome life for the mother with simple

nutritious diet; breast feeding; cleanliness; mothering; outdoor air; watch, care and advice from the best outside sources available.

What is now called the babies' welfare movement, was started I think by C. F. Powlison, who is now secretary of the National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, when he originated the New York Child Welfare Exhibit. It is being carried on by various babies' welfare organizations and is being promoted largely through child welfare exhibits.

I am requesting the following named organizations to send you their literature:

The Philadelphia Baby-saving Show.
The Babies' Welfare Association of New York city.

Division of Child Hygiene, Department of Health of the City of New York.

The New York Diet Kitchen Association.

Yours very truly,
HASTINGS H. HART.

Director, Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation.

BOSTON SCHOOL FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

THE BOSTON School for Social Workers, in June, gave certificates to 43 students for satisfactory completion of the first year program. Also, one

senior in Simmons college who completed that program with a course in psychology and sociology received from the college the degree of Bachelor of Science in social work. Several men received credit in Harvard for work done in the school.

Seven students completed the second year program, four specializing in medical social service and three in organizing charity. Two were men. Five of the seven had completed the first year program, one coming back after a year of work in the field; another was a graduate of the St. Louis School of Social Economy; another came after ten years of social work. One of the women specializing in medical social service, a college A. B., received the degree of Master of Science in Simmons college for the second year work with a course in biology at the college.

Three graduate nurses completed a special course for visiting, public health nursing, arranged in co-operation with the Instructive District Nursing Association of Boston; twenty men and women completed partial courses in organizing charity and neighborhood work; beside attendance on a special course in recreation and an extension course in social aspects of medicine.

For the past year or two the practice work required of every student has been carefully selected and supervised with

reference to individual needs. It now occupies one-third of the first year program, and two-thirds of the second year, built upon that of the first year and arranged in educational progression.

The social service library placed in the school building has been a great help to students, as well as to social workers.

BORROWING DISCOURAGED BY LOAN SOCIETIES

IT WAS EVIDENT that most of the twenty-four societies represented at the sixth annual convention of the National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, held in Philadelphia in July, are attempting with considerable success to discourage unnecessary borrowing and to enable their clients to put themselves beyond the need for small loans. It was also apparent that some of the societies have not yet fully realized the social possibilities of their work.

At the close of its fifth year the membership of the federation has increased from 13 to 35 with a score of additional societies in process of organization. One of these is the Remedial Loan Society of Philadelphia, which was fostered by the executives of fifteen leading social organizations. Though the required capital has been secured, operations have been deferred for a time as the result of an adverse court decision involving the constitutionality of the Pennsylvania law regulating small loans. The early organization of a society in Dayton is expected. Its formation is being accomplished through the combined efforts of Dr. Garland, the city Director of Welfare, and the Greater Dayton Association.

The following officers were elected: chairman, Charles H. Brown, Jr., Buffalo; secretary-treasurer, R. R. Stevens, New York.

ST. LOUIS SCHOOL OF SOCIAL ECONOMY

THE ST. LOUIS School of Social Economy completed its seventh and most successful year in June, graduating twenty-eight regular students, eight of whom took master's degrees in Washington University. The largest previous number of students graduated in one year was fourteen in 1913. Graduates of the school are rapidly taking positions in social work in Saint Louis and throughout the state.

The number of students taking a full year's work in the school increased from thirty-nine in 1913 to sixty-five during the past year. Most of the students are from Saint Louis. A regular staff of four and two special lecturers handled the three departments of the school work—instruction, practice work and research. The instruction covered the usual fields in social work and for the first time included a course in civic problems.

The practice work brings practically all the students in direct touch with the case work of the leading public and private social agencies.

The research department, which is supported by a grant from the Russell Sage Foundation, has conducted a num-

ber of investigations which have been put to almost immediate practical effect. The investigation into industrial conditions among Negroes, the first of its kind in the Middle West, is being published in book form. Pamphlets have been issued on Prenatal Care and on the Saint Louis Newsboy. An investigation has been made by the school for the State Minimum Wage Commission. It is expected that the material will be published by the commission.

Although the amount of money contributed by the Russell Sage Foundation is being gradually decreased, as in the case of other schools for social workers, Washington University, of which the school is a department, is responding to its need. The school will be maintained next year in a new downtown location. George B. Mangold, the director, is planning to extend the work during the coming year in view of the adoption of a new city charter with a merit system which offers larger opportunities for public service.

DEFECTIVES AND STATE BOARDS

It is the exception when a recent report of a state board of charities fails to lay special emphasis on the needs of defectives. A particularly interesting instance is offered in the last report of the State Board of Charities of Virginia. This shows some very careful investigations and pertinent recommendations, especially as to the defective-delinquent.

The board has been making use of the Binet-Simon measuring scale and has had the inmates of several reformatories, orphan asylums and public schools tested, with results that are even more striking than common. A large majority of the children in the reformatories have been found to be from 4 to 11 years backward.

THE CREED OF THE BOSTON MUSIC SCHOOL SETTLEMENT

THE Boston Music School Settlement believes:

In art for the masses; in giving children and adults an opportunity to learn, play and hear the masterpieces of music.

In the development of individual and social resources through music.

In the development of artistic talent in children of limited opportunity.

In the value of education in music as a strong defense against the degrading pleasures and interests which abound in the congested districts of cities.

IN the spirit of social service which stands for the encouragement of what is best in children and adults without distinction of class, race, color, or creed; for the multiplication of opportunities to improve personal character and capacity, and for the promotion of intelligent and effective citizenship.

The tests of the public schools were conducted in the 4a grades at Richmond. The white children show a slightly higher percentage of feeble-mindedness, and almost exactly the same percentage of retardation as the colored.

The report states that there are at least 6,000 persons in the state "who, while physically mature, are as deficient in essential mental qualities—such as perception, judgment and will power—as little children." Its conclusion on the feeble-minded is that "so far as modern investigation enables us to see, the most pressing social need of our time is the segregation of the feeble-minded."

REFORMATORY SELF-GOVERNMENT

The movement to test the self-governing capacity of law-breakers is spreading. A council was elected recently by the inmates of the New Jersey Reformatory at Rahway, of which Frank Moore is superintendent. Each tier elected two members to the council, making a body of twenty-eight representatives. The purposes of the council are to try to have each boy "keep perfect order, live strictly up to the rules of the institution, reduce the number of reports and when paroled to make good." Weekly meetings are held and suggestions from inmates for the benefit of their fellows are considered.

DRAMATIC LEAGUE

Fifty-four clubs of young people from ten to twenty-six years of age participated in the work of the Educational Dramatic League in New York during its first year, recently closed, according to a statement issued by the league. The purpose of this organization is to promote in public schools, social centers, settlements, churches and other agencies, amateur dramatic performances having an educational value.

The league selected a play to be given by all the clubs who were members and awarded a prize to the club giving the best performance.

MOTHERS' PENSIONS

The act creating the mothers' assistance fund in Pennsylvania was approved in April, 1913, but because of delays in putting it into operation the first family received assistance in February, 1914. 1,369 applications were received up to the close of the fiscal year, May 31. Of this number, 431 were set aside as not suitable. Of the remaining 938 families, 759 were registered with the Registration Bureau and 578, or 67 per cent, were identified as being known to other charitable agencies. At present, seventy-seven families are beneficiaries of this fund, and the total expenditure for allowances alone was \$5,157. The average grant per family, per month, is \$22.

The work of the commission has been handicapped by the small appropriation, about \$3,000, for office and investigating expenses. The amount of money available for pension purposes was much greater than the amount expended, but the commission was unwilling to grant assistance except after competent investigation.

Communications

SPEAKERS WANTED

TO THE EDITOR: The Missouri State Conference of Charities and Correction is going to meet in Springfield, Mo., November 8-9-10. May I ask through THE SURVEY that social workers of prominence, particularly those accustomed to public speaking, communicate with me if they intend, about the time of the conference, to be anywhere near our state. We would like to make arrangements to have them address the conference.

OSCAR LEONARD.

[Secretary State Conference]

901 Carr St., St. Louis.

SAFE

TO THE EDITOR: I herewith enclose you a clipping from the Detroit *Evening News* of July 4, that interested while it amused me. I could not help but admire the picturesque description of the "Sane Fourth Celebration," upon which there was such a "small damage list" of several fires, several people burned by fireworks, and one boy with three fingers burned off the left hand by an explosion of a home-made cannon-cracker—all taking place before 11 o'clock on the morning of the Fourth. How many people were injured and how many fires took place after that time, I have not noted; but I feel I would be doing the "Sane Fourth" idea a poor service if I did not indicate how Detroit interprets the idea.

LOUIS WOLSEY.

[Rabbi, Euclid Avenue Temple]
Cleveland.

KANSAS CITY NEGROES

TO THE EDITOR: On the hottest Sunday in the year, representatives of the eight Negro charities endorsed by the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare, met in a colored church to plan their money raising campaign. They have united under the title of Federation of Colored Charities. About half of the members of the board are white, and the arrangement is that the colored people are to raise \$2,500 and the white \$5,000 to carry on their work. This will give money enough to standardize their day nurseries and homes and their new hospital.

It has given the white people a chance to find how very little they were doing for the 30,000 colored in their midst. They were contributing less than \$1,000 a year to all these charities and their largest contributor died last year. The white membership of the board is a guarantee that the money is to be used correctly and the leaflet circulated describes each society and its particular work. The funds are to be divided according to the needs. Each society

stated the sum which would be wanted to carry it through the year. These were added together to make the total.

Aside from the charities the colored people have other reasons for rejoicing—the \$100,000 Y. M. C. A. building, toward which Julius Rosenwald of Chicago gave \$25,000, is almost completed, and after twenty-six years of watchful waiting by T. R. Coles, principal of the Garrison School, has seen a public bath house completed for the colored people. It contains an auditorium, gymnasium, branch library station and club rooms. It is located on Garrison Square, one of two public playgrounds for colored children in the city.

EDITH M. CRUISE.

[Board of Public Welfare]
Kansas City.

CONVICT LABORATORY

TO THE EDITOR: Your issue of July 25 contains an interesting letter from Dorothy Straus in which she comments on an article of mine published April 11, outlining some of the phases of prison reform which will be undertaken by the National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor.

Miss Straus urges that, in addition, the National Committee should "begin a concerted effort to establish a laboratory for statistical and psychological research."

The committee has already undertaken work of this nature, having organized a sub-committee on the social hygiene of the prisoner, which will endeavor to create on the part of prison officials and the public at large a realization of the urgent need of the study of the individual prisoner, mentally and physically, in order to determine the elements which have combined to cause his failure in life and the methods which will tend towards his rehabilitation.

This committee will also act as a clearing-house to afford information as to the most approved methods of carrying on such study and the results obtained therefrom. We have been fortunate in the acceptance by James Bronson Reynolds of the chairmanship of this Social Hygiene Committee. Mr. Reynolds will be assisted by Mrs. E. C. Bodman as vice-chairman; while the membership of the committee already includes Katharine B. Davis, New York city commissioner of correction; Dr. Guibord and Miss Robinson of the Bedford laboratory; Dr. von Kleinsmid of the Indiana Reformatory; Prof. Stephenson Smith of the University of Washington; Dr. Goddard and Dr. Johnstone of the Vineland Training School; Frank Moore of the New Jersey Reformatory and Dr. Harriet Noble, of Brooklyn.

The initial work of this committee

is well in hand, and progress will be reported in a series of pamphlets published by the committee.

ADOLPH LEWISOHN.

[Chairman, Executive Committee]
New York.

FRESH AIR HOMES

TO THE EDITOR: In answer to my advertisement in the columns of THE SURVEY on June 13, for an assistant in a fresh air home for children, it has been of great interest to read the earnest and enthusiastic letters from over twenty-five young women from the North, South, East and West. Grasping the feeling of the day, that in the children lies the hope of the good results of the purity movement so vital in the progressive mind, these young women are alive to the fact that there is work to do, and for one position to be filled there are a score and more young women who have to await further opportunity.

Social workers are anxious to get the children out of the congested city. It has been found a hard proposition to move families. They would rather huddle together, six or seven in a room, than to miss the clatter and lights and excitement of the pavements.

It seems one way to move parts of these families, at least, is to make it possible for every child to spend a few weeks in the country every summer, and little by little fill that child with the joy of country life so that by degrees he will influence his family, or part of it, to share the life permanently.

The great trouble with the fresh air homes today is they are not large or numerous enough to give extended visits to the children. One or two weeks is about the limit to a limited number.

A whole summer with a child in a garden would nine times out of ten create in that child a love for the beautiful in nature, a love for his own body and soul created in the image of God, and a desire to keep them clean and pure for the glory of God and for the generations to follow.

RUTH FULLER FIELD.

[The Incarnation Fresh Air and Convalescent Home]
Lake Mohegan, N. Y.

CHILDREN'S PLAYS

TO THE EDITOR: What is needed for the furtherance of the children's play movement:

A higher and more imaginative standard in plays throughout the country.

Greater care and knowledge used in play production as regards simple scenery, costumes and properties.

A wider use of the school auditorium as a benefit to the community.

The use of plays in country schools as related not only to the school, but to the life of the community.

The utilization of material at hand, such as open-air plays on the common or village green instead of in a stuffy schoolroom. The use of unoccupied barns for children's community theaters in summer, of the town hall for the same purpose in winter.

A greater interchange between public

school, social settlement, church guild and social center. In the children's play movement there is already discernable a certain waste of effort and of art. A children's play is made to serve one purpose when it ought to serve ten. Usually a play is given once or twice in a settlement or school, and there is an end of it.

What could be done is this: the play might be given in the school before an audience of children, then before an audience of fathers and mothers. Then it might be taken to the nearest settlement and repeated there, to the nearest church guild and repeated there. What about other places to which it might be giving joy? What about homes for the aged? What about orphan asylums? Children's wards in hospitals? What about utilizing a hall in or near a factory? The play movement is doing a great deal, but not half what it might. The children in district X, to the settlement in district X, and to the school in district X. Why not interchange with their plays?

The social settlements of Boston interchange plays and players with splendid results. All the thought and effort that goes to the directing of a play might be made to serve a number of communities instead of one, and much social waste could be avoided. Interchange in the large cities would do a great deal towards drawing the vast conglomerate mass together.

It is a pity that a simple outdoor stage, such as is used in Palermo and other Italian cities, could not be utilized in tenement districts. It somewhat resembles the floats that were used in mediaeval miracle plays and pageants, only it is smaller, and has two screens for wings. This stage could be set up in a city street and plays could thus be acted out of doors.

CONSTANCE D'ARCY MACKAY.
Shirley Center, Mass.

SAID OF THE SURVEY

TO THE EDITOR: THE SURVEY has been my companion ever since I became aware of its existence, and have learned from it much more than from a good many college text books on political economy and sociology.

ELIAS POWELL.
Madison, Wis.

JOTTINGS

The Chicago Hebrew Institute recently opened the first penny-a-glass milk station in Chicago. It not only sells pasteurized milk but goes the Straus milk depots in New York one better by a package of six crackers for a second penny.

Thanks to the Women's Municipal League of Boston, the Legislature has passed and the governor signed a bill providing that no basement or cellar room shall be occupied for living purposes unless it is at least 8½ feet high in every part, has at least one window on open space, that the floor and walls are damp-proof, and that it is at least 60 per cent above the level of the highest ground within fifteen feet of the outside

wall. This bill is to take effect October 1.

The temporary committee of women organized to secure representation in the New York state constitutional convention has nominated four social workers: Lillian D. Wald, of the Nurses' Settlement; Katharine B. Davis, New York city commissioner of correction; Josephine Goldmark, of the National Consumers' League; and Frances A. Kellor, of the North American Civic League for Immigrants.

INDUSTRY

[Continued from page 502.]

the early threats of impeachment. With Francis Cullen, a Watertown lawyer, he controls the Cullen-Fitzgibbons faction in the Democratic organization of Oswego and Jefferson counties.

Deputy Workmen's Compensation Commission. Cyrus W. Phillips, Rochester. Appointed by the commission, salary \$4,000.

Republican assemblyman from Monroe county. Has made a study of compensation legislation and introduced many bills improving the employers' liability act. Member Employers' Liability Commission appointed by Governor Hughes, 1909. Member New York State Factory Investigating Commission, 1911. Chairman National Civic Federation's joint commission on the operation of state workmen's compensation laws. In 1913 a member of the Joint Judiciary Committee which exonerated Supreme Court Justice Cohan from charges of bribery preferred against him by his former business associate, John Conolly, though the charges had been confirmed by a report of the grievance committee of the Bar Association. For six months chairman Assembly judiciary committee, 1914.

Deputy Commissioner Workmen's Compensation Commission. George W. Batten, Lockport, N. Y. Appointed by the commission, salary \$4,000.

Deputy state treasurer 1911-1913 under John J. Kennedy who committed suicide when summoned to appear before the grand jury as a witness in the highways' graft investigation. At the joint legislative session called to elect a new state treasurer it is reported that the Democrats offered to supply enough votes to the Progressives to elect Homer Call (Progressive), provided the Progressives would agree to retain George Batten. Call admitted he would not discharge any Democrats under him unless convinced they were incompetent. Later, on account of public protest, an ultimatum from a Progressive conference in New York was sent to Call that he get rid of Batten. A chronic office holder. Boss of the Democratic party in Niagara county. Oldest member Democratic State Committee. Charged with working for Hearst in 1906, for Murphy in 1908 and against the Hughes anti-public-betting and racetrack bills. In 1909 made an appraiser on the Catskill Aqueduct Commission at \$50 a day. In connection with this the New York

World, December 18, 1909, states: "George W. Batten a Democratic state committeeman, who is on the commission, by the grace, it is believed of 'Fingy' Connors, put in a bill of \$580 expenses with his last report. Every time Mr. Batten attends a meeting he has to travel from Lockport and usually a whole day (\$50) is spend making the trip."

Deputy Commissioner Workmen's Compensation Commission. Lester Fisher, Rochester. Appointed by the commission, salary \$4,000.

For 23 years connected with the Eastman Kodak Company. Head of the billing department.

Deputy Commissioner Workmen's Compensation Commission. Edwin L. Storms, Dobbs Ferry. Appointed by the commission, salary \$4,000.

Candidate for Senator in Westchester county against J. Mayhew Wainwright, 1910, on Independence League (Hearst) ticket. The New York Evening Post, November 4, 1910, describes him as follows: "Real estate appraiser, high school education, an independent in politics, commissioner of public works in Dobbs Ferry for two years, active in the labor movement, advocates electric lights on all state roads in the county at state's expense, money to be taken from auto tax fund. Thoroughly unfit candidate." The New York American (Hearst) states: "A splendid type of independent politician. Made good as commissioner of public works." Secretary of the Laborist Protective Union, Dobbs Ferry. In the real estate and auctioneering business.

Deputy Commissioner Workmen's Compensation Commission. Thomas Fitzgerald, Albany. Appointed by the commission, salary \$4,000.

Chairman legislative committee New York State Federation of Labor and labor union lobbyist at Albany. President State Council Allied Printing Trades.

Secretary State Insurance Fund. F. Spencer Baldwin. Appointed by the Workmen's Compensation Commission, salary \$6,000.

Dean of Boston College of Business Administration, professor of political economy at Boston University, chairman of the Boston City Statistical Department and secretary of the Massachusetts Old Age Pension Committee. Selected on merit from 150 applicants.

Chief Actuary. Joseph H. Woodward. Appointed by the Workmen's Compensation Commission, salary \$6,000.

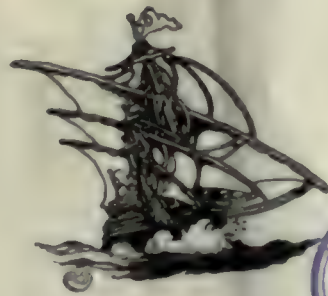
In the State Insurance Department since 1908. A graduate of the Sheffield Scientific School 1893. Member of the council of the Actuarial Society of New York.

Chief of Bureau of Claims. Daniel Goulden, New York city. Appointed by the Workmen's Compensation Commission, salary \$4,000.

Murphy Democrat who led a primary fight against Ross Williams, anti-Murphy leader of the 17th Assembly district in Manhattan.

p. 9

THE SURVEY



The American Red Cross at the Front

Through Routes for Chicago's
Steam Railroads

"Tom Brown" at Auburn

Liability-at-Sea

SURVEY ASSOCIATES

PUBLICATION OFFICE
105 East 22d Street
New York

INCORPORATED

Robert W. deForest, President
Arthur P. Kellogg, Secretary Frank Tucker, Treasurer

WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 21

Contents

August 22, 1914.

THE COMMON WELFARE

MRS WILSON'S DEATH AND WASHINGTON'S ALLEYS	515
THE AMERICAN RED CROSS AT THE FRONT	515
PLANNING RURAL PROGRESS IN MASSACHUSETTS	516
TEN BILLS READY FOR THE MISSOURI LEGISLATURE	516
A PAGE OF PHOTOGRAPHS, BY LEWIS W. HINE	517
AN ANTI-WAR DEMONSTRATION IN PARIS AS SEEN BY A BROOKLYN SOCIAL WORKER	518

CIVICS

THROUGH ROUTES FOR CHICAGO'S STEAM RAILROADS	Sylvester Baxter	519
FRESH FISH FOR SALE BY UNCLE SAM		520
SEATTLE COMPETING WITH ALLADIN		521
ONE SQUARE FOOT OF PLAYGROUND PER CHILD		521

INDUSTRY

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY BY LAND AND SEA	James Wesley Bryan	522
THE ARMIES OF THE UNEMPLOYED IN CALIFORNIA	E. Guy Talbott	523

HEALTH

WESTERN MEDICINE IN EASTERN LANDS—A NOTE ON MODERN TENDENCIES		525
"SICK CLUBS" CO-OPERATIVE MEDICAL SERVICE	R. A. Allen, M. D.	526
A VERDICT ON MEDICAL PUBLICITY		527

SOCIAL AGENCIES

TOM BROWN AT AUBURN—A BOOK ON THE INSIDE OF A PRISON	Hastings H. Hart	528
--	------------------	-----

FINGER PRINTS

A NARROW SQUEAK	Theodore C. Merrill, M. D.	531
JOHN, FINANCIER	Mary June Woods	531

PERSONALS

JOTTINGS		532
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CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES		533
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The GIST of IT—

AFTER years of effective work following earthquake, fire and flood, the American Red Cross is called upon for war service. Mr. deForest, vice president, is in charge at London. Mr. Bicknell, national director, is crossing. Miss Boardman is holding the fort at Washington. Funds are wanted. A relief ship and the gruesome paraphernalia of field surgery will be sent. Page 515.

JAMES JENKINS, first of many traveling social workers to reach home, witnessed an anti-war demonstration in Paris and saw some clever police work in handling a mob without clubs. Page 518.

WHILE Mrs. Wilson lay dying the Senate rushed through an alley bill—but a makeshift bill and not the constructive measure the President's wife had worked so hard for. But alley legislation has been measurably set forward by her activity. Page 515.

DOCTOR HART finds Thomas Mott Osborne's book based on a week of voluntary servitude at Auburn Prison "a remarkable study of the mind of the convict." Page 528.

GIVEN through routes, Chicago's steam railroads could tremendously increase and simplify the city's travel. The big La Salle street terminal, seen in perspective in the City Club's report, is a monstrous development of the village hitching rail. Page 519.

FRESH fish is to be sold retail as well as wholesale at the Washington municipal market—a sturdy blow at the high cost of living. Page 520.

SEATTLE reports its municipal lighting plant a great success. Page 521.

THE Greenwich village section of New York is figuring on how to squeeze 24,000 children on 16,000 square feet of playground. Page 521.

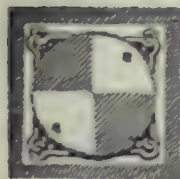
MEDICAL missionaries, schools and a growing number of native physicians trained in western ways are gradually working out the health problems of China. After Siamese doctors have banished the native practice of sleeping on a package of "medicine" for gunshot wounds, perhaps they will prescribe for the Americans who carry a rabbit's foot or wear a lead ring for rheumatism. Page 525.

THE "sick club" of a mining town in Washington promises to be the forerunner of a movement similar to that of the English Friendly Societies. Page 526.

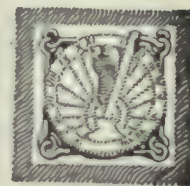
CONGRESSMAN BRYAN campaigning for a federal liability law on the high seas. Page 522.

TURNING on the fire hose and cracking heads will neither cure unemployment nor permanently muster out the unruly "armies" of the unemployed, argues the secretary of the Church Federation of Sacramento. Sacramento has tried it and ought to know. Page 523.

THE SURVEY



COMMON WELFARE



MRS. WILSON'S DEATH AND WASHINGTON'S ALLEYS

ON THE DAY of Mrs. Woodrow Wilson's death, August 6, the news dispatches carried the story of how the United States Senate had passed a bill to abolish alley slums in the District of Columbia, and how the District Committee of the House of Representatives had met in the morning and voted favorably on a similar bill, all of this action in one day coming as the result of the interest of the President's dying wife in much needed alley legislation.

These stories read well the day they were printed, but the sad thing to relate is that the Senate did not pass the comprehensive bill which Mrs. Wilson and the President, the Board of District Commissioners and social workers of the Washington approved, but rushed through a makeshift.

The House committee voted favorably on the piece of constructive alley legislation which had the President's and the commissioners' approval, but when this bill may be acted on in the House is a big question. Mrs. Wilson's dying wishes that Congress pass the alley law has made an impression on members of the Senate and the House, however, and there are now good chances for the enactment of effective legislation at next winter's session.

Late in the evening of Wednesday and early in the morning of Thursday, August 5 and 6, Mrs. Wilson, during periods of consciousness, asked the President and her daughters, who were at her side, time and time again about the status of the alley bill.

The President asked Secretary Tumulty early Thursday morning to get as much information as possible about the bill and to learn what could be done to expedite action. Secretary Tumulty talked with Secretary Bryan and Oliver P. Newman, president of the Board of District Commissioners, and the two immediately got into communication with leaders of the district committees in both houses of Congress.

The Senate committee had considered the comprehensive measure looking to wiping out alleys in Washington within

the next ten years and the creation of minor streets, but Senator Jones, of Washington, expressed opposition to this bill privately and it appeared that it would be impossible to get quick action on it. The Senate then took up the makeshift which arbitrarily puts an end to the use of alley slums without providing for the acquirement of property and cutting of minor streets to take the place of the alleys.

The House District Committee met on a hurry call from Chairman Ben Johnson, of Kentucky, and voted favorably on the comprehensive measure approved by the President and the commissioners and which eliminates alley inhabitation in Washington at the rate of one-tenth a year for ten years, providing either for a promulgation against the use of alley property or for the acquirement of the land by condemnation proceedings when it is desirable to establish minor streets.

It is expected that action on the last named measure will come during the next session, and that the interest stimulated by Mrs. Wilson's work will result soon in wiping out the National Capital's alley slums.

Carter in New York Evening Sun



ANOTHER TRIPLE ALLIANCE

THE AMERICAN RED CROSS AT THE FRONT

WHILE THE GERMANS were making their first attacks on Liège and before fighting in Alsace had yet begun, Ernest P. Bicknell, national director of the American Red Cross, accompanied by his assistant, Lewis E. Stein, left for Europe to assume personal charge of Red Cross war relief.

Meanwhile Robert W. de Forest, of New York, vice-president of the American Red Cross, who was abroad when war broke out, opened relief headquarters in London, pending Mr. Bicknell's arrival. The plans of the latter were not matured at the time he left America.

Early in the hostilities, even before England had announced her stand, it was decided at a joint meeting of the International and War Relief Boards of the Red Cross in Washington to charter a vessel and send hospital units in charge of men of army and navy medical experience to augment the foreign Red Cross and army and navy relief corps.

The vessel will fly the Red Cross flag. In addition to hospital supplies, it will carry doctors and nurses to each country involved in war. Under the protection of the treaties of Geneva and The Hague, it can enter any harbor for the discharge of its duty.

Haste was later imparted to this plan by the receipt from Ambassador Herrick, at Paris, of an urgent request for hospital supplies for sick and wounded French soldiers. The request called for 150,000 kilos of absorbent cotton, 150,000 kilos of ordinary cotton, 150,000 meters of soft gauze for dressings, 50,000 meters of starched gauze for plaster splints, and a large quantity of thin box wood for splints.

Mabel T. Boardman, chairman of the Red Cross National Relief Board, cabled Ambassador Herrick that surgical supplies would be sent on the Red Cross ship, but that the full amount asked by him, requiring over 100,000 cubic feet of space, could not be provided at once because of other shipments and the necessity of carrying a large quantity of coal.

The ship will be taken charge of by Rear Admiral Aaron Ward, U. S. N., retired, who will meet it in London.

Simultaneously with the decision to charter a ship, an appeal for funds was issued in this country. The appeal was addressed "to all of our people; to the governors of states, as presidents of the Red Cross state boards; to the Red Cross chapters; to mayors of cities; to chambers of commerce; to boards of trade; and to all associations and individuals. Contributions may be designated by the donors, if they so desire, for the aid of any special country, and will be used for the country designated; but assistance will be given to all, in the true spirit of the Red Cross represented by its motto, 'Neutrality—Humanity.'"

A week after this appeal was issued the New York branch of the Red Cross had received \$20,000. A statement issued from the Washington headquarters said:

"Reports from various sections of the country continue to indicate an active interest on the part of Americans of every lineage in the campaign of the American Red Cross for funds with which to finance the European relief project. Entertainments of various kinds and other means of raising money are being arranged at many places and in all sections. Some weeks may elapse before a substantial amount of these contributions reaches headquarters, but the campaign for funds is well started and is expected to result very satisfactorily."

On August 11 a cable message from Berne, by way of Rome, was received in New York stating that the Federal Council of Switzerland had proposed a guarantee of neutrality and had offered to convert the whole of Switzerland into a colossal Red Cross hospital camp for the reception of the wounded, irrespective of nationality.

Meanwhile Americans were manifesting interest in the nature and scope of Red Cross organizations in the countries at war. Lieutenant Baudoux, of the Belgian infantry, who reached New York August 11 from Antwerp, and prepared to return immediately to take part in the war, informed a representative of *THE SURVEY* that in his country the Red Cross is a civilian organization and is not allowed to operate at the front. Regular military surgeons alone are permitted to care for the wounded along the line of battle. The Red Cross is allowed, however, to station itself at the rear and dress the wounds of those brought to it.

Neither is the Red Cross in Belgium, said Lieutenant Baudoux, organized to administer relief to the families of wounded soldiers or of reservists called to war. These are compelled to look for help to other philanthropic agencies or to the voluntary beneficence of neighbors.

PLANNING RURAL PROGRESS IN MASSACHUSETTS

WHEN PRESIDENT BUTTERFIELD asked at the Country Life Conference at Amherst, Mass., the other day: "How many towns study themselves; make plans for improvement, carry out those plans?" he indicated the purpose of the conference.

To make the Agricultural College and other agencies competent aids in rural betterment was the purpose of the conference. The college has come to feel that greater productivity of the soil is not as important as better organization of the farmer's business, and that the farmer's business is much less important than the farmer's home. Formerly the farmer was told that because of his partnership with the soil he was independent and could flock by himself in splendid isolation. In the inevitable reaction he has come to feel that, even more than his city brother, his future depends upon recognition of the fact that he is but one of a community.

Not only the individual farmer, but rural institutions have come to realize that no institution is worth while unless it serves the community. Husking bees, barn-raising, quiltings, spelling matches, singing classes, lyceums, lodges, granges, churches—all have come into the same classification of servants to the common good. President Butterfield warned the various agencies represented at the conference that unless they made the community interest greater than their interest, unless they made the community service of greater importance than their own service, they had no warrant to live and would inevitably die.

The conference divided itself into sections for the study of the rural church, rural sanitation, rural education, library work, civic betterment of the countryside, and kindred topics.

Reports of actual work accomplished in many rural communities were of prime interest. For instance, the Rev. Howard F. Legg told how the country church at Wilbraham, Mass., had become a community church, and told of the community Fourth of July and the community Christmas when every one of the 582 persons in Wilbraham received a present from the Christmas tree. One saw a sign that now is the Kingdom of our Lord becoming the Kingdom of this earth, as far as Wilbraham is concerned. He told of scores of upright, self-respecting and respected citizens of Wilbraham who had eagerly come into the church when it became the servant of the community.

The librarian of the little country library in Brimfield told how her library stood in an apple orchard, with its reading room dominated by the open fire, and where whispers were tabooed because one could talk really out loud if he wanted to. That same library is the meeting place for the poultry club.

Mabel T. Boardman of Washington told of the work of the rural nurses of the Red Cross and every day Ernst Hermann, director of the Newton Playground Commission, showed what can really be done in healthful play and what possibilities there are in organizing the experience of individuals into real community joy.

Every variety of rural community was represented. Most of the difficulties—and they were as many as there were communities—were catalogued and tabbed. The principal advantages of the community church, the motion picture entertainment and the open forum, as devices for bringing the community together were recognized and discussed. Perhaps the greatest result of all was the determination taken as the text of the conference that not only the individual but the institution must subordinate itself to the service of the community.

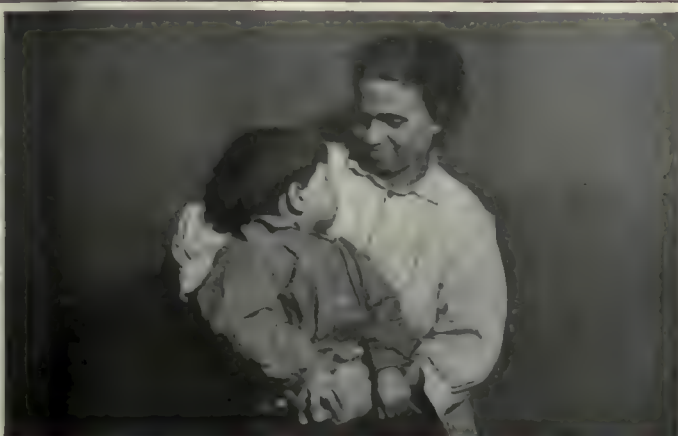
TEN BILLS READY FOR THE MISSOURI LEGISLATURE

ALREADY MISSOURI is fairly alive with legislative proposals for the session of the General Assembly which meets in January. Never in the history of the state has so much social and industrial legislation been proposed in the form of definite bills. Three legislative commissions are at work—one on a workmen's compensation act, another on the minimum wage, and a third on the abolition of convict labor. A governor's commission is actively at work throughout the state on a complete revision of the court system and legal procedure.

The State Conference of Charities and Correction, which has been responsible for a large amount of social legislation the last five years, and which has retained a lobbyist at Jefferson City during the last three sessions of the Legislature, has ready a complete program of ten legislative bills relating chiefly to the administration of state institutions and the protection of children.

The movement for placing the state factory inspector's office on a salary basis and extending it to all counties in the state, which has failed in the last two legislatures, is now being pushed by a considerable array of forces, including the State Federation of Labor. It seems even probable that a more sweeping act will be presented, creating an industrial relations commission to group in one department all the activities in the state relating to industry.

Saint Louis organizations are particularly busy in lining up at an early date all their legislative proposals in the social and industrial field, in order to familiarize candidates for the Legislature with their work before the November election. This is being done through the Conference of Federation, a clearing house which reaches over 200 organizations throughout the city.



*The girls they
leave behind them*

*It is estimated that the
industrial army of
America contains one
million reservists subject
to call in various Euro-
pean armies.*

Photographs by Hine



AN ANTI-WAR DEMONSTRATION IN PARIS AS SEEN BY A BROOKLYN SOCIAL WORKER

JAMES JENKINS, Jr., superintendent of the Department of Social Betterment of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, who sailed for England July 3, returned to New York August 11 after witnessing many of the preliminary preparations for war in France and Belgium and seeing one violent anti-war demonstration on the part of Socialists and workingmen in Paris.

Mr. Jenkins, who left with a party of social workers to attend the International Garden City and Town Planning Conference in England, returned on the *Kroonland*, of the Red Star Line, having sailed from Antwerp on August 1.

On her way to Dover the *Kroonland* sailed through the English fleet, then at anchor in the English channel, and later sighted a German cruiser in mid-ocean.

"When I reached Paris July 18," said Mr. Jenkins, "there was only a vague apprehension of a general European war. Paris was in gala dress and the cafés and places of amusement were still awl with undiminished, though excited, crowds.

"In three days a marked change occurred. Tuesday night, July 21, as I was returning to my rooms, I met a Viennese acquaintance who had served in the Austrian army. He asked me if I didn't want to see a demonstration against war, adding that he would show me a 'typical Paris mob.'

"The demonstration was taking place, where so many demonstrations take place, in front of the office of *Le Matin*. Thousands of Frenchmen were surging back and forth on the street and sidewalks. Before I arrived M. Juarez, who was later assassinated, and other Socialists had made speeches.

"The crowd was so violent that that

whole section of the city had been put under practical martial law. The ordinary police could do nothing. We came just in time to see the *Guard de Paris*, which corresponds roughly to the state constabulary in Pennsylvania, sweep down the street and drive the crowd back. They rode four, six and eight abreast, and simply pushed the people aside. This is a regular measure to avert trouble at times of excited demonstration. Another, which was taken that night, is to prohibit the cafés from serving food and drink on the sidewalks.

"Eight hundred people were arrested that night, some for fighting, some for excessive anti-war talk. Yet I never saw a crowd better handled. No one, so far as I could see, was hurt. Paris police carry no clubs, and though they have guns they use them only in dire cases. On this occasion they simply pushed, and if anyone pushed back he was arrested.

"This was the only anti-war demonstration I saw, though the papers reported them all over Europe. I was told that Socialists of other countries were extremely disappointed at what was felt to be the failure of German Socialists to take an active stand against war.

"Two days later, July 23, paper money had become useless, except in the payment of bills already incurred. Americans couldn't cash checks. Signs were hung up in all cafés: 'If you haven't silver or gold, we prefer that you shouldn't buy here.' I found that many merchants would rather take my calling card than a hundred-franc note.

"July 29 I went by train from Paris to Brussels. The uncertainty of traveling was shown by an experience I had on arriving at Brussels. The night clerk at my hotel gave me Belgian paper money for an American Express Company check. Next morning the day clerk re-

fused to change one of the paper bills which the night clerk had given me. There was a run on one of the banks that morning.

"Friday, July 31, I took a train from Brussels for Antwerp. Trains were now in the hands of the government and were guarded by police. At every station we witnessed the most pathetic scenes of leave-taking.

"Friday night I found the cafés and amusement places in Antwerp closed. There were rumors that the boat would not sail the next morning.

"In Antwerp I met some of the Chicago aldermen and others who had come to study terminal facilities in Europe. They had just landed from England and asked me what to do. I told them to return to England or to go home. I did not believe they could carry on their investigations on the continent just then.

"But one of their number made a spread-eagle speech, in which he painted the ridicule that American papers would heap on them if they were turned back at the outset of their trip by the prospect of 'a little European war.' I believe they decided to stick to it.

"Many passengers on our boat had originally engaged passage on other steamers. One couple who had engaged a \$1,200 suite on the *Imperator* were glad to get in the sub-cellar on the *Kroonland*.

"The impression I received in France, and this was strengthened by conversations with Americans who had long lived there and with French people themselves, was that the French working people have been heartily opposed to war all along. Now that it has come, on one doubts, however, that they will support the war to the limit.

"Everywhere there is admiration for the wonderful organization of the German soldiers. But one hears many stories pointed with unfavorable criticism of the slowness and red tape resulting from this organization. My Viennese friend, who had served in the Austrian army, pointed out some French soldiers in their baggy uniforms, and said: 'The sloppy appearance of those troops goes against my grain horribly, but somehow I can't get away from the feeling that they can fight like hell.'

Mr. Jenkins brought with him an English daily paper of July 31, containing a story the headlines of which ran thus: "How to Earn £17 a Week: Join The Royal Naval Air Service: New Chance For Youths: Applications Pouring In At The Rate of 50 a Day." Issued before England was at war and therefore having no bearing on the present conflict, it yet shows, he said, the sort of recruiting campaign that is constantly going on in the Old World.

When Mr. Jenkins left Antwerp, Lawrence Veiller, director of the National Housing Association, was in Switzerland. Thomas J. Riley, general secretary of the Brooklyn Bureau of Charities, with Mrs. Riley, was in Switzerland also, and Madge D. Headley, secretary of the Tenement House Committee of the New York Charity Organization Society, was in Paris.



Donahy in Cleveland Plain Dealer

CIVICS

THROUGH ROUTES FOR CHICAGO'S STEAM RAILROADS—BY SYLVESTER BAXTER

WHEN THE PRESENT writer first saw Chicago in 1881, he found the passenger terminal situation of the railways the worst of any great city in the world. In Boston of that day, it was certainly bad enough. Yet both in Chicago and Boston the steam lines then had nearly all the suburban transportation.

Street railway electrification reversed the situation. It tremendously developed suburban growth and its inroads made the local traffic of the steam lines so unprofitable that they would gladly, if they could, have discontinued it altogether.

In both cities, however, the steam lines still have immense possibilities in the way of local traffic and they might easily develop a service that no other form of transit could rival.

A few years ago the Metropolitan Improvements Commission of Boston reported a plan for accomplishing this end. The problem, though vastly expensive, had been made relatively simple by the railway concentration of traffic in two great union stations. The solution was a crosstown tunnel between the two stations and the electrification of the steam lines. This would have created an unrivalled swift-transit metropolitan service, bringing all sections of Greater Boston within convenient reach of each other, as well as of the urban center.

Later this plan was practically accepted by the railways, then unified, and it was held that the electrified steam lines would thereby operate the system so conveniently, as well as profitably, as to recover as much of 75 per cent of the traffic that had been lost. But for the disastrous contentions that fomented an economic civil war and wrecked New England's transportation interests, this system might now be in operation.

The like problem has actuated a study of Through Routes for Chicago's Steam Railroads made for the City Club of Chicago by George Ellsworth Hooker, its civic secretary, and just published in a handsome pamphlet practically illustrated with plans, diagrams and pictures. Mr. Hooker is one of the most clear-headed and able of American lay students of transportation and housing problems. This work of his is a concise presentation of facts so clear in their significance as to need little argument.

The transit situation in Chicago today is worse in many respects than in 1881. With all the electrification and unification of street railways, supplemented by the rapid transit of elevated lines, facilities have not kept pace with growth. The railroads, to be sure, have elevated their tracks and have built

monumental terminals. In their costly magnificence, these terminals have in a great measure ossified conditions and made rational revision prodigiously expensive. Mr. Hooker indicates very clearly that the logical solution lies in connecting up the steam lines and devel-

oping thereby various through routes for local transit.

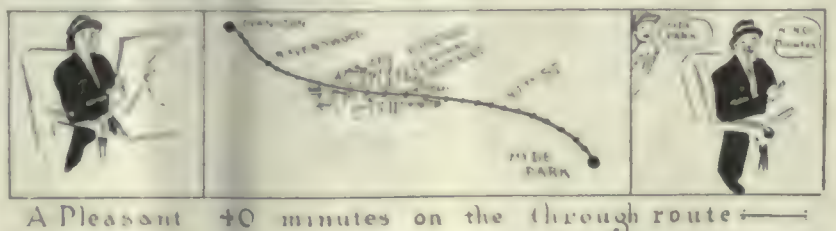
Chicago, being the most spread-out community in the world—considering its population—stands in greatest need of rapid conveyance over the distances involved. Its steam lines carry their passengers at an average of 24 miles an hour, its elevated railways at 14 miles an hour, its surface lines at only 9 miles an hour. Yet the steam lines carry

EVANSTON TO HYDE PARK.

Via terminal routes—one hour and ten minutes.



Via through route—forty minutes.



FOR THE MAN IN THE STREET CAR

The expert report of the Chicago City Club on Through Routes for Chicago's Steam Railroads got over its message to the traveling public by means of striking cartoons

THE TERMINAL—A VILLAGE RELIC



Farmers driving into town from various directions are fully accommodated by the one hitching rail—or terminal. From it they can reach, in two or three minutes' walk, any other desired point.



Chicago's hitching rail—the La Salle street terminal indicated by the arrow. Any point in the congested loop district can be reached in 10 or 15 minutes' walk but the rapidly growing business district stretching out a mile and a half could all be reached from a through steam route without changing cars.

only 41,000,000 local passengers a year as against 164,000,000 for the elevated and 600,000,000 for the surface lines.

Mr. Hooker is not an engineer and he very sensibly attempts to devise no scheme of his own. But by utilizing existing data from expert studies carefully made for Chicago, and plans, either realized or proposed, for other great cities, he makes it plain that the desired solution would be quite practicable. It would be tremendously costly, of course, but to utilize existing lines and supply the necessary connecting links could hardly be so expensive as to create the proposed new rapid-transit system which, at its best, would fall far short of the service possible from the steam lines electrified for local-transit purposes.

The railways have found their local traffic unremunerative because they have performed only one out of the three kinds of local business that they should handle: (1) Into and out of the congested center; (2) to and from the surrounding sections; (3) transit from points in any outlying section to points in any other outlying section.

Under a through routing of local trains all this traffic could be easily and profitably handled under operating conditions that would effect vast economies in train movement, in terminal space and in train frequency. In stub-terminal operation, from 8 to 12 distinct movements are, as a rule necessary for a single train. Through routing requires but a single movement.

Probably the most practical organized method for Chicago would be the Boston plan; a co-ordination and unification of local transit facilities, thus avoiding costly duplications, while a metropolitan terminal company, jointly owned by all the transportation interests involved, would take over and operate on a through-routing basis the local services of all the separate lines.

FRESH FISH FOR SALE BY UNCLE SAM

THE GOVERNMENT of the District of Columbia has begun an attack on the high cost of living problem through the municipal fish market run at cost by the district authorities to control the incoming supply of Potomac fish. Practically all of the fresh fish purchased in the city passes through it on the way to grocery stores and small markets where it is sold at greatly advanced prices.

At large private markets the big purchaser may get low prices at wholesale, but the woman with the family market basket must pay almost full grocery store prices when purchasing at nearby stalls which sell at retail. At the Washington municipal market, the authorities give dealers the privilege of selling with the understanding that they will sell retail as well as wholesale. The result is that a person going to the municipal market can buy sea food at a very few cents above the wholesale price.

A short time ago, the Commissioners appointed a young and energetic superintendent of weights, measures and markets named J. H. Sherman. He was

picked for the place because of the study which he had made of market management, although he also has a thorough understanding of weights and measures. Superintendent Sherman startled the people of the National Capital when he furnished for publication a list of the prices at the Municipal Fish Market that day and in a parallel column gave the prices quoted in the morning papers for fish at private markets.

The prices at private markets averaged just 192 per cent higher than at the municipal market. Sea bass, butterflyfish and flounders were selling at three cents a pound at the municipal market on the same day that the private markets were asking eighteen; halibut sold at thirteen cents on the municipal market and twenty-two cents at the private markets, and so on down the list.

Superintendent Sherman says that "the difference of 192 per cent in prices charged does not represent exorbitant profits for dealers, but exorbitant wastes incurred in storage, transportation charges, rentals, insurance, intermediate profits of jobbers, delivery costs and other items all brought about in the legitimate effort to meet the wishes of the people who usually order their food by telephone, demand quick delivery and other service on the part of the dealer, without thought of the tremendous cost involved."

At the municipal market the products must be carried away by those who purchase them. Congress has been asked to furnish a new market building.

The whole plan is a part of the progressive administration of the District of Columbia brought about by the appointment by President Wilson of Oliver P. Newman and Frederick L. Siddons as civilian commissioners.

SEATTLE COMPETING WITH ALLADIN

SEATTLE CLAIMS to be "America's best lighted city." This, together with the fact that municipal ownership obtains, makes the recently issued annual report of the Lighting Department interesting reading.

The following from the report, by J. D. Ross, superintendent, reminds one of the accomplishments of Aladdin's Lamp. "The department is justly proud of the fact that the past two years' work, judged strictly from the standpoint of an independent business enterprise, has been an unqualified success. A study of the financial statements will show that the surplus for the two years, after paying all operation, maintenance and interest and depreciation charges and establishing a sinking fund, amounts to \$433,954.21.

"But the success of the plant must be considered on a broader basis than this. The lighting plant has furnished adequate electric service to the citizens of Seattle to the most remote suburbs at rates for current that are the lowest in the city's history, and lower, considering residence, business and power schedules, than in any other city in the country. This benefit of extremely reasonable rates extends to the entire city, for com-

petition has brought the rates of the competing company to the same level as those given by the municipal plant.

"Of equal importance with its work in lowering rates is the fact that the plant has done much to establish a fair wage for the rank and file of men employed in its work. While the wages paid are in no case excessive, the aim of the department is to give the humblest employe a living wage. This policy, together with the 8-hour day, the guarantee of one day's rest in seven to every man and constant attention to the betterment of working conditions, has resulted in a loyalty and spirit of co-operation without which the success of the plant would not have been possible. The great majority of the employes of the plant are the owners of small homes, of the class most valuable in building up a city."

ONE SQUARE FOOT OF PLAYGROUND PER CHILD

THE SLOGAN "the more playgrounds, the fewer plaguegrounds," evidently expresses the sentiments not only of Franklin P. Adams but also of the Greenwich Village Improvement Society of New York, which has just presented to the Board of Estimate and Apportionment a report containing the statement that while attention has been centered upon the recreational needs of the Lower East Side, other parts of the city have been neglected.

In historic Greenwich Village, on the Lower West Side, the report says, the total playground area does not furnish standing room for the children living there. There are 24,000 children and only 16,000 square feet of playground.

An interesting feature of the report, the investigations for which were made by Wallace Benedict and Margaret J. Lane, of the People's Institute staff, and William Spinney of the Greenwich Village Improvement Society, is that it represents the voluntary efforts of a group of people who are trying to improve Greenwich Village to induce the city to recognize its responsibility for making things better.

Besides specific recommendations for increasing playground area, the report contains suggestions for improving the paving and street lighting in the district.

FOR RIVERSIDE'S NEW CITIZENS

Riverside, California, held this year its first Fourth of July celebration for new-made citizens. At noon of the holiday, Frank Miller, of the Mission Inn, and Mrs. Miller were hosts to the natives of other countries who had been granted their full naturalization papers during the preceding year. Talks on fellowship and true citizenship were made by the mayor, the city librarian, the head of the school board and others who were guests.

At the same hour, the heads of alien families of the locality were the guests of honor of the city at a dinner in Pilgrim Hall of the First Congregational Church. Greeks, Russians, Armenians and especially Mexicans filled two long tables, gay with flowers and the na-

tional emblem. There was necessarily a good deal of reserve at the start, but this had almost disappeared by afternoon when both parties met in the auditorium of the church for a program of addresses and symbolic tableaux.

PARK MOVIES

Saint Louis has just inaugurated a new experiment in public recreation by appropriating \$2,000 for free motion-picture shows in public parks throughout the city. The work is under the direction of the Public Recreation Commission. The shows began on July 17, and will be given throughout the summer in fourteen parks and playgrounds.

The first performance at Columbus Playground, in the heart of the most congested and cosmopolitan part of the city, brought out an attendance of six to seven thousand people. The exhibitions run from 8:00 to 9:30 o'clock, and the films shown cover a variety of subjects—all, however, with an educational theme. The schedule calls for one exhibition in each park and playground every two weeks. The shows are already more popular than the public band-concerts.

FIRE HAZARDS IN CLEVELAND LODGING-HOUSES

The elimination of fire hazards in laborers' lodging-houses in Cleveland has been determined upon by Director of Public Safety Alfred Benesch. He found conditions of great danger—for example, the only egress from a bunk house room in which nearly 200 men were sleeping was a curving stairway two feet wide.

The director has started a campaign to do away with narrow and closed winding stairways, to have red lights displayed at all turns leading to fire-escapes, to secure the installation of fire-proof doors and concrete stairs wherever practical, to remove bars from windows leading to fire escapes, to have all main exit doors hung outward and to replace inflammable partitions by ones of corrugated iron.

CARING FOR BROOKLYN CHILDREN

The Brooklyn Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children announces the division of its case work into two departments, one of child helping, the other of law enforcement against adults. Timothy J. Shea, an attorney and formerly chief probation officer in Syracuse, has just been appointed supervisor in charge of the law enforcement department; Arthur H. Taylor, formerly superintendent of the Worcester Society for the Prevention of Cruelty to Children, has been placed in charge of the child helping department.

The society reports a number of other changes during the past year. These include the employment of women investigators; the organization of the case work according to a district plan; the holding of conferences of agents; increased segregation of the children in the society's shelter; and more effort than ever before toward constructive and family rehabilitation measures.

INDUSTRY

EMPLOYERS' LIABILITY BY LAND AND SEA — BY JAMES WESLEY BRYAN

IF AN EMPLOYER through negligence *injures* an employe so as to maim him or cause him pain and suffering, he must pay such damages as are assessed by due process of law, but if an employer through negligence *kills* an employe there shall be no recovery.

That used to be the law all over the civilized world. It is now and to the time "beyond which the memory of man runneth not to the contrary" has been the common law of England. It was the law in the United States until statutes were passed creating a right of action in favor of dependents for loss of life through negligence on *land*. Louisiana, in a sense, is an exception to the rule for that state has never been subjected to common law.

There is a federal employers' liability law that changes the rule, but the framers of that act were particular to limit its scope to deaths and injuries by common carriers by railroad. An interstate common carrier by steamboat, or by any other means does not come under its provisions. It has no application to the sea. State laws are limited in application to their own territorial jurisdictions.

Then it follows that there is no American law for recovery for death at sea or on the navigable waters of the United States except in so far as it is to be found in state statutes.

As long ago as 1846 England enacted the Lord Campbell's act which supplanted the common law in this regard, both in England and on English vessels at sea, for there are no territorial restrictions in that act. A ship flying an English flag is a part of English territory, and Lord Campbell's act has always applied to English ships at sea as well as in inland waters.

Why is it that our Congress has failed to pass an act providing for such liability? As early as 1851, under the leadership of Senator Hamlin of Maine, there was forced through the Senate a few days before adjournment the indefensible act for limiting the liability of ship owners to the value of the ship and the pending freight charges. Senator Hamlin explained that it was merely an act to make American law gibe with English statutes on the same subject. When the act was finally approved, however, it was much more liberal than the English statute in that it based the liability of the ship owner on the value of the ship at the termination of the voyage, while the English liability was based on value before the injury or loss. Of course, where the ship goes down, it has no value at the termination of the voyage—that is, after it reaches the bottom.



JAMES WESLEY BRYAN
Progressive Congressman-at-large
from Washington.

The purpose of this act was to improve the conditions, to increase the profits, of ship owners. It had no consideration for the human rights of passengers and seamen. There was one redeeming feature about the statute as passed—it was especially exempted from application to rivers and inland waters. But in 1886 they passed an amendatory act making this outrageous liability statute "apply to all vessels used on lakes or rivers or in inland navigation, including canal boats, barges and lighters."

While all this legislation was being enacted to help protect profits, no consideration was given for the human rights of those involved. The American lawmakers ignored the Lord Campbell's act of 1846 which provided for damages to dependents for death at sea.

Under the Lord Campbell's act, the English seaman or the passengers had the benefit of jury trial, but our law makers did not subject American ship owners to any such burden. A more recent compensation act has further advanced the status of English seamen, but the Congress of the United States has not given consideration to this side of the case.

The general proposition of the sovereignty of the ship's flag is well laid down in *Lindstrom vs. International Navigation Company* (123 Fed. 475) Judge Wallace speaking for the Circuit court:

"The territorial sovereignty of a state extends to a vessel of the state when it is upon the high seas, the vessel being deemed a part of the territory of the state to which it belongs."

I have already mentioned the fact that practically every American state

had passed a law supplanting the common law and creating liability to dependents for death through negligence, and it can readily be seen that if this sovereignty of the flag doctrine could be made applicable to an American state then there would be a remedy notwithstanding the failure of Congress to act, for every American ship is registered at some American port and every American port is a part of some American state, and every American state has a law creating this liability.

By a series of federal court decisions these state laws have been applied so as to afford a remedy and a death liability. The state laws are inconsistent one with the other, however, and there are a multiplication of complications that may arise, but the ship owners are now willing to co-operate in the enactment of a federal death statute. I believe Congress should not take any action till an act can be passed that measures up to present standards. I interposed an objection to a proposed makeshift recently and prevented it passing the House by unanimous consent.

What is needed is a federal workmen's compensation act for all carriers both by water and rail which of course would include a provision for compensation in case of death. The present complications between state and federal jurisdiction are, to say the least of it, very exasperating. The unAmerican and inhuman liability statutes have already been referred to, but the court rules authorized by these statutes are very much against the interest of the claimants in the application of the state statutes. It would seem that if state laws can be applied that the right of jury trial would follow. Jury trial though permissible in certain cases, is rarely granted in an admiralty court.

The experiences of the claimants in the suits growing out of the loss of the *Titanic* show that it is imperative that the antiquated and uncivilized standards of American liability for ship owners—to which *THE SURVEY* has already called attention—should be abandoned and the same standard applied on the water as on the land. It is absurd to hold jury trial as an inestimable boon of liberty in civil disputes on the land, but deny it in disputes arising on the water. The *La Follette* seaman's bill is designed to free sailors and seamen from arrest for desertion. A farm hand can quit, and work in a saw mill or a factory if he wants to. Why should a human being working on a boat have less privilege?

The day of wiping out this haven of lawless big business on the mighty main is at hand. It is imperative that the legislation be enacted not by the shipping rings and the steamboat companies but



"SOLVING" THE PROBLEM OF UNEMPLOYMENT WITH A FIRE HOSE

by those who get their orders from the people direct.

There is pending now in the national House of Representatives a bill introduced by me (H. R. 12,807) which would extend the principle of the employers' liability law so that it would apply to all the jurisdiction of the United States, whether land or water. There is no reason why it should be restricted to interstate commerce by railroad as is now the case. I ask for the help of the public in the passage of this bill. It is now before the judiciary committee.

There is pending an absurd ship owners' bill for compensation in case of death at sea (H. R. 6,143). It is a lame attempt. It harks back to days of uncivilized industrial conditions and ought not to have a moment's consideration. Yet it was presented in the most plausible way, endorsed by leading proctors in admiralty, and the American Bar Association. It would probably have passed the House recently by unanimous consent except for my persistent objection.

One section of this ship owners' bill for relief from the effect of state laws now in force re-enacts and re-affirms the present infamous liability protection for ship owners. Another provides for damages for "pecuniary loss sustained" only. Another section protects the ship owners with the doctrine of "comparative negligence." Another section shuts out jury trial by forcing all such cases exclusively into admiralty courts.

Before such a relic of barbarism could be enforced on the railroad employes of this country there would be a revolution. Yet the ship owners will do their best to put through Congress just such a make-shift.

As one on the inside who knows the way this unregulated band of big business manipulators are in the habit of having their own way in Congress, I beg of the public co-operation in a fight that is really just assuming proportions to extend the humane principles of modern industrial justice to industry on the water as well as on the land.

THE ARMIES OF THE UNEMPLOYED IN CALIFORNIA —BY E. GUY TALBOTT, CHURCH FEDERATION OF SACRAMENTO

DURING THE SUMMER and spring months of last year California was infested with a series of unemployed armies. These armies were not simply in the large centers of population, but roamed over the country, stopping at the smaller towns, asking and receiving help from them.

The first of the armies had its origin in Sacramento, where the men were driven from town and refused work by public officials. By the time they reached Stockton, fifty miles away, their numbers had swelled to such proportions that they were becoming somewhat of a menace.

In order to give employment to these armies, private citizens in different cities, notably in Stockton and San Francisco, raised a large fund by public subscription and gave the men work. But as the wage paid them was about one-fourth or one-third of regular wages, the plan did not succeed very well. It was too much like an attempt to take advantage of the unfortunate condition of jobless men.

On Christmas day the first army, when it reached Fresno, numbered 250. The city and county authorities provided food for two days and when that was gone the army was at the mercy of the public. Some of the Socialists and ministers of Fresno co-operated and took care of the army over Christmas, gave them a good dinner and sent them on their way with provisions for two days.

This army was composed of two sections, first, the I. W. W. or the radicals, who really did not want work, and the regulars or trades-union-men, who were glad to take work at any price provided they were not "scabbing" on their brothers in organized labor. When asked as to the reason for banding together in this way, the leaders of the army said: "Not one city is responsible for the unemployed situation; society is responsible, and

we propose to have the different municipalities bear their proportionate share of the cost of caring for the unemployed until such time as work is provided."

Practically every one of the men in this army were industrial revolutionists. Socialists and syndicalists of every type were represented, as well as members of trades unions.

This army divided and subdivided and finally merged into the larger armies in Los Angeles and San Francisco. It was estimated by the State Board of Immigration and Housing that there were not less than 25,000 unemployed in Los Angeles and 50,000 in San Francisco. The suffering at times was intense. The men had no shelter, little food and no work.

The problem in California was aggravated by the large number of casual workers—miners, lumbermen and ranch hands—who have a great deal of idle time in winter. Added to this were the large numbers from the Northwest and the hordes from the East, driven toward San Francisco by the promises of labor in connection with the coming exposition.

The municipal authorities had no means of coping with the situation and the state itself was at a loss to know what to do. One of the aims of the unemployed army was to make society conscious of the unemployed problem. They said: "So long as unemployed men go about singly or in pairs and ask for work, men consider them common tramps or vagrants and think nothing of the problem that lies back of the tramp or vagrant. But when these men band together and go in force through the country, society is bound to face the problem of the unemployed in a concrete way."

This was the definite aim of the last unemployed army, which was summarily disbanded at Sacramento. Its lead-



ARMED POLICE GUARD AROUND THE ARMY OF THE UNEMPLOYED

ers had been in Coxey's army of a generation ago. They proposed to march to Washington with no other reason in view but to make the nation conscious of the unemployed problem. In this they were at least partially successful. Fifteen hundred of them left San Francisco. As soon as they were across the bay they were taken in charge by the police of Oakland, and they were in charge of the police every move they made until they reached Sacramento.

Here the 1,500 were camped against their will by the city authorities. They did not want to stay. They wanted to go on to Washington.

Sacramento was face to face with a new problem. During the winter, the city had had from 3,000 to 5,000 unemployed men. Now there was an additional alien army of 1,500. For two or three days city and county authorities fed these armies and then ordered them to move on. Adjoining counties and the adjoining state of Nevada declared that the army would be met with bayonets and bullets, and the army refused to move. It engaged in a campaign of passive resistance.

Eight hundred deputy sheriffs and special policemen were sworn in and armed with pick handles. The majority of these deputy sheriffs were worse bums and thugs than could be found in the unemployed army. Through the use of the fire department and the pick handles in the hands of the deputies, the army was unmercifully driven across the river into Yolo county. Many were beaten into insensibility, and the most atrocious and barbarous methods were used in handling the men. They were treated not like men, but like beasts.

Then for two weeks the army was camped at the doors of Sacramento and the 800 armed deputy sheriffs were maintained to guard the city against 1,500 unarmed unemployed men. No crimes against person or property were proved against these men while they were in the city or at the city gates, although efforts were made by the authorities to fasten every petty crime upon them. Their leaders were lodged in jail and held incommunicado for several days. Finally the army dispersed, leaving a remnant to harass the authorities of the city. Thus Sacramento

"solved" the unemployed problem.

In commenting on the action of the authorities in dealing with the unemployed armies one of the local newspapers said: "Sacramento did a good thing, after bearing patiently for days with the insults and threats of these men. She established a splendid reputation for herself all over the state, throughout the nation, in fact." But did that solve the problem?

Carlton H. Parker, former professor of industrial economics in the University of California, at present the executive secretary of the State Commission of Immigration and Housing, in analyzing the situation, says: "The riot in Sacramento is merely bringing the problem of the back streets into the strong light. The handling of the problem there is unhappily in accord with the careless, cruel, unscientific attitude of society on this question. . . . The labor unrest in America, our corruption in politics, and commercialized vice are all to be laid, without distinction, at the door of each citizen. American society today begets the vagrant, the user of drugs, child labor, as normal products of its own intent and temperament. Why then should California cities spurn this army as an unclean thing, in whose creation they have played a part? It is part and parcel of their own endeavor and political life."

During the summer months these armies of unemployed are not in evidence, but those who think the armies are permanently disbanded are grievously in error. The men who form our unemployed armies all through this country are becoming socially self-conscious and they cannot be permanently disbanded until a way is found to eliminate the causes of unemployment. San Diego met the I. W. W. free speech army with rails and tar and feathers. Sacramento met the unemployed army with fire engines and pick handles. Thus they "solved" their problems. When this army comes next winter, as come it will, shall we have a more sane solution of the problem?



LOWERING THE DROWNING RATE

Since this swimming pool, designed and largely contributed to by the National Tube Company, but owned and operated by the city of McKeesport, Penn., was established, no instance of boys drowning in the rivers of the vicinity has been recorded. Such accidents were an almost weekly occurrence before. The average daily attendance at the pool, including adults, is 350 and on Sundays, 1,000.

HEALTH

WESTERN MEDICINE IN EASTERN LANDS—A NOTE ON MODERN TENDENCIES'

"FIFTY PER CENT of the population outside cities, is sick, suffers and dies without medical relief."

Such is the report from careful observers of twentieth century conditions in lands of the Far East. The statement was made at a recent meeting of the American Academy of Medicine. At that time a number of men and women who, as trained physicians, are at grips with social and physical life in eastern countries, told of the present outlook in medical work. Strong opposition to the new and unknown; stronger tendencies toward western ways,—these make up the progress (halting, indeed, yet progress) in Changing China, new India, newer Siam.

"The ruler of Siam is progressive," said Dr. L. C. Bulkeley. "But he is hampered by the stubborn allegiance of his people to old ways." It was a government official of high rank who, seriously ill from a bullet wound, yet refused the foreign prescription for an internal remedy, and had a native "doctor" bring daily a fresh package of "medicine" to be placed under his pillow. The attendants of one of the government's hospitals left in the bushes a traveler whom they found wounded, and fled lest if he should die, they should be haunted by his spirit. Next day, however, when they found the man still living, they mustered courage to take him to the hospital.

"With such examples in high circles," said Dr. Bulkeley, "it is small wonder that although the Siamese Department of Public Health tells people how to keep well, cholera and other epidemics still sweep over the country."

Other reforms not touching dear flesh so closely, flourish better. A satisfactory

Acknowledgment is due to the American Academy of Medicine for the use of stenographic reports, and to the Missionary Research Library, New York City, for details of Peking Union College. G. S.

postal system has been organized; railroads have been much improved, and an agricultural expert from Japan was recently called in consultation.

The tendency prevails throughout the East to recognize modern medical science and to adopt its methods; throughout the West, to depend on trained students of eastern countries to better the conditions of their country.

"China's needs are to be met by trained Chinese," said Dr. R. T. Shields, Dean of the Medical School, Nanking University. "This fact was recognized by early missionaries, and the few classes they were able to train have done remarkable work. But only of late has such work been adequately undertaken."

These recent developments in medical work in the East are well illustrated by the China Medical Association, mentioned by several speakers. The Association includes over 500 medical missionaries. It is officially recognized by the Chinese authorities.

"Its members believe," said Dr. Shields, "that the object of their presence in China can be most satisfactorily attained by concentrating energy for the present upon important centers and forming efficient union medical colleges and well equipped hospitals."

Experienced workers in smaller places are being called in to these centers to teach and demonstrate. This means not

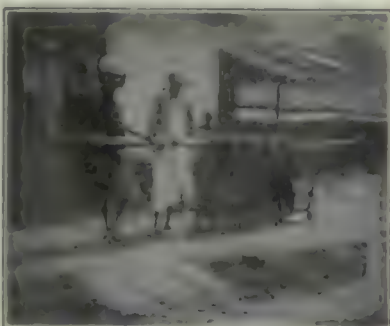
only concentration, but co-operation between all agencies in a given territory, and a common policy of work. Schools and hospitals are affiliated with existing educational institutions, and aim to conform to regulations of the Chinese Ministry of Education.

The economy of this co-operative plan is evident. Salaries of expert Chinese teachers must be adequate. To fill the staff from the native student body is part of the fundamental policy. A well equipped medical school is expensive. A few such schools, advisedly located, will become models for future Chinese endowments as well as centers of actual training.

Excellent examples of the practical working of this plan are the Union College at Shantung, where Presbyterian, Baptist, and Church of England societies are co-operating; and the Union Medical College of Peking, where seven English and American societies co-operate. At Peking there are fourteen professors, some of whom give all their time to the college. Five foreign lecturers are secured annually, each giving at least twenty-five lectures during the year.

Graduates receive a diploma from the government. All teaching is done in Mandarin Chinese. Into Mandarin also are being translated various text books on surgery, medical toxicology, clinical methods, obstetrics, and operative surgery.

Its department of research offers remarkable opportunities for pioneer work. The diseases peculiar to China are only beginning to be studied. One of the important recent discoveries is the distinction between pulmonary tuberculosis—thus far a practically hopeless disease in China—and "blastomycosis of the lungs." Cases of the latter disease have hitherto been left with clearly defined tuberculosis cases and have become infected with fatal results. Now, properly separated and treated, these cases are found to recover in large numbers. Study is needed, too, of the fevers,

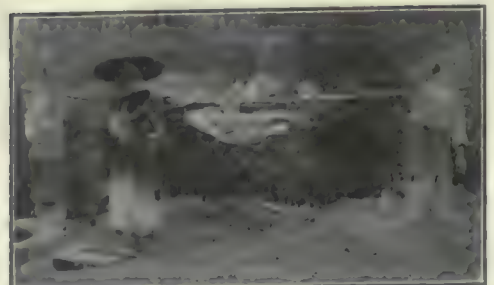


HOSPITAL AMBULANCE IN RURAL INDIA



RESCUED FROM THE ROADSIDE

The little girl had been literally thrown out as useless because of tubercular knee.



HOSPITAL AMBULANCE IN RURAL CHINA



ENTRANCE TO SHANTUNG UNION COLLEGE

whose name is legion. Intestinal parasites produce endless varieties of disease. Malaria, hook-worm, pellagra, "dumdum fever," all require special treatment in their special surroundings. The need is immediate for a full survey of conditions, pathological as well as sanitary.

"We ought to help practitioners to keep up to the highest standards," said Mr. Lau, of Canton. "We need laboratories for medical research that we need not be humiliated when we come over here and find ourselves unable to tell about the diseases of our own country."

The Indian Medical Association, with but 250 members, has similar aims. It is concentrating its efforts upon tuberculosis, which is the most serious foe met in Indian medical warfare.

The efficient treatment of cases among the younger generation demands thorough instruction in personal and domestic hygiene, the establishment of sanatoria in various parts of India, and means of extensive village sanitation.

"SICK CLUBS": CO-OPERATIVE MEDICAL SERVICE —BY R. A. ALLEN, M.D., LACLEDE, IDAHO

THE MOST SALIENT defect of our present system of medical attendance is its expense to the patient. Sickness often imposes a heavy financial burden upon the thrifty, one that at times amounts to calamity. The dread of incurring this expense causes many people to avoid calling a physician until all other remedies have been tried without avail or until impelled to do so through fear aroused by symptoms associated in the popular mind with serious disease.

This doubtless is the principal cause of the evils of drug-store prescribing and patent medicine doping. As a result many insidious diseases which can be successfully coped with in their incipency are neglected until they have done irreparable damage or have advanced to an incurable stage, and doubtless many contagious and infectious diseases are allowed to spread for want of a diagnosis.

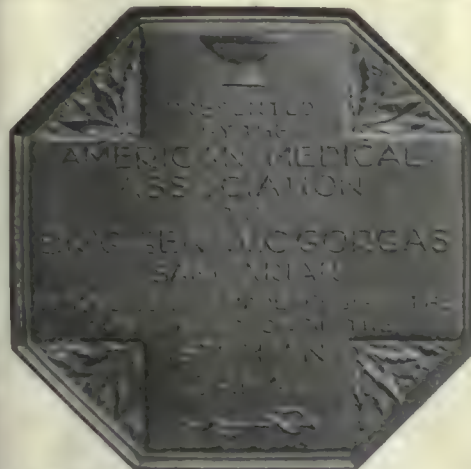
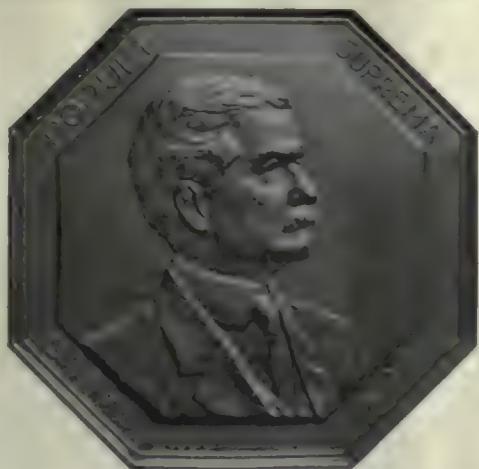
The result is a great amount of unnecessary suffering, preventable illness and death, and irreparable loss to the community as well as to individual homes. The field of prevention, in which the possibilities for conservation of health and life-saving are simply wonderful, has been opened to a comparatively small fraction of the population.

The solution of this problem will come from those who are most acutely affected, upon whom the burden of medical and hospital costs rests most heavily—from the workingmen. In England they had their Friendly Societies; in Germany, and Austria, their sick clubs; now they have arrived at state insurance. In America the "sick club" idea has taken root and is spreading rapidly.

In the little mining town of Carbonado, Washington, the miners have for thirty years successfully maintained a co-operative medical service. In the early days of this camp, a large proportion of the miners were natives of South Wales and brought with them their knowledge of the value of the "Friendly Society." They organized the Carbonado Beneficial Association, to include all of the employees of the Carbon Hill Coal Company. The company deducts \$1 from the monthly wages of each employe and turns the fund thus raised over to a board of trustees elected by the miners from their own number. This board employs a physician, purchases all drugs and supplies needed, hires nurses, —in short, defrays all expense of necessary treatment and attendance. The association has erected a small building for use by the doctor and containing beds for emergency care of patients. It owns and maintains a cemetery and a morgue.

In return for his \$1 each employe of the company is given all necessary surgical, medical and hospital care in case of sickness or accidental injury, and the

CHINESE
WOMEN
PHYSICIANS
OPERATING
—
CANTON



GOLD MEDAL PRESENTED TO GENERAL GORGAS BY THE AMERICAN MEDICAL ASSOCIATION

Acknowledging the medal, General Gorgas said: "I thank you, Mr. President, and Fellows of the American Medical Association. I appreciate, of course, the great honor of this occasion, but I would like to have you think that this honor is to be shared by three or four hundred young Americans who have labored in this sanitary work on the Canal Zone, and I receive this medal in part as their chief and as their representative. Again, I thank you."

members of his family are provided with all necessary medical care and medicines. The service given the men is unlimited; but major surgical operations, hospital care and nursing are not given the members of their families. The physician is also allowed to charge a fee of \$10 for confinement cases and \$25 for venereal cases. Cases requiring hospital care for any length of time are sent to a Tacoma hospital. Surgeons or other specialists are there employed to attend the patients or to perform the major surgical operations. No expense is spared to restore the patient to health and strength.

The working force in this mine numbers about 550 men and includes various nationalities: Welsh, English, Finnish, Italian, Polish, Slovak, Belgian and French. Management of the Association's affairs is left naturally to the more intelligent and forceful leaders among the men, who are elected to the board of trustees.

Thus by a simple co-operative medical service these men are able to secure all but a very small part of all the medical, surgical and hospital care for themselves and their families at a very low cost. They scarcely notice the withdrawal of the \$1 monthly fee. This plan is so much superior to the old haphazard method by which every visit of the doctor and every purchase of medicines added to the piling debts, that the men have no desire to return to that system. Today all the mining towns in the State of Washington have similar co-operative medical service. This is the surest testimonial to the popularity of the plan.

All this is certainly leading toward state sickness insurance. Washington has an industrial insurance law which has been in successful operation for over three years. At the time of its consideration in the legislature, an attempt was made to have incorporated in the act a provision for the payment of costs of first aid treatment; but owing to the opposition on the part

of employers the attempt failed.

Now representatives of the labor interests of the state are vigorously pushing a first aid amendment to the compensation act which will be submitted to the electorate by initiative at the next general election. This measure would provide for the payment by the employer of the costs of surgical, medical and hospital treatment of workmen injured while in his employ. This will be the most advanced piece of social legislation yet adopted in the United States and its working will be watched with interest.

A VERDICT ON MEDICAL PUBLICITY

AT THE recent meeting at Atlantic City of the American Medical Association, the Judicial Council of the Association included in its report an allusion to the widely discussed subject of medical publicity.

'Journal of the A. M. A., July 4, page 82 ff.

The Council recognizes that there is wide-spread interest in progress toward cure in such diseases as cancer and tuberculosis, and believes that the daily press has correctly considered such items as news. "Hence," says the report, "the press has a right to information on medical matters that shall be accurate and given by honorable men."

In order that facts, not garbled statements, may be presented and that the medical profession may prevent the self-advertising of individuals for selfish purposes, the Council recommended the following plan:

"That each county medical society should constitute a publicity committee . . . to give to the daily press accurate information on all medical matters of interest to the public, that this shall be freely given without mentioning names or from whence the information comes and that this committee shall act in an advisory capacity to all physicians of its society in questions relating to publications other than the medical press."



WHERE "SANITATION" IS UNKNOWN—HUTS OF CHINESE BEGGARS

SOCIAL AGENCIES

TOM BROWN AT AUBURN—A BOOK ON THE INSIDE OF A PRISON—BY HASTINGS H. HART

IN HIS BOOK *Within Prison Walls*, "Tom Brown" (Thomas Mott Osborne) has given a remarkable study of the mind of the convict. This book should be read in connection with Donald Lowrie's book, *My Life in Prison*, which portrays the prisoner from the vantage point of actual and prolonged experience but without the advantage of Mr. Osborne's wider knowledge of human life and human philosophy.

Mr. Osborne, having been appointed by Governor Sulzer as chairman of the commission to recommend improvements in the prison system of New York, resolved to become a voluntary prisoner at Auburn and to put himself, as nearly as possible, in the place of the actual convict. He frankly declared his purpose in the prison chapel, asking the co-operation of the officers and prisoners to make his experience as realistic as possible; and they took him at his word.

Mr. Osborne's study is an astonishing achievement for a single week. To break the crust of officialism and, without legal authority, to command the co-operation of unwilling prison officers; to overcome the suspicions and reticence of prisoners, to secure their sympathy with his plan, and to gain admission to the inner circles of convict life; and then to really put himself in the place of the prisoner and to realize how he feels, how he thinks, and to catch his viewpoint—to do all this in a week was an astonishing piece of work. While it was of necessity fragmentary, it was a valuable opening, and the really important part has come since, as will be suggested later. The writer has known prison officers who have associated with prisoners for years without obtaining such a knowledge of their mental processes as Mr. Osborne gained in a week.

Tom Brown entered the prison gates in citizen's clothes and was registered by the receiving officer as "Thomas Brown, 33,333x." He was conducted by an officer to the tailor shop, where, "in a corner of the shop without any screens and in full view of all passers in and out, are three porcelain lined iron bath tubs side by side." He stripped, bathed and dressed in the conventional prison suit and was supplied with "a cake of soap, one towel and a Bible." He was admonished by the principal keeper ("P. K."), was given a copy of the prison rules and was assigned to work in the basket shop.

During the first two days he was catechized as to his past life, occupations and habits by the principal keeper, the chaplain, the doctor, and the clerk of the Bertillon identification system, with much repetition.

It had been agreed with the warden that Tom Brown should be placed, at first, with the "Idle Company"; a group of prisoners who were characterized by one of the officers as "the toughest bunch of fellows in the prison." He was disappointed, therefore, when he found himself in the basket shop where the men were courteous, communicative and helpful, and was astonished after two days to discover that this was the "worst bunch in the prison" of which he had been told. Tom Brown was assigned to a cell 4x7½ feet and 7½ feet high. (Many of the cells are only 3½ feet wide.) Many cells of this kind contain two men each. The cell contained a stool, a folding shelf, a folding bed, a wash basin, a tin cup, a broom, a small wooden locker and an electric bulb.

Tom Brown swung open his cell door at a signal, marched in line, carried out and emptied his own cell bucket, ate prison fare in the prison dining-room (including prison hash), did his stint in the basket shop with refractory material that made his fingers sore, and served on a detail moving railroad cars with block and tackle. He received from his fellow prisoners donations of sugar, of doubtful source, for his oatmeal. He received communications and newspapers from numerous sources by underground communication. He learned to talk without moving his lips and he found himself instinctively joining with his associates "agin the government."

Tom Brown reveals startlingly the horrors of prison life to the man of refined sensibilities—the shock of the first night of cell life when the lights went out. "The bars are so black that they seem to close in upon you,—to come nearer and nearer, until they press upon your very forehead. . . . You can feel the blackness of those iron bars across your closed eyelids; they seem to sear themselves into your very soul. How does any man remain sane, I wonder, caged in this stone grave, day after day, night after night."

He experienced the humiliation of being the object of pursuit by pertinacious curiosity hunters and camera fiends; yet the change in his appearance was so great that he escaped recognition by personal friends who were watching carefully for him. The crowning horror he describes as follows: "The cell house has settled down for the night. Only a few muffled sounds make the stillness more distinctly felt; then—suddenly the unearthly quiet is shattered by a terrifying uproar. It is too far away to hear at first anything with distinctness; it is all a confused and hideous mass of shouting—a shouting first of a few, then of more, then of many voices. I have

never heard anything more dreadful—in the full meaning of the word—full of dread. My heart is thumping like a trip hammer and the cold shivers run up and down my back.

"I jump to the door of the cell, pressing my ear close to the cold iron bars. Then I can distinguish a few words sounding against the background of the confused outcry: 'Stop that!' 'Leave them alone!' 'Damn you, stop that!' Then some dull thuds; I even fancy that I hear something like a groan, along with the continued confused and violent shouting. What can it be!

"The cries continue, accompanied with other noises that I cannot make out. Then my attention is attracted by whispering at one of the lower windows. . . .

"The shouts die down. There are a few more vague and uncertain sounds—all the more dreadful for being uncertain; somewhere an iron door clangs! Then stillness follows, like that of the grave."

Tom Brown reported this mysterious occurrence to the prison warden who promised to investigate. Next day the warden "has inquired into it, he says, and found it was only a case of a troublesome fellow sent up from Sing Sing, who was making some little disturbance in the gallery. After they had admonished him he wouldn't stop, so they had to take him down to the jail. When the officer entered his cell, he threw his bucket at the officer and there was a little row. 'I'm inclined to think,' adds the warden, 'that he may be a little bit crazy, and I'm going to look into it.'"

From his fellow prisoners Tom Brown obtained what he believes to be the correct version of the incident, as follows: "There had lately been sent up from Sing Sing a young prisoner . . . pale, thin and undersized; weight about 120 pounds; age 21." On charge of impertinence to an officer he had been kept in a dark punishment cell five days, on bread and water. (The allowance of water was 3 gills per day.) He was sent back to work but was unfit and, next day remained in his cell ill, but "in spite of his repeated requests, the doctor was not summoned. The reason probably was that he was in the state known in prison as bughouse—that is to say, flighty." . . . "In the evening, he created some disturbance by calling out remarks which violated the quiet of the cell-block. He seemed to be possessed with the idea that his life was in danger."

Tom Brown continues: "Now here was a young man, hardly more than a lad, in a sick and nervous condition that had produced temporary derangement of mind. What course did the System take in dealing with that suffering human being! Two keepers opened his cell, made a rush for him and knocked him down.

During the brief scuffle in the cell the iron pail and the bucket were overturned. Then, after being handcuffed, the unresisting if not unconscious youth was flung out of his cell with such violence that, if it had not been for a convict trusty who stood by he would have slipped under the rail of the gallery and fallen to the stone floor of the corridor four stories below, and been either killed or crippled for life.

"Then the two keepers, being reinforced by a third, dragged their victim roughly down stairs, partly on his back, kicked and beat him on the way and carried him before the Principal Keeper, who promptly sent him down to the jail again" (i. e., the punishment cells).

"If it is realized that these officers have what almost amounts to the power of life and death over the convicts it can be understood that such a warning was not one to be lightly disregarded."

Mr. Osborne certified that this story is fully corroborated by careful inquiry from different men and comments as follows: "Doubtless some will say that the statements of convicts are not to be believed. That touches upon one of the very worst features of the situation. No discrimination is ever made. It is not admitted, that while one convict may be a liar, another may be entirely truthful; that men differ in prison exactly as in the world outside. It is held, quite as a matter of course, that they are all liars, and an officer's word will be taken against that of a convict or any number of convicts. The result is that the officers feel themselves practically immune from any evil consequences to them from their own acts of injustice or violence. What follows from this is inevitable.

"The point is this: that no convict has any rights—not even the right to be believed; not even the right to reasonably considerate treatment. He is exposed without safeguard of any sort to whatever outrage an inconsiderate and brutal keeper may choose to inflict upon him; and you cannot under the present system guard against such inconsiderate and brutal treatment."

Tom Brown continues: "I should not like to be understood as asserting that all keepers are brutal, or even a majority of them." . . . But "we must recognize, in dealing with our Prison System, that many really well meaning men will operate a system, in which the brutality of an officer goes unpunished, in a brutal manner."

In view of this episode, Tom Brown determined to undergo the horrors of the "jail." To this the prison warden very reluctantly consented. It was agreed that he should be treated exactly like a convict under punishment except that a "jail suit" should be cleansed for his use, whereas the ordinary prisoners use them interchangeably, without cleaning. Accordingly, Tom Brown suddenly knocked off work, declaring that the material furnished was unfit and he wasn't going to work any more anyhow. He was ordered to the "jail," which Tom Brown describes as follows: "A vaulted stone dungeon, about 50 by 20 feet, having on

THOMAS MOTT OSBORNE

The prison reformer who spent a week in voluntary confinement at Auburn Prison and has written an illuminating book on the convict state of mind.



one side the death chamber for electrocuting murderers, and on the other side "the prison dynamo with its ceaseless grinding, night and day." "It is absolutely bare, except for one wooden bench along the north end, a locker where the jail clothes are kept and eight cells, of solid sheet iron; floor, sides, back and roof. They are studded with rivets, projecting about a quarter of an inch. At the time that Warden Rattigan came into office there was no other floor; the inmates slept on the bare iron and the rivets."

"The cells are about 4½ by 8 feet and 9 feet high. There is a feeble attempt at ventilation—a small hole in the roof of the cell, which does not ventilate." Two windows in the vaulted room outside admit some light but, except on a bright sunny day, an electric light is necessary in order to see the inside of the cell. "Up to the time of Supt. Riley's and Warden Rattigan's coming into office, the supply of water for each prisoner was limited to one gill for 24 hours.

There is a sink in the outer room but "the sink was not used for the prisoners to wash for the simple reason that the prisoners in the jail were not allowed to wash."

On entrance, Tom Brown was instructed to take off his clothes and put on the jail suit, which had been cleansed in anticipation of his coming. He was carefully searched to discover whether he had any weapon or instrument upon his person. His handkerchief was taken from him, presumably to avoid danger of suicide, because a prisoner once strangled himself with his handkerchief. He was given a small tin water can.

The cell contained no seat, bed, mattress or bedding—nothing except a papier-mache bucket. A convict trusty handed in through a slot in the door a slice of bread and inserted the spout of a tin funnel through which he poured into the prisoner's can exactly a gill of water to last through the night. The officers and the trusty departed and very soon five other prisoners in adjacent cells made themselves known. Then followed an animated discussion on prison fare; ethics of the jail; comparative merits of transatlantic liners, politics, prison reform, etc. Tom Brown says: "On the whole, more intelligent instructive and entertaining conversation it has seldom been my lot to enjoy."

To his surprise he finds that these men, presumably the worst in the prison, are human and even sympathetic.

All prisoners punished, whatever the character of the offense, received the same treatment and in addition to confinement on bread and water were fined 50 cents for each day of confinement: the fine to be worked out at the rate of 1½ cents per day, allowed each prisoner as "earnings." A mark upon his sleeve from that day forward indicates that he has been punished and, if he has previously earned a good conduct bar by a year's perfect record, that bar is taken from him and, finally, some portion, if not all of the commutation time which he may have gained by previous good conduct is forfeited. Manifestly a prison punishment is a serious matter to the convict.

After four hours' confinement Tom Brown was offered liberty but refused to go, having determined to experience the full limit of jail life. They left him

very reluctantly.

As the night wore on he says: "Now that all chance of escape is gone I begin to feel more than before the pressure of the horror of this place; the close confinement; the bad air; the terrible darkness, the bodily discomforts, the uncleanness, the lack of water. My throat is parched, but I dare not drink more than a sip at a time, for my one gill—what is left of it—must last until morning. And then there is the constant whir-whir-whirring of the dynamo next door and the death chamber at our backs."

The prisoners seek to mitigate their misery. One asks, "Say, fellows; what would you say now to a nice thick juicy steak with fried potatoes?" One "sings an excellent ragtime ditty"; another "follows with the Toreador's song from *Carmen*, sung in a sweet, true, light tenor voice that shows real love and appreciation of music."

"This is the place where I had expected to meet the violent and dangerous criminals; but what do I find! A genial young Irishman, as pleasant company as I have ever encountered, and a sweet voiced boy singing *Carmen*."

These entertainments over, the night drags on. The wooden floor proves a hard bed until a prisoner instructs him how to make a pillow of his felt shoes and his shirt. Bed bugs infest the place and after killing one, he imagines multitudes. The sick prisoner accidentally upsets his water can and soon becomes delirious, seeming likely to become a raving maniac. There is no way to summon an officer but one of the prisoners with amazing tact and patience soothes his agitation until he finally falls asleep.

At last Brown falls into a doze but is speedily awakened by a patrolling officer who awakens the prisoners at 12:30 and 4:30 A. M. but refuses his request to renew the water spilled by the sick prisoner because it is "gainst the rules."

At 6 A. M. on Sunday Tom Brown is released from his punishment, convinced that the "System" is illogical, antiquated, barbarous, cruel and destructive to the character of prisoners and officers alike. He is exhausted, body and soul; but he finds strength to make a chapel address to the prisoners, which must have been memorable. The prisoners are tremendously impressed by the fact that this man of education, culture and wealth has voluntarily endured for six days the same treatment as themselves. In the endeavor to understand their situation and, if possible, to improve it they recognize that the cell and the march and the shock and the dungeon affect the man of culture and refinement more keenly than the ordinary prisoner; but the thing that affects them most profoundly is the vicarious character of his act. They would almost apply to it the words of the prophet Isaiah: "Surely he hath borne our griefs and carried our sorrows."

Mr. Osborne is not content to discover and reveal the vices of the prison system but he seeks a practical remedy. Jack Murphy, a prisoner in the shops gave him the basic idea. Mr. Osborne says: "For some years I have felt that the principles of self-government might possibly be the key to the solution of the

prison problem; but as yet I have not been able to see clearly how to begin its application.

"Jack agreed with all those with whom I have talked that the long stretch in the cells, from the conclusion of the chapel service, between ten-thirty and eleven o'clock Sunday morning until seven Monday morning—over twenty hours, is a fearful strain both physical and mental upon the prisoners.

"Well, Jack," I say "from what I have heard Superintendent Riley say I feel sure he would like to give the men some sort of exercise or recreation on Sunday afternoons; but how could it be managed! You can't ask the officers to give up their day off, and you don't think the men could be trusted by themselves, do you?"

"Why not?" says Jack.

"I look at him enquiringly."

"Why, look here, Tom! I know this place through and through. I know these men; I've studied 'em for years. And I tell you that the big majority of these fellows in here will be square with you if you give 'em a chance. The trouble is they don't treat us on the level. I could tell you all sorts of frame-ups they give us. Now if you trust a man, he will try and do what's right; sure he will. That is, most men will."

"Do you really think, Jack, that the superintendent and the warden could trust you fellows out in the yard on Sunday afternoons in summer?"

"Sure they could," responds Jack. . . . And there could be a band concert. . . . and it would be a good sight better for us than being locked in our cells all day. You'd have fewer fights on Monday, I know that."

"But how about the discipline! Would you let everybody out into the yard! What about those bad actors who don't know how to behave! Won't they quarrel and fight and try to escape!"

"But don't you see, Tom, that they couldn't do that without putting the whole thing on the bum, and depriving the rest of us of our privileges! You needn't be afraid we couldn't handle those fellows all right. Or why not let out only those men who have a good conduct bar! That's it!" He continues, enthusiastically warming up to his subject, "That's it, Tom, a good conduct league, and give the privilege of Sunday afternoons to the members of the league."

This suggestion of Jack Murphy bore practical fruit. Soon after his "discharge" Mr. Osborne, with the co-operation of the Superintendent of Prisons and the Warden of the Auburn Prison succeeded in establishing a Good Conduct League composed of prisoners, with officers elected by their fellow prisoners. The prisoners are given the liberty of the yard on Sunday afternoons, with a greatly reduced force of guards. They march to and from their cells and their work under the direction of prisoners. They prepare entertainment with the permission and approval of their officers. This plan has now been in operation for several months without the slightest disorder or accident and with marked improvement in the spirit and behaviour of the men.

Mr. Osborne's demonstration makes it

clear that those who believe that severity is an essential part of prison methods need not worry. Every convict is punished. When you pillory a man before the world as a criminal, transport him by public conveyance and march him through the streets in irons, put him behind prison walls, deprive him of his liberty, subject him absolutely to the will of another man who holds practically the powers of life and death, lock him in an ill-ventilated prison cell, 4½ by 7 feet (perhaps with an uncongenial cell mate), dress him in prison garb, exhibit him to curious visitors at 25 cents per head, subject him to strict compliance with thirty to fifty exacting rules on pain of loss of privileges and increase of term, restrict his correspondence to two censored letters per month, permit him to see his wife and children only in the presence of an officer and clad in prison garb—under these circumstances no one need question that the prisoner is punished, even though he may have the privilege of listening to a band concert and watching a base ball game once a week, conversing with his fellow convicts in subdued tones at meals and witnessing a moving picture show once or twice a month. Let it never be forgotten that the convict is punished!

Those who ridicule or condemn Mr. Osborne's adventure make a mistake. It may have been sensational, but there was need of a sensation. His experiment was valuable because it was sincere and because it has brought out the truth.

But there are other prisons! We wish that Mr. Osborne, or some one equally discerning, would allow himself to be arrested, guilty or not guilty, as a suspect of some crime. Let him be subjected to the inquisition of "the third degree," regardless of the rights that are supposed to be guaranteed to every citizen that he shall be deemed to be innocent until proven to be guilty. Let him experience starvation, buffeting insults and detectives' lies.

Then, by all means, let Mr. Osborne's representative await trial in a county jail and discover the beauties of a System twice as vicious as the Auburn Prison System. Let him be thrust into a steel cage and exhibited like a wild beast in a menagerie. Let him share his cell with five other prisoners in a place where he cannot keep himself free from vermin, where he cannot take a bath, and be forced into intimate association, day and night, with a mob of prisoners who are kept in idleness, with no occupation except to corrupt one another and to concoct plans to escape.

It is a good thing to call the attention of the public to the deficiencies of the convict prisons, and the public ought to know that Sing Sing is, and has been for many years, far worse than Auburn. Think of a prison where rheumatism and tuberculosis form an inevitable part of the prison sentence for a large proportion of the prisoners! But the prison problem of the state of New York can only be solved by a thoroughly organized and persistent attack under the leadership of tried and expert men and women. Prisons, like other educational institutions, must be manned by superintendents of proved training and efficiency.



Finger Prints

A NARROW SQUEAK

Theodore C. Merrill, M. D.

She was brave, industrious, was Little Woman, married to a brave, industrious, but poorly informed Little Man. Little Woman stayed properly at home and cared for her nest; Little Man daily went forth to labor at very particular steel things.

Little Woman could do everything about the house; Little Man could do just one thing connected with the manufacture of finely graduated calipers or gauges, capable of measuring the thickness—or rather, the thinness—of writing-paper.

It is not the purpose of this account to describe the conditions of Little Man's job; suffice it to say that he had to spend many bent-over hours each day away from fresh air, benevolent sunlight, and healthful out-of-doors. The development of tuberculosis in Little Man was natural. He wasn't very robust by birth; he wasn't informed about tubercular infection; and all he could do was to "plug along at the job."

Of course, when he became unable to do his work well, that is to say, when "the boss kicked too much," he consulted a doctor. The doctor, a busy man who wrote and talked mechanically, prescribed a mechanical remedy for the mechanic who was to swallow it; for he said that the mechanic's trouble was a "chronic cough." And thus it was that Little Man had a narrow squeak.

The doctor had a medical friend who, himself, had taken chances, gone to Texas, or Arizona, or New Mexico, or somewhere in "the Southwest," and it occurred to the Eastern man, as it occurs to so many Eastern men, that the Southwest was the very place for sick, helpless mechanics who have every opportunity of finding sustenance in a region where factories are practically unknown and specialized mechanisms entirely of the imported variety! So Little Man listened to the advice which pointed him to life-giving prairie air and provided miraculously for work, and went home to Little Woman to talk things over and count up cash. Little Woman knew that Little Man must do something for himself, and, equally that she must do something for them both. Therefore, she would take in sewing or go after it, in that wonderful Southwest of plenteous jobs, while Little Man might work at something—or other—which-the-Lord-would-provide. In this simple way, Little Man would speedily get well, home would hold to-

gether, and a vacation outing would take the place of the mechanical misery of graduated gauges. Cash? They counted it. They had just about one hundred dollars besides the expense of a journey to the Southwest.

It never occurred to them not to trust the doctor—he had often and often trusted them!

It never occurred to the doctor not to trust his own mechanical prescription. He had no time to study rash and dust and other mysteries of very particular steel things.

So the doctor sent the young couple away to the Southwest, omitting to notify his friend the Southwest doctor about them until they were on the train. Then it was too late for the Southwest doctor to do anything but think unprintable things when he learned that he was to meet at the train two ignoramuses fighting tuberculosis and expecting to find jobs waiting under the slim and scanty foliage which competed with cactus for the limited moisture of air and soil.

The "ignoramuses" hadn't written ahead to ascertain about board or a place to stay, or the number of sewing-women in the community. They were going to Healthdom. That was enough. Hadn't the doctor said that?

So they got off the train and smiled just as hard as their new doctor did and the smiles looked almost exactly the same—as hopeful as hopeful could be.

The new doctor examined Little Man and found moderately advanced, but not necessarily hopeless, tuberculosis. The young mechanic had a fighting chance provided he could rest, live in cozy quarters and have good food.

To understand possibilities, the new doctor had to have a private talk with Little Woman. With this doctor of the Southwest, private talks had become almost as mechanical as the prescriptions of his eastern confrère—thank God, not quite!

The new doctor sent Little Man with a letter to the foreman of railway machine shops in the next town—the only mechanical industry in the vicinity.

While Little Man was gone, the new doctor gently explained to Little Woman that she could not earn more than a dollar a week there by sewing or other labor. There were many other women in the locality adding to pin-money, or killing time, or waiting for death to carry away a loved one—all just so many factors contributing to use up money and decrease chances for remuneration.

About the time Little Woman was

crying her eyes out, all by herself, at the terrible prospect she was facing, Little Man came back, smiling cheerily because he hadn't been able to find work and didn't wish to bother wifey with a trifle synonymous with Despair. But he didn't smile when he went to see the Southwest doctor and have a private talk of his own.

The new doctor probed. Little Man had a brother in Manitoba. (Prairie country, that! fresh air! out-of-doors! New doctor felt hope all through him.) Then he asked, falteringly, if the brother could help take care of Little Man for a time.

Hurrah! Brother was not only fully able to support Little Man, but would fairly love to do so. Hurrah indeed! But why—why in—in Heaven—hadn't the Eastern doctor sent Little Man out to Manitoba at once, thereby saving this needless waste of travel expense to the Southwest?

Little Man didn't know.

"You've got just enough money to get you both to Manitoba," pointed out the Southwest doctor. "Hike, while times are good. In three weeks, if you stay here, you'll be on the county—and how would you like that for medicine? Your chance is in Manitoba, not in the Southwest."

So Little Man, mustered up quite a genuine smile, after all, at leaving the Southwest instead of at living there!

In Manitoba he got well. But it was a narrow squeak. "Find out first, find out first," adjures Little Woman; "and be sure to make Eastern, or Western, or Northern, or Southern doctors translate for you and explain all about any prescription beginning, 'Take first train to another climate.'"

JOHN, FINANCIER

Mary June Woods

"No, I can't do it. If John wants spending money he'll have to get it by working, because I can't give it to him," said Mr. Count to his wife, when she asked him to give John a monthly allowance.

"But it isn't unreasonable," said John's mother almost tearfully.

"I know it isn't, but I haven't the money. I'll talk to John and explain it to him." And the father went about his work.

"All the other boys have spending money. John didn't ask for it but told me what the other boys had to spend. I guess I'll try to get some work; then I can give him a small allowance," the mother concluded.

When John came home from school the next day he seemed to be happier than usual. His mother noticed it, but said nothing.

That evening as he was washing the dishes for her he said, "Mother, where do you get our drinking water?"

"From Perrin's, John. Why?"

"Did you ever drink the depôt water?" asked the boy.

"Yes, I have. It is very good, too." "Why don't you use it? It doesn't cost anything."

"I know it doesn't, but Perrin delivers the other," answered Mrs. Count.

"How much do you pay?"

"It usually costs me a dollar a week."

Mrs. Count went about her work and John went to the library to read. He read awhile, soon he dropped the book into his lap, sat with his eyes closed for a few moments, then went to bed.

The next morning he started off to school earlier than usual. All morning Mrs. Count was planning to try to get orders for bread, which would supply John with spending money. But, meantime, John was thinking about what he could do for himself.

At noon he rushed into the house and said, "Mother, will you pay me fifty cents a week if I bring drinking water from the depôt well?"

"Yes, John, I will."

"All right then. I have eight customers at fifty cents a week. Why, I'm earning four dollars a week!"

"Why, John, how does this happen?" asked his mother.

"Father told me that he couldn't give me spending money. He said it was about all he could do to give me enough to eat and to wear without any spending money."

"Yes, that is so. Your father is having a hard time just now. But tell me, how did you happen to get all these customers? Bringing water just to us would give you two dollars a month," said his mother.

"I know it would, but I made up my mind that if father had such a hard time, I'd help by buying my own clothes. If you think that it's necessary, I'll stop school and go to work."

"No, that isn't necessary, John."

"All right. But I'll earn four dollars a week anyway," and John chuckled gleefully.

Week after week he saved his money. When he had twelve dollars, he began to feel the cares of the capitalist. How should he invest his hoard? One night at the supper table, he said to his father. "If I buy the material will you help me build a fence around the back of the lot so that I can raise chickens?"

"Yes, I'll help you. I don't believe that you'll have to buy anything. I think that you can use those laths in the shed, can't you?"

The laths were decided upon and the fence put up. The parents were interested in knowing what kind of chickens John would invest in, but left him to decide for himself. The day after the completion of the fence, John came down the street whistling. He had a Plymouth Rock hen under his arm, which he released in the new chicken yard, and then he went proudly into

the house.

"Could I borrow a basket, mother?" he asked with an air of importance.

"Of course, but what—"

"I bought a setting hen for fifty cents and I can buy a setting of some fancy kind of eggs for one dollar. I want to get some and set her. I've made a nest in the shed."

"John, how are you going to feed these chickens?" his mother asked.

"Oh, I have made arrangements with the Hutchins,' and the Browns,' and the Berrys,' to carry away their garbage after I bring water to them."

For the next few weeks John was very busy. He had to get up much earlier than usual to make the rounds of his "water customers," as he called them,

turning garbage man afterward. He burned the papers, hauled the cans in his wagon to a nearby dumping place, and brought the food scraps home to feed his chickens. At first, before the little chickens were hatched, the food supply was so far greater than the demand that he was forced to bury a part of it. But when the old hen brought out her brood at last, and the chickens grew, he found use for it all.

By and by he had eggs to sell. His "water customers" and his egg income let him pay for his own books, his clothes, and still add something to his savings account each month besides. And his question now, from time to time, is, "Do you know where I could lend ten dollars, father?"

Personals

AT a recent meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, Charles J. Hatfield, M.D., of Philadelphia, was elected executive secretary of the association to succeed Livingston Farrand, M.D., who became president of the University of Colorado in January.

Dr. Hatfield is well known to anti-tuberculosis workers. He has always taken a prominent part in the tuberculosis movement in Philadelphia where he served as president and assisted in the reorganization of the Pennsylvania Society for the Prevention of Tuberculosis. He has also been attending physician at the White Haven Sanatorium for a number of years. With the reorganization of the Henry Phipps Institute for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis under the University of Pennsylvania,

three years ago, Dr. Hatfield was made one of the directors. For the last two years he has been executive director of the institute, in which capacity he is serving at present.

As executive secretary of the national association, Dr. Hatfield will make his business headquarters in New York, while retaining his home and other medical and official relations in Philadelphia.

Philip P. Jacobs continues as assistant secretary of the association, Dixon Van Blarcom as field secretary, and C. Milton Clark as office secretary.

JOHN P. Sanderson, Jr., will become general secretary of the Buffalo Children's Aid Society on September 1. Mr. Sanderson first became interested in social work through the efforts of Fred-eric Almy, who has inspired many men with the spirit of social service and it is fitting that Mr. Sanderson should be going to this Buffalo organization which Mr. Almy was instrumental in starting.

Mr. Sanderson, who is a Michigan man, attended Cornell University during 1910—entered the service of the Buffalo Charity Organization Society in 1911, resigning in April, 1913, to become extension secretary of the Boston Children's Aid Society, which surrenders him with regret to Buffalo.

The Buffalo Children's Aid Society was organized in 1872 as a newsboys' home. It was incorporated in 1883. In 1910 it organized a Children's Bureau Department, the latter performing a general service for needy children. The society has an important field of service in the western end of New York state and the cordial relations existing among all of the important charities in Buffalo provide a fertile field for the working out of a children's program for that community.

Mary S. Haviland, who has been the secretary of the Children's Bureau, resigned on July 1.



CHARLES J. HATFIELD, M.D.
Executive secretary of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

UNDER the new ordinance passed by the Chicago City Council creating a Department of Public Welfare, Leonora Z. Meder has been appointed by Mayor Harrison to the position of commissioner. Mrs. Meder has been for years active in Catholic social work and is still the president of the Protectorate of the Catholic Women's League. Mrs. Meder is a native of Kentucky and has had the education of a lawyer. Her duties under the ordinance will be the general management and control of the Public Welfare Department, and she will have power to appoint, under the civil service law, all subordinate officers and assistants.

The ordinance creates two bureaus in the department, one on employment which shall operate the municipal lodging houses for men and for women, and gather information concerning work and unemployment conditions. No head has as yet been appointed for this bureau.

For the other bureau, that on social surveys, John Palendach has been appointed. Mr. Palendach is one of the most influential Servians in Chicago and is the editor of two papers, *The United Servian* and the *Balkan World*. He is also president of the American Association of Foreign Publishers. He has been in the United States about twelve years. He is enthusiastic over the possibilities inherent in the scope of his department which is to make inquiries into living conditions, vagrancy, crime, poverty and recreation.

JOTTINGS

According to recent regulations of the Local Government Board of Scotland, all cases of tuberculosis, pulmonary and otherwise, must be reported. Such reports will be considered confidential to avoid annoying publicity.

A commission to consider revision of the penal laws has been authorized by the Pennsylvania Legislature and appointed by the governor. Two of the members are Edwin M. Abbott of Philadelphia and Warden McKenty of the Eastern Penitentiary.

Arizona, Idaho, Nevada, Wyoming and Alaska are the only states in which there is no legislation on the subject of tuberculosis. A report on laws in the other 48 states appears in a recent bulletin published by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis.

The report of Chief Health Officer Mason, of the Panama Canal Zone, includes the first month's expense account (May) of the new insane colony at Corozal Farm. Expenses were somewhat over \$1,000. Farm-grown products sold (lettuce, tomatoes, eggs, pineapples, guinea-pigs, and much else), netted over \$700, making the net cost per patient per day, twenty-six cents.

Calendar of Conferences

AUGUST AND SEPTEMBER CONFERENCES

AGRICULTURAL DEVELOPMENT AND EDUCATION OF AMERICAN BANKERS' ASSOCIATION, Committee on. Fourth Annual Conference. Chicago, September, 1914. Sec'y, B. F. Harris, Champaign, Ill.

CATHOLIC CHARITIES, National Conference of. Washington, D. C., September 20-23. Sec'y, Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

CATHOLIC FRATERNAL INSURANCE SOCIETIES, Conference of. Held in conjunction with American Federation of Catholic Societies.

CATHOLIC SOCIAL REFORM MOVEMENT, Conference of. Held in conjunction with American Federation of Catholic Societies.

CATHOLIC SOCIETIES, American Federation of. Baltimore, Md., September 27-30. Sec'y, Peter E. Dietz, 443 University Bldg., Milwaukee, Wis.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Canadian Conference of. Fifteenth Annual Meeting. Toronto, September 16-18. Gen. Sec'y, Arthur H. Burnett, City Hall, Toronto.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Minnesota State Conference of. Bemidji, Minn., September 26-29. Sec'y, Otto W. Davis, Civic & Commerce Ass'n, Minneapolis, Minn.

DISEASES OF OCCUPATION, Third International Congress on. Vienna, September 21-26. Sec'y, Dr. Alice Hamilton, Hull House, Chicago.

HOME EDUCATION, Fourth International Congress on. Philadelphia, Pa., September 22-29. Gen. Sec'y, Mrs. J. Scott Anderson, Torresdale, Phila., Pa.

HOSPITAL ASSOCIATION, American. St. Paul, Minn., August 25-28. Sec'y, Dr. H. A. Boyce, Kingston General Hospital, Kingston, Ontario.

LABOR LEGISLATION, International Association for. Berne, Switzerland, September 15-17. American Sec'y, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23d Street, New York.

SCHOOL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION, American. Philadelphia, September 22-29. Sec'y, Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York, N. Y.

UNEMPLOYMENT, International Association on. Paris, September 18-19. American Sec'y, John B. Andrews, 131 East 23d Street, New York.

LATER MEETINGS

INTERNATIONAL.

CHILDREN'S WELFARE, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstrat 106, Amsterdam, Holland.

CHRISTIAN CITIZENSHIP CONFERENCE Third World's. First week in July, 1916. Sec'y, Rev. T. D. Edgar, Wilkinsburg, Pa.

EUGENICS, CONGRESS, International. New York City. About September 20, 1915.

PRISON CONGRESS, Quinquennial. London, England, July 26, 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

SOCIAL WORK AND SERVICE, International Congress on. State, Municipal and Vol-

untary. University of London, South Kensington, May 31-June 5, 1915. Acting Sec'y, D. R. Sharpe, Denison House Vauxhall Bridge Road, London, S. W.

NATIONAL.

CONSUMERS' LEAGUE, National. Fifteenth Annual Meeting. Washington, D. C., December 10-11. Gen. Sec'y, Mrs. Florence Kelley, 106 E. 19th Street, New York.

CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY, American Institute of. Washington, D. C., October 20-22. Sec'y, Henry Winthrop Ballantine, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

HOUSING ASSOCIATION, National. Minneapolis, Minn., October 21-23. Sec'y, Lawrence Veiller, 105 East 22nd Street, New York.

HUMAN ASSOCIATION, American, Atlantic City, N. J., October 5-8. Sec'y, Nathaniel J. Walker, Albany, N. Y.

INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, National Society for the Promotion of. Richmond, Va., week beginning December 7, 1914. Sec'y, C. A. Prosser, 140 West 42nd Street, New York.

INDUSTRIAL SAFETY, National Council for. Chicago, October 20-22. Sec'y, W. H. Cameron, c/o Continental and Commercial National Bank, Chicago.

INFANT MORTALITY, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fifth Annual Meeting. Boston, Mass., November 12-14. Exec. Sec'y, Miss Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.

JEWISH WOMEN, Council of. Seventh Triennial. New Orleans, La., December, 1914. Exec. Sec'y, Miss Sadie American, 448 Central Park West, New York.

MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENT, American Society of. Boston, Mass., October 6-9. Sec'y, Charles C. Brown, Wulsin Building, Indianapolis, Ind.

MUNICIPAL LEAGUE, National. Baltimore, Md., November 17-21. Sec'y, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, North American Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.

PRISON ASSOCIATION, American. St. Paul, Minn., October 3-8. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.

PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION, American. Jacksonville, Fla., November 30 to December 5. Sec'y, Prof. S. M. Gunn, 755 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION, American. Held in connection with the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis. Assembly Hall of the Metropolitan Life Building, New York, October 9-10. Sec'y, Dr. Donald R. Hooker, Baltimore, Md.

STUDENT PROHIBITION CONVENTION, National. Topeka, Kansas. December 20, 1914, to January 1, 1915. Exec. Sec'y, Harry S. Warner, 156 W. Washington St., Chicago.

WORKERS FOR THE BLIND, American Association of. San Francisco, Cal., 1915. Sec'y, Charles F. F. Campbell, 911 Franklin Avenue, Columbus, O.

STATE AND LOCAL.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Indiana State Conference of. Madison, Ind., October

17-20. Sec'y, A. W. Butler, 93 State House, Indianapolis, Ind.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Iowa State Conference of. Fort Dodge, Ia., November 15-17. Sec'y, P. S. Peirce, State University, Iowa City, Ia.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Maine State Conference of. Eighth Annual Meeting. Bangor, Me., October 20-21. Sec'y, James F. Bagley, Augusta, Me.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Maryland State Conference of. Easton, Md., November, 1914. Sec'y, Wm. H. Davenport, 514 Garrett Bldg., Baltimore, Md.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Missouri State Conference of. Springfield, Mo., November 1-3. Sec'y, Oscar Leonard, 901 Carr Street, St. Louis, Mo.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, New York State Conference of. Utica, N. Y., November 17-19. Sec'y, R. W. Wallace, Box 17, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Ohio State Conference of. 24th Annual Conference. Columbus, O., November 11-13. Sec'y, H. H. Shirer, 1010 Hartman Building, Columbus, O.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Pennsylvania State Conference of. Harrisburg, Pa., November 17-19. Sec'y, James Struthers Heberling, Redington, Pa.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Texas State Conference of. San Antonio, Texas, November 15-17. Sec'y, R. J. Newton, State Capitol, Austin, Texas.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Virginia State Conference of. Bristol, Va., Fall of 1914. Sec'y, Joseph T. Mastin, State Board of Charities and Corrections, Richmond, Va.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Wisconsin State Conference of. Racine, Wis., September 29-October 2. Sec'y, J. L. Gillin, Madison, Wis.

CHARITIES, Massachusetts State Conference of. Boston, Mass., November 10-12. Sec'y, Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont Street, Boston, Mass.

EXHIBITIONS

INTERNATIONAL.

GERMAN ARTISANS' EXPOSITION. Cologne, May-October, 1914.

HYGIENE, Exposition of. Stuttgart, Germany. Middle of May to end of October, 1914.

PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION. San Francisco, Cal., February 20-December 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Alvin E. Pope, San Francisco, Cal.

PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION, San Diego, Cal., January 1-December 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego, Cal.

SAFETY AND SANITATION, Second International Exposition of. Grand Central Palace, December 12-19. Under direction of the American Museum of Safety, 29 West 39th St., New York.

URBAN EXPOSITION, International. Lyons, France. May 1-November 1, 1914. General Director, Dr. Jules Courmont, Hotel de Ville, Lyons, France.

NATIONAL

SOUTHERN HEALTH EXHIBITION, with American Public Health Association convention, Jacksonville, Fla., November 27 to December 7.

STATE AND LOCAL

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION, Grand Central Palace, New York. September 5-26. Information may be secured by addressing F. J. Oppenheimer, 500 Fifth Avenue, New York.

INFORMATION DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organization is doing, but membership is not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. *Always enclose postage for reply.*

Children

CHILD LABOR—National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen B. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

CHILD HELPING—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence, printed matter and counsel relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS—National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth Ave., New York, Charles F. Powelson, Gen. Sec'y, Anna Louise Strong, Director of Exhibits. Bulletins covering Results, Organization, Cost, Construction, etc., of Child Welfare Exhibits. Will assist cities in organization and direction. Exhibit material to loan.

CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE—American Assoc. for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality. 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request. Traveling Exhibit. Urges prenatal instruction; adequate obstetrical care; birth registration; maternal nursing; infant welfare consultations.

Health

SCHOOL HYGIENE—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., Dr. Henry M. Bracken, Chairman State Board of Health, St. Paul, Minn. Sec'y, Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York. Yearly congresses and proceedings.

MENTAL HYGIENE—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City, Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

PUBLIC HEALTH—American Public Health Association, Pres., Wm. C. Woodward, Washington; Sec'y, S. M. Gunn, Boston. Founded for the purpose of advancing the cause of public health and prevention of disease. Five sections: Laboratory, Vital Statistics, Municipal Health Officers, Sanitary Engineering and Sociological. Official organ American Journal of Public Health, \$3.00 a year published monthly. 3 months' subscription, 50 cents. Address 755 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

SEX HYGIENE—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, 105 West 40th St., New York City. Edward L. Keyes, Jr., President. Six educational pamphlets, 10c each. Quarterly Journal, devoted to sex education, \$1.00 per year. Dues—Active, \$2.00; Contributing, \$5.00; Sustaining, \$10.00. Membership includes current and subsequent literature. Maintains lecture bureau.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Object: to stimulate the extension of public health nursing; to develop standards of technique; to maintain a central bureau of information. Publications: Pub. Health Nursing Quarterly, \$1.00 per year, and bulletins. Address Ella Phillips Crandall, R. N. Exec. Sec., 54 East 34th St., New York City.

LIFE EXTENSION INSTITUTE, Inc., E. E. Rittenhouse, Pres. Gives life extension service to subscribers. Service No. 1 \$3.00 a year; Service No. 2 \$5.00 a year. Consists of periodic health examinations, inspection service, and health bulletins on disease prevention. Head office 25 West 45th St., New York City. Phone—Bryan 1997—1998.

NATIONAL HEALTH—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Exec. Sec., Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

TUBERCULOSIS—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Charles J. Hatfield, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

SOCIAL HYGIENE—The American Social Hygiene Association (Inc.), 105 W. 40th St., New York. Div. Offices: Chicago, McCormick Bldg.; San Francisco, Phelan Bldg. Full information on request. Individual and society membership. The Association is organized to promote sound sex education, the reduction of venereal diseases, and the suppression of commercialized vice. President, Charles W. Eliot. Executives, James B. Reynolds, Counsel; William F. Snow, M.D., Gen'l Sec'y.

CANCER—American Society for the Control of Cancer, 289 Fourth Ave., New York City. Curtis E. Lakeman, Exec. Sec'y. To disseminate knowledge concerning symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publications free on request. Annual membership dues \$5.

Employment Exchange

SOCIAL WORKERS' EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE—The Department for Social Workers of the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations registers properly qualified men and women for positions in social, religious and civic work. The needs of organizations seeking workers are given careful and prompt attention. Emma P. Hirth, Manager, 130 East 22d Street, New York City.

Libraries

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION—Furnishes information about organizing libraries, planning library buildings, training librarians, cataloging libraries, etc. *A. L. A. Booklist*, a monthly annotated magazine on book selection, is a valuable guide to the best new books. List of publications on request. George B. Utley, Executive Secretary, 78 E. Washington St., Chicago.

Aid for Travelers

AID FOR TRAVELERS—The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex. For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Sec'y., 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

Remedial Loans

REMEDIAL LOANS—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 130 E. 22d St., N. Y. Arthur H. Ham. Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

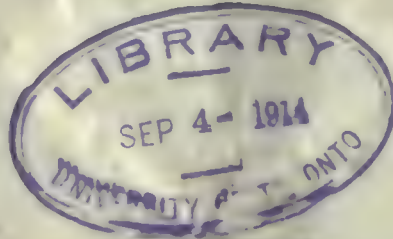
Recreation

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON RECREATION—A classified list of significant publications on recreation giving publisher, price, and printed description. Cities issuing reports on recreation administration are also included. Price 10 cents. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22d Street, New York City.

RECREATION—Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y. Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

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THE SURVEY



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By John T. McCutcheon
From the Chicago Tribune



The Sport of Kings

SURVEY ASSOCIATES

PUBLICATION OFFICE
105 East 22d Street
New York

INCORPORATED

Robert W. deForest, President
Arthur P. Kellogg, Secretary Frank Tucker, Treasurer

WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 22

Contents

August 29, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

REDUCING FIRE PERIL IN HOSPITALS	535
AMERICAN WAR RELIEF ABROAD AND AT HOME	535
NEW YORK'S NEW PLAN OF STREET CLEANING	536
FAILURE OF SEATTLE'S PROPOSED NEW CHARTER	537
AN EMPLOYER'S EXPERIMENT WITH UNION METHODS	537
A UNION PARADISE AT CLOSE RANGE, By John A. Fitch	538
FIELD NOTES OF A VACATIONER, By Frank A. Manny	540

THE DELIVERY BOY	Madeline Sweeney Miller	540
----------------------------	-------------------------	-----

SOCIAL AGENCIES

OUR DORMANT STATE INSTITUTIONS	Robert W. Kelso	541
A NORTH CAROLINA ANSWER TO SOUTH CAROLINA	S. R. Winters	542
JOINT CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND SOCIOLOGICAL FORCES IN COLORADO	C. R. Henderson	543
TEACHERS FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED		543

EDUCATION

A MAYOR AND A BIG CITY'S EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS	Winthrop D. Lane	544
MOBILIZING WITH THE NATION'S EDUCATIONAL FORCES		544
TRAINING CITIZENS WITH "SPUNK" FOR SOCIAL SERVICE	Edward Alsworth Ross	547

BOOK REVIEWS		548
------------------------	--	-----

FINGER PRINTS

JUST JOHN	Miriam Allen de Ford	551
---------------------	----------------------	-----

COMMUNICATIONS		553
--------------------------	--	-----

JOTTINGS		554
--------------------	--	-----

Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents. Changes of address should be mailed to us ten days in advance.

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ENTERED AT THE POST OFFICE, NEW YORK, AS SECOND CLASS MATTER

PHOTO PUBLICITY



SLIDES and PHOTOGRAPHS on SOCIAL SUBJECTS
HINE PHOTO CO., Lincoln Park, Yonkers, N. Y.

The GIST of IT—

THE Eden of labor, unionism, Butte, Mont., was visited by the federal Industrial Relations Commission. With all workers organized—from miners to waiters, and machinists to bootblacks—this paradise nevertheless fell on evil days. How dissension and riot came about, how Charles H. Moyer's life was threatened—this time by unionists who thought him too conservative instead of by employers who thought him too radical—were matters explained in some measure by the testimony on general labor conditions in Butte. Page 538.

DEAN SCHNEIDER of Cincinnati and Supt. Wirt of Gark, Ind., have submitted to the New York board of education their recommendations for vocational education in that city. Mayor Mitchel expresses himself on the problems involved. Page 544.

SOME points of agreement and disagreement among 5,000 teachers assembled at St. Paul last month. Page 544.

SNAP shot paragraphs made on a mountain tramping trip show a group of pictures from the helps' "steerage" in a summer hotel to a camp in the midst of bushels of berries where seventy boys ate berries expressed from town. Page 540.

RIVAL pickets of his non-union waitresses were tried by an employer when his restaurants were beset by union pickets in the Chicago waitresses' strike. But the strikers were not provoked to disorder—which they charge was the employer's purpose—and continued their "silent picketing" with unabated vigor. Page 537.

"OUT in the world are the great prizes; go in and win" is too often our inspiration to youth today, said Professor Ross, addressing the teachers at St. Paul. We must counteract the anti-social spirit still found in commercial life by training citizens with "spunk" for social service. Page 547.

NEW York's plan to safeguard her hospitals against fire is at last under way. Page 535.

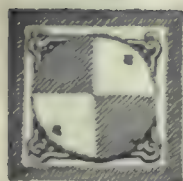
WHILE doing the utmost to relieve distress at the front in Europe, America's war relief plans should consider the poverty frontier at home. Page 535.

COLORADO'S social workers discuss public welfare—from rural hygiene to the labor troubles—and try to work out a social program for state and nation. Page 543.

UNIVERSITY men in North Carolina conducting a school for Negroes give an effective answer to Governor Blease of South Carolina who does not believe in Negro education. Page 542.

STUDY by state institutions of their functions, records, laboratory data and relations to other institutions, may result in important economy and progress in dealing with their real problems—all of which may be lost if institution staffs are so entangled in administration that they cannot undertake such study. Page 541.

THE SURVEY



COMMON WELFARE



REDUCING FIRE PERIL IN HOSPITALS

BY ORDER of the commissioner of charities, John A. Kingsbury, the work of installing an adequate system of fire prevention and life protection in the hospitals and other institutions of the department is to proceed at once.

The plans proposed by H. F. J. Porter and A. L. A. Himmelwright, consulting engineers, include the installation of the "horizontal escape" which Mr. Porter suggested three years ago, after the Triangle fire, and which he described in *THE SURVEY* for July 15, 1911. He has already successfully introduced this safety feature into high and crowded factory buildings.

The "horizontal escape" is accomplished by providing a wall across a building from cellar to roof, with a doorway in it on each floor. In case of fire the occupants on every floor on one side of the wall are notified by a signal and they immediately pass through the doorway to the safe section of the building, closing the fire door after them. They can then descend down elevators and stairs operated under normal instead of panic conditions.

It is pointed out that this method is practically the only safe one for institutions in which invalids are housed. Many such helpless people could not use any sort of vertical escape.

After several months of delay due to the necessary investigations and reports and the need of smoothing out legal difficulties, the work is now to be pushed rapidly. The Department of Correction has asked the Board of Estimate for permission to have the system extended into its buildings. Bellevue Hospital has already had its buildings surveyed and has asked for an appropriation to have them similarly overhauled.

It is understood that health and charities departments in other cities have been waiting for the decision of the New York city authorities, and will now utilize the same system. The changes in New York will involve also fire alarm systems of special design, doing away with steam whistles and large gongs possible in factories but entirely out of place in hospitals where inmates might be seriously affected by noise and excitement.



FREDERIC C. HOWE

Appointed by President Wilson as commissioner of immigration at the port of New York. As a member of the Cleveland city council, as a state senator, and as vigorous supporter and friend of Tom L. Johnson, he was identified with civic and social effort in Ohio. Representing the United States government he made in 1906 an investigation of municipal ownership in Great Britain.

He has been lecturer on taxation at Western Reserve University, and on municipal administration and politics at the University of Wisconsin. He will go to his important work at Ellis Island from the People's Institute in New York where he succeeded the late Charles Sprague Smith as director.

Mr. Howe's books on economic subjects and civic affairs have been widely read, and include: *The City—the Hope of Democracy*; *The British City—the Beginnings of Democracy*; *The Confessions of a Monopolist*; *Privilege and Democracy in America*; *Wisconsin—An Experiment in Democracy*; and *European Cities at Work*.

AMERICAN WAR RELIEF ABROAD AND AT HOME

THE AMERICAN RED CROSS relief ship is now expected to sail for Europe before September 1. In addition to the plans as told in *THE SURVEY* for last week, the announcement is made that Major Robert N. Patterson, of the Army Medical Corps, regularly detailed as chief of the first aid department of the American Red Cross, will sail on it in charge of the ten hospital units which are to be deposited at the most available ports of the countries desiring them. Helen Scott Hay of Chicago, whose departure for Bulgaria to take charge of the proposed Bulgarian nurses' training school was indefinitely postponed on account of the war, will also sail on the relief ship as directing head of the Red Cross nurses.

Meanwhile the American Red Cross reiterated its urgent call for contributions toward financing the ship. Special appeals to summer resorts are meeting with response, and substantial help is expected through the co-operation of business organizations, representatives of which were called together in Washington. The Bush Terminal Company has given the use of storage room at its wharfs in New York for the supplies which are to be sent on the ship, and Col. S. L. N. Slocum, U. S. A., retired, has volunteered his services which will be used in the supervision of the supplies.

Thus far the departure of reservists for Europe has not necessitated any considerable relief for their families left in this country. Only two such families have thus far come to the Joint Application Bureau maintained by the New York Charity Organization Society and the Association for Improving the Condition of the Poor. But executives of relief agencies point out that when the savings of such families are exhausted, there may be a different story to tell.

Already the New York State Charities Aid Association reports a visit from a representative of one of the French societies of New York city, who said that in a short time 400 women with children, whose bread-winners had gone back for army service, would be in need of work. They wanted it made plain that they were not asking charity but

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From the Chicago Tribune

The Colors



Gold and Green are the Fields in Peace,



Red are the Fields in War;



Black are the Fields when the cannons cease,



And White for evermore.

only a chance to support themselves and their families.

In view of the relief problem which thus looms up, a relief agency executive made the point that the national organizations throughout the country which are raising funds for war uses in their home lands might do well to consider the claim which reservists' families, stranded here, may have on their resources.

An earnest request has been made to President Wilson by the Federal Council of Churches of Christ in America that he renew at the first favorable opportunity his offer of good services to the European nations at war. This is the first action by the council since the re-

turn of its delegates to the Church Peace Conference at Constance, Germany. This was held on August 2, but re-assembled in London. Of the 150 delegates expected from twelve nations, about 85 succeeded in reaching Constance. The difficulties of many delegates in traveling to the conference, were followed by still more serious ones in their journeys from it, two delegates even being arrested. At the very moment when the armies were being mobilized the conference sent to European rulers and President Wilson an urgent and solemn appeal to avert the war.

What effect may be secured by the concerted campaign throughout the

country against the rising food prices, remains to be seen. As a result of the investigations conducted in many cities by the federal Department of Justice, it is reported that indications have been found of well-organized conspiracies of retailers to hold up prices. Indictments are expected in Washington, Brooklyn, Chicago and three other cities.

In New York, Mayor Mitchel appointed a special committee, under the chairmanship of George W. Perkins, to make appeals for the patriotic co-operation and active influence of big interests engaged in handling food-stuffs. District Attorney Whitman is conducting an inquiry to discover any price agreements among dealers in provisions. Governor Glynn, through the state superintendent of weights and measures, is seeking information on prices. A similar effort is being made by Mayor Curley of Boston through the inspectors of the Board of Health.

In view of news reports from European countries telling of the war-time activities of the boy scouts, the chief scout executive of the Boy Scouts of America, James E. West, has issued a statement reiterating the non-military character of the organization.

Mr. West points out that all connected with the movement here and abroad are conscientious and firm in advocacy of universal peace. He further calls attention to the fact that the European dispatches report the boy scouts as being engaged in doing all they can to relieve distress and suffering. In Germany they have volunteered to gather the harvests. In England they are offering service as messengers where lines of communication have been cut, and as patrols along exposed lines of communication. The Red Cross is organizing scouts to assist in its work, and it is reported that the boys may be called on to help care for the wounded.

NEW YORK'S NEW PLAN OF STREET CLEANING

WITH THE MAIN object of making New York a more healthful place to live in Commissioner John T. Fetherston, of the Street Cleaning Department, has determined upon a step that may revolutionize methods of cleaning the city. This is to set aside a particular district and to see what improvements over present cleanliness can be accomplished in that district by the use of the most efficient machinery and methods known. The Board of Estimate and Apportionment has granted \$253,000 for the experiment and it is expected that the work will be started next spring.

The district chosen is bounded by Twelfth and Fortieth streets and Sixth avenue and the East river, an area containing nearly every type of city quarter. Not all features of the proposed plan have been worked out, but the main one will be the replacement of

horses with motor trucks. To each truck can be fitted three types of trailers, one for street flushing or sweeping, one for refuse disposal and one for snow removal. This both extends the functions and increases the possible hours of work of vehicles.

For collecting garbage and ashes each building will be provided with standard cans having covers attached. Vehicles will be covered and in place of open dumps at the water front there will be closed transfer stations. Thus present nuisances from odors, flies, dust and loose paper will be abolished.

The new methods are based largely on those in use in Berlin.

FAILURE OF SEATTLE'S PROPOSED NEW CHARTER

THE MAXIM "When in doubt, do nothing" is assigned as one of the reasons for the defeat several weeks ago of Seattle's proposed new charter, which would have made that city the largest in the country employing a city manager. The charter was lost at a special election, when no personal issues were involved, and only one-fourth of the registered vote was cast.

Other reasons for its defeat were the more energetic campaigning of those opposed to its radical changes and the absence of any deep-seated dissatisfaction with the present regime.

It is possible that an attempt will now be made to amend the existing charter so as to include some of what are thought to be the superior features of the defeated instrument. The charter made an administrative separation of the business activities of the city from the humanitarian and cultural activities. Libraries, parks and playgrounds, amusements, housing, unemployment, municipal farms, charitable, correctional and reformatory institutions, together with delinquency, crime and other social problems were put under the control of the mayor, to be managed by a public welfare commission of three unsalaried members appointed by him.

All the business activities, such as public works, contracts, purchases and supplies, engineering, public utilities,



RIVAL PICKETS IN THE CHICAGO WAITRESSES' STRIKE—REPRESENTING EMPLOYER AND UNION

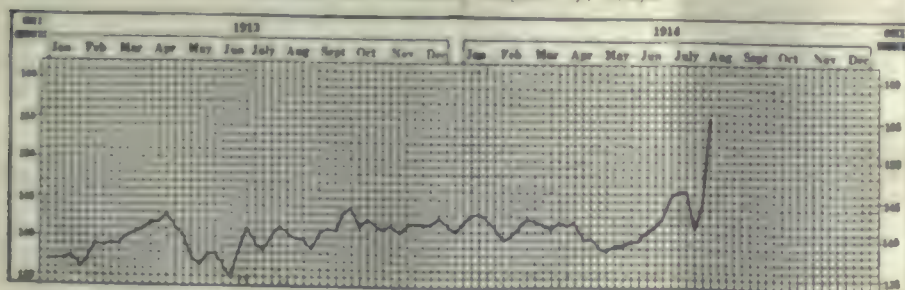
streets and sewers, buildings, health and sanitation, were put under the control of the city manager. This official was to be elected by the council. His salary was fixed at \$12,000.

The fifteen freeholders who prepared the charter worked out a system of counting the returns from the preferential voting, which was prescribed not only for popular election but for all elections by the council. The voter was to be allowed to indicate his preferences among the candidates for any office by writing the figure 1 opposite the name of his first choice, 2 opposite the name of his second choice, and so on.

If any candidate received a majority of all first choice votes he was to be declared elected. If not, the total of second choice votes of each candidate was to be divided by two and the quotient added to his first choice votes. If this gave no one a majority, the total of third choice votes for each was to be divided by three and the quotient added to the sum of first and second choices. If no majority was obtained by the time all preferences had been treated in this manner, the candidate having the most votes as a result of all additions was to be declared elected.

WAR AND THE HIGH COST OF LIVING

[From the *Annalist*, August 17, 1914.]



An index number is a means of showing fluctuations in the average price of a group of commodities. The *Annalist* Index Number shows the fluctuations in the average wholesale price of twenty-five food commodities selected and arranged to represent a theoretical family's food budget.

AN EMPLOYER'S EXPERIMENT WITH UNION METHODS

EMPLOYERS' PICKETS, as a counter move to picketing by the union, were a recent development in the strikes of Chicago waitresses. The center of interest shifted last May from the restaurants of the Henrici Company to the Knab restaurants, nine in number. As told in *THE SURVEY* for May 23, this employer refused to renew his contract with the unions in order to become a member of the Chicago Restaurant Keepers' Association.

His union waitresses struck and at once began "silent picketing" with placards pinned on their shirt waists, calling attention to the strike and saying to the public

WITH YOUR ASSISTANCE
WE WILL WIN OUR STRIKE
AT KNAB'S.

Knab objected vigorously to this picketing, but could not stop it, for the waitresses simply walked back and forth in front of his restaurants during meal hours, and there was no charge on which he could prosecute them. Finally it occurred to him to try the same tactics. He detailed some of his non-union waitresses to walk back and forth by the side of the union pickets, wearing placards with such statements as

I AM ONE OF KNAB'S
WAITRESSES. KNAB IS
FAIR.

HAS KNAB THE RIGHT
TO SELECT HIS OWN WAIT-
RESSES? THAT IS THE
ONLY MATTER IN DISPUTE.

The union waitresses believe that this was done with the intention of provok-

ing trouble. But if such was the purpose, it was not accomplished, for the union girls had learned in their struggle with the Henrici Company to control their actions. They even hailed the move with the declaration that although Knab had objected to picketing he now did it himself, and that therefore perhaps his objections to signing the union

contract might similarly disappear.

Knab contends that he pays union wages or better, and gives union hours. The union says he did not do this until on January 1 he signed the contract which he refused to renew on May 1, and that his latter action was one step in the efforts of the Restaurant Keepers' Association to crush the union.

A UNION PARADISE AT CLOSE RANGE—BY JOHN A. FITCH

BUTTE, MONT., is famous all over the country as a closed-shop union town. It has ranked with San Francisco in the public mind as a labor paradise, with the advantage, if any, in favor of Butte, because of its small population and single large industry making it easier to handle.

Strange stories are told of Butte. A commercial traveler told me of a brother drummer living there whose house needed a coat of paint. He planned to save money by doing the job himself during a vacation. For this infringement on the rights of the workingman, the union demanded his discharge—and got away with it.

A Butte business man saw an advertisement in a magazine one day, depicting a completely equipped bathroom, luxurious to the last degree. It so took his eye that he unthinkingly sat down and ordered the whole outfit. It arrived in due course. Not a plumber in Butte would install it.

The union rate for carpenters in Butte is \$7 for an eight-hour day. That doesn't mean that you pay only \$7 a day, however. Carpenters can be hired only through master carpenters, and they have a fixed scale, too. Carpenter work actually costs therefore, \$9 a day. So also with plumbers. The journeyman gets \$8 a day and the master \$4. \$8 plus \$4 equals \$12, which is what you pay.

All workers are organized in Butte, from miners to waiters, from machinists to bootblacks. And the closed shop is the invariable rule.

It was in this Eden of unionism that a storm broke out a few weeks back. A riot took place, property was destroyed, heads broken, one man killed and others severely wounded, and a party of men had to flee from the town to avoid instant and violent death.

What had happened? Was there a strike or a lockout in progress? Was some employer trying to smash the union, and were there scabs to be beaten up? Far from it. No one had breathed a whisper against the closed shop. The broken heads belonged to union men, and the breakers of heads carried paid-up union cards. Union men put 500 pounds of dynamite under the Miners' Union Hall. The leader of the fugitives was Charles H. Moyer, president

Probing the Causes of Unrest

X

The tenth of a series of interpretations of the hearings before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission by a staff representative of The Survey.



of the Western Federation of Miners, and the men who would have killed him had been for years members of Butte Local No. 1 of that same organization.

It was not to inquire into this riot that the United States Commission on Industrial Relations went to Butte and held public hearings the first week in August. Their itinerary which included Butte was mapped out last February. In the course of the commission's hearings, however, some of the causes became apparent.

But first, a brief statement of what actually occurred. June 13 is Miners' Union Day, the anniversary of the organization of the Butte local. It is to Butte what Labor Day is elsewhere. There is a big parade in the morning, with bands. The miners march first, and after them come all the other unions in town. There are between 6,000 and 7,000 miners employed in Butte, for it is the home of the Anaconda Copper Company, the great subsidiary of the Amalgamated Copper Company.

All the miners belong to the union—the Western Federation of Miners. Yet there were not 500 miners in the parade this year. Thousands of them lined the streets instead. When the parade, with Riley, president of Local No. 1, riding at its head, reached a corner where two of the principal streets of Butte meet, a sudden attack was made. Riley was thrown from his horse. The 500 were beaten and told

to go home. The parade ended right there. Then the attacking party went to the union hall and "audited the books," as one miner told me. They destroyed them, smashed windows and furniture, and took the safe from the denuded building, blew it open and took \$1,065 from it.

Then they proceeded to organize a new union, known as the Butte Mine Workers' Union. After that things were comparatively quiet for a time. Charles H. Moyer, president of the Western Federation of Miners, came to town to see what could be done in the way of conciliation. It is said by the insurgents that he did not confer with any but the "conservatives" who remained loyal; that he surrounded himself with an armed guard, and that when he finally called a meeting, the invitation to attend it was not general.

Accordingly, a few members went into the union hall, and several thousand surrounded it, waiting to see what would happen. Both sides were apparently nervous, and when some commotion occurred on the street it is said that those in the building opened fire on the crowd. The fire was returned, with no effect on the brick walls. Then some one cried, "If we can't get Moyer out of office any other way, let's blow him out." Dynamite was secured from a nearby mine, placed at intervals under the walls, and the building was wrecked. Moyer and his associates would have been killed had they not climbed through a rear window while the dynamite was being placed, and made their escape in automobiles.

The hearings developed that the eight-hour day is universal in the copper mines and smelters of Butte and Anaconda. There has been a state law to that effect since 1901. Somewhat modifying this favorable condition is the fact that there is no regular Sunday shut-down, the mines operating practically continuously seven days a week. In this connection the amazing fact developed that not only does the Western Federation of Miners have no rule against seven-day labor, as the United Mine Workers have, but the membership generally insist on being permitted to work seven days a week.

When Butte Local No. 1 of the Western Federation of Miners, was organized in 1878, a wage scale of \$3.50 a day for all underground workers was established. So far as the testimony shows, there was no change in this scale until 1907, when an attempt was made to raise it to \$4. This was opposed by the Anaconda Company, and the agreement reached established a sliding scale, based on the selling price of copper, with a minimum of \$3.50 a day. Under this scale wages reached \$4 for a time, but have averaged \$3.75.

The Butte mines are deep and on the lower levels the ventilation problem is

acute and the heat intense. The Anaconda Company has installed fans that force air into the mines. The increase of forced ventilation in the last ten years amounts to more than two million cubic feet of air per minute. Last year \$275,000 was spent for this purpose, according to C. F. Kelly, vice-president and general manager of the company.

In spite of that it was shown that the tuberculosis death rate among the miners is high. Two investigations of tuberculosis in Butte have been made. One, by an agent of the Industrial Relations Commission, placed the responsibility for its prevalence on mining conditions. The other, by Dr. Tuttle, formerly state health officer, laid more emphasis on insanitary home conditions, and insisted that it was impossible to tell whether the mines, home conditions or alcoholism were the leading cause.

The Anaconda Company has an arrangement with a private hospital, by which it collects and turns over to the hospital \$1 per month from each miner, in return for which the hospital agrees to treat the miners for everything except contagious or venereal diseases. This system came in for a vigorous denunciation from Dr. C. H. Horst, health officer of the city of Butte. He laid the prevalence of tuberculosis directly to this system.

"To cure tuberculosis you must take it at the beginning," he said. Instead of doing this, he declared that when the hospital doctors find a man has tuberculosis they do nothing for him but send him back to the mines where he works until he can work no longer—then he dies. "These doctors contract to take care of the miners, but they don't do it," said Dr. Horst. "They continue to collect the \$1 a month, however."

Dr. Thomas J. Murray, head of the Murray Hospital, which has the Anaconda contract, admitted that only non-contagious diseases and injuries are treated. He testified that during the last year the hospital has received \$6,000 to \$8,000 a month from the miners.

The complaint of the insurgent Butte miners may be reduced to two main points: the fact that mining conditions have not improved more rapidly, and the levy of special assessments, which they consider excessive. The former was emphasized in the testimony. Thirty-six years is a long time to wait for wages to advance 7 per cent—from \$3.50 to \$3.75 a day—especially when other crafts in the town are getting \$7 and \$8 a day. The cause for this was declared to be domination of the union by the Anaconda Copper Mining Company. The evidence of such domination the witnesses found in the actions of the faction in control.

A curious fact developed that surprised the labor members of the commission. The Butte local has had no regular machinery for the adjustment of grievances. It has apparently ac-

quiesced fully in the assertion by the company of its right to discharge men at will with or without reason. In 1912 several hundred men were discharged by the Anaconda and other companies for no other reason than that they were members of the Socialist party; and the union after sending two committees to the management and getting no satisfaction, took a referendum vote and decided to drop the matter.

On another occasion a strike was ordered by referendum vote, against a system of records established by the company. The officers simply failed to call the strike and nothing further was done.

Great dissatisfaction prevailed over the assessments levied during the last

appealed, and the meeting sustained the chair's ruling.

There were other minor grievances. The president got into a fight with a miner and was whipped, whereupon he secured the offender's discharge. It was admitted even by "conservatives" who remained with the old union that the faction in control had been high-handed, that assessments had been forced on the union, and that the 600 or so who could crowd into the union hall had not been representative of the miners.

What the final outcome will be remains to be seen. The insurgents claim 95 per cent of the miners of Butte. Those loyal to the old union concede 75 per cent. A movement is on foot to



UNION HALL, BUTTE, DYNAMITED BY THE INSURGENT MINERS

year. Part of the time dues and assessments together have run as high as \$5 a month.

The charge was made that for years the union has been run by "company men." The union hall would hold only about 10 per cent of the members. It was charged that whenever any matter of moment came up the company would let men whom it trusted go to the meetings on company time, with instructions as to their votes.

It was charged that this element kept itself in power by controlling the machinery of election. A movement was made to have voting machines installed. When this question came up in a meeting the president declared it lost and refused to recognize a demand for a division of the house. At a meeting where an assessment of \$3.50 a month for the Michigan strikers was voted, a member moved to submit the matter to a referendum vote, and the president refused to put the motion. The member

amalgamate the Western Federation of Miners with the United Mine Workers of America. The insurgents say they will go in if there is a real merger, and the Western Federation of Miners completely swallowed up. But if there is to be a "metal department" of United Mine Workers with the old Western Federation officers in control, they will remain aloof.

Meanwhile Charles H. Moyer, who was beaten and shot, and deported from Calumet, Mich., because he was so dangerous a radical, doesn't dare come to Butte for fear of what the miners will do to him. And in Butte the miners who stick to the Western Federation of Miners—the mere name of which strikes fear to the hearts of all who feel called upon to guard the country against anarchy—are known by many as conservatives and company men. It all goes to show that you can't believe everything you see in the papers—even the labor papers.

A TRAMPING trip through the mountains offers many chances for change of thought. One can in a week's time sleep in the open, in a hay-mow, on top of Mount Washington in a stage bunk, in a mountain hut, and in a first-class hotel. Meals can have as wide a range, but none are more interesting than those taken when lack of evening clothes sends one around to the "help" dining hall or the steerage, as some call it.

One finds a mixed group of college and normal school students, young immigrants, servants from the country towns and, most striking of all, the itinerant hotel workers. This class, like that found in asylums and other public institutions, enjoys travel. A summer in the mountains and a winter in Bermuda, Colorado next, then California and back to Atlantic City by way of Asheville. Many of them make "big money" but few retain much.

The housing conditions of these helpers deserves a special study. Guests seldom know much about the life of those who serve them. One manager talked freely about his difficulties. The most troublesome class, he stated, were the college men or as he called them "the school boys." They are efficient but they find it hard to see that the rules that apply to others are for them as well. They are used to privilege and want to carry on their larks even when others are seriously disturbed by them. Is this a vestige of the days of privilege when the college had its own court?

ONE finds many Dartmouth men in charge of the mountain huts, the stage houses, etc. Some of them are remarkably fine fellows. This college seems to have studied splendidly its out-of-door-life possibilities and to have worked out well its own winter life. The book issued by the Dartmouth Outing Club would be a good source of suggestions on the natural development of physical activities for any institution.

THE automobile folk dash by furiously and look pityingly at the walkers who have stopped for a bath in the Saco and to read Vernon Lee's *Ariadne of Mantua* while afternoon tea is preparing over an alcohol burner. At the foot of one mountain a big machine stopped, and out of it father, mother and

Field Notes of a Vacationer

by

Frank A. Manny

Teachers' Training School,
Baltimore

two grown sons—splendid types all of them—took cots and tents for a camp. But to most of the riders there is nothing but rush—two minutes for the "Great Stone Face"—"Under a cloud—too bad—drive on," and then the hotel for the night.

A COMPANY of camp fire girls in the free life of the mountains is a sight that would shock some of the conservatives. But what womanliness bloomers do make possible for outing trips! Walls and fences can be passed gracefully without worry about limbs and petticoats. The feminine yields to the human.

THE visitor to the average boys' camp wonders why some form of productive activity does not appear in the schedule. I have seen hundreds of bushels of berries wasting near a camp where seventy boys ate berries expressed from Boston!

This summer a company of boy scouts have done a good work in trail making down the Wild River. It is hoped that the success of the experiment may be made known in a form that will reach many camp leaders.

DOWN on the Piscataqua is developing a camp of unusual significance. The son of the poet, Sidney Lanier, and his wife have succeeded in steering clear of the shoals which so easily strand those seeking freedom from convention. One finds there a wholesome, sane, in-

telligent, happy life for adults and children.

The most distinctive development is that of the festival. Peter Dykema of Wisconsin University, James Oppenheim, Miss Porter of the Children's Theatre, and many others have contributed to a festival life which includes the daily bean and berry picking as well as the great frolic following haymaking. A pageant rich in color and symbolism, it represents the movement of life in the camp. The *Pioneers* was written by James Oppenheim as a part of one of these celebrations.

The heart of the camp appears in the scenes in Bible Drama given on Sunday afternoons in the Pines. Sidney Lanier recites the greater part of the text, standing like a prophet of the new order in the center of the grove, while around him form the settings of the old Bible stories. Early in the season there is the Creation; later comes the day of the Cross; and, at the close of the season, the Nativity. A small organ and a violin furnish the music. The costumes are very effective but simple. The audience, especially the children, have learned by participation in production to feel themselves a part of what others produce. Altogether one feels that the spirit is much like that of Ober Ammergau at its best. There is excellent acting done by many of those taking part yet the few necessary preparatory exercises are themselves religious exercises.

A VISIT to some of the encampments of cadets and a study of their drills and mock battles raises again the question that came first when I studied the military service of young Italians and Germans. The Peace Society ought to publish a report on those elements in military training which deserve to be freed from militarism and carried over into general education.

AND now I am back at the summer home where one's first energies go to insuring a supply of wood, water and milk. The farmer's wife to whom I appealed looked at me wonderingly and said, "Why don't you use condensed milk? We do." For cream and milk our country community has been obliged to fall back upon railway express service from the city. Surely it is not the simple life here but it is different.

THE DELIVERY BOY

MADELEINE SWEENEY MILLER

I'VE noticed that no one has bothered to write
The praise of a poor little shivering mite
Like me in a story or leather-bound book
To read in the glow of a warm ingle-nook;
No painter sees art in my wind-blistered cheeks
Or picturesque poses in me ever seeks;
I'm nothing unusual, nothing sublime,
I'm only worth while when I "get there on time."
I'm never too tired to be sent out at night
At someone's request for fresh thrills of delight;
It may be a dress, or it may be a flower,
Whatever it is, it must come on the hour.

How seldom the voice at the door tells
me "Thanks"?
How rarely one heart from the great
human ranks
Inquires of my soul if it be weak or well,
When maybe I'm verging the borders of Hell.
For no one has thought me a subject for song
Or singled me out from the hustling throng;
I'm nothing unusual, nothing sublime,
My gentlest endearment is "Get here on
time."

—From *Songs from Smoke*.

SOCIAL AGENCIES

OUR DORMANT STATE INSTITUTIONS—BY ROBERT W. KELSO

No COMMUNITY of English-speaking people has thus far in history continued long without the development of systems for the relief and repair of broken citizenship. Sympathy for the unfortunate is sometimes given as the cause of this development. The true reason is collective self-defense.

Whoever in a community transgresses the rules by which the entire group of citizens regulate their rights and advance the common good is a menace to the common weal and must be made by force to conform to the laws. Whoever in such a community falls ill and is thereby incapable of self-support becomes a burden upon anyone who will give him aid.

In an enlightened state the tendency is ever to throw such a burden upon the mass of the public, taking the cost from taxation. And if there be in that community any citizen who for lack of stamina or through defective mind cannot maintain himself and his, he too becomes a burden, which modern civilization tends to place upon the shoulders of the public.

To maintain such burdens the state institutes methods of incarceration for delinquents and enters upon systems of relief in institutions and aid in the home. However obvious the play of sympathy for the unfortunate may be in the carrying out of these enterprises by the state, the fundamental purpose must always be the protection of the entire group, that is to say, the public welfare.

If this analysis be accepted, it must follow therefrom that in the process of administering state institutions the individual to be relieved cannot constitute the sole consideration. The first object is the public well-being; the individual case comes second and is to be interpreted only in the light of the first.

And there is another consideration arising from these premises. If the welfare of all the people is the primary consideration, it must follow that every individual falling into public distress or coming to public charge, whether innocently or otherwise, is the proper subject of study on the part of that public to the end that like dependency and care may be prevented in the future.

The briefest inspection of public institutions throughout the country will show that this fundamental reason for the existence of such state enterprises is largely lost sight of. Food, furnishings, fuel, the farm, all the endless detail of the prison, the hospital or the school loom large in the minds of the authori-

ties. This is so in the very nature of things; for always where two lines of thought, each calling for action, are presented to an administrative officer, of which the one is abstract, demanding a study of the principles of government, and the other is concrete, presenting problems of purchase, of furnishing, of assigning tasks, of construction of buildings, it is inevitable that the abstract process with its greater demands upon logical thought and imagination will suffer.

The defect therefore lies not so much in the personnel of present administrative forces as in the system by which our state institutions are carried on. One or two familiar examples will serve to show the defect, and foreshadow a partial remedy.

Rip Van Winkle finds his way to a state institution. He is taken in and found to be suffering from a frosted foot, the result of tramping on the highway. He is unknown to us till we see his face. The foot yields rapidly to treatment. Rip is given light work in the bakery, and it is only then discovered that he despises work as a child hates castor oil.

Time goes by; the weather moderates. Spring has come and Rip departs, better nourished than before, better clothed, clean-shaven,—for all of which the public has paid. The door closes after him and we see him no more—till cold weather. Behind Rip stands a record which concentrates its energy upon a frosted foot. He is known only by that foot. Yet in truth that was but a minor injury; the real trouble with Van Winkle was his aversion to work. It is by perseverance in manly toil that we fulfill each man his station in this world. That is the philosophy of enduring government; but Rip is not of such a cult. Yet he is among us and of us, and if he does not support himself the rest of us will certainly be obliged to pitch in and do it for him. He represents a fragment of the dead load which we as a community of citizens must carry upon our shoulders unless perchance we can discover some remedy for his aversion to work. But we didn't advance our research very far into the causes of that weakness by confining ourselves to his frosted foot.

Let us view the point from a slightly different angle in another example. Delia is the mother of several children. She has recurring fits of insanity, during which she receives the best institutional care and treatment that the country affords. The records of one state institution are filled with the history of her several attacks and the treatment given.

One of Delia's boys is serving sentence for crime—he likes to burn buildings. Consequently another institution carries a record of his commitment, his duties and his treatment.

There is still one other institution interested. Delia's oldest daughter has had to be "sent away" and her illegitimate child turned over to the public to support. She herself shows beyond doubt that she is feeble-minded and is probably delinquent only because she is defective. A third institution, therefore, is laboring with this girl, devoting time, energy, and public money in an attempt to give her back to the community better than she was received.

There is by the average procedure of today no systematic way in which these three institutions may know that they are interested in one and the same family. Each is dealing with its charge as an inmate whose existence for institutional purposes begins at the moment of admittance and terminates with discharge or at the end of parole. To make an exhaustive study of the other children, the husband, and the progenitors of the group is apparently beyond the scope of each or of all three institutions.

It is easy to guess at the causes of



The Japan Peace Movement is the monthly organ of the Japan Peace Society and the American Peace Society of Japan. It is printed in two languages. Its front cover is in English and its back cover in Japanese, as shown above.

dependency in this case. But it remains a guess. Not knowing the facts, we guess at them; and guessing at the facts we can do no better than guess at the causes of the problem proving so costly in blood and money. Almost unlimited opportunity is constantly slipping by for using the institution as a laboratory.

It has sometimes been argued that the administrative force of modern public institutions is far too busy to make special study of its system of keeping records; of its relationship to other public enterprises; of its laboratory data at present lying idle in the records; and that consequently all such assistance must be hired at great expense. The difficulty with the argument is that its view is too narrow.

It is true that the working force is usually below a proper quota and that superintendent and staff are constantly overworked. But it does not follow that the machinery for research cannot be produced without excessive cost. The frequent interpretation of the proposal to create such machinery is that the intensive study of any phase of the institutional field means the employment of numerous statistical clerks at so much per month or per year. This is the point at which the view is too narrow.

Research in the field of sociology requires skill of a high order and cannot usually be bought in the shape of a statistical clerk. Its best mode results from the close co-operation of a group of skilled persons each fired with the spirit of discovery and an ambition to add to the fund of human knowledge.

And such assistance can be had for the asking. At the present day it would be necessary only to make known a willingness to aid and abet the study in all ways open to the administration. Hundreds of colleges, professional schools, scientific associations and organizations formed for the purpose of special research stand ready to furnish talent at any time it may be assured of welcome by the public institution.

In some localities such studies have been undertaken with results that have gone far beyond expectation. And a valuable by-product has been contagion of the zeal for betterment, so that the administration of the institution has reacted with a fine spirit of service.

A humble example, within the writer's personal knowledge, will serve to illustrate the point. On the island of Penikese, in Buzzard's Bay, Massachusetts maintains a hospital for lepers.

Location upon this no-man's-land resulted from the cry of "unclean" with which the public inhumanely met the problem of segregation for lepers. To the authorities in charge of the hospital it soon became apparent that unless a motive above the mere love of gain were permanently assured the tendency of the institution must be toward the condition of a colony or exile for outcasts, rather than a modern hospital providing the best known means of care and treatment.

Those same authorities believed that every public institution should be constituted a station for scientific research.

Adding their problem to their belief they reasoned that not only should such a hospital as Penikese with its admirable facilities for isolation be made a base for the scientific study of leprosy, but also that the very life of the institution as a hospital depended upon inspiring the staff with an intense scientific zeal.

The desire to secure the talent for a special study of leprosy was made known to the heads of Harvard Medical School. The response was immediate. At the present time, after the lapse of a year, the conclusions from preliminary studies are adding to the world's knowledge of this disease. The staff at Penikese is fired with ambition to accomplish more than kindly care and treatment; and the patients who formerly were often seen to flee to their cottages upon the approach of a visitor, now importune the physician with requests that they be allowed to contribute something, though it be ever so little, to his experiments.

As a part of the co-operative plan, the resident physician is made a fellow of the Medical School, and his superior officer in the school is visiting pathologist. Experiments are carried out in collaboration in which the talent and the facilities afforded by the School's great laboratories are brought to bear. The work is further supplemented by a medical advisory committee. So far as the public taxes are concerned, the outlay has been limited to a negligible charge for travel.

Magnify this small example a thousand times by bringing about the same condition in some of the populous institutions which present so many problems of dependency, of sickness, of mental defect, and it becomes apparent how well worth while it may be to enlist the bona fide students who are numerous in every community in a careful survey and analysis of all the functions of our state institutions.

A NORTH CAROLINA ANSWER TO SOUTH CAROLINA —BY S. R. WINTERS UNIVERSITY OF NORTH CAROLINA

South Carolina has enacted a law prohibiting white people from teaching in schools where Negroes are taught unless the consent of the county Board of Education is first obtained. Gov. Cole Blease, in championing the bill, said, "Any white man who will sit at the presidency of a Negro college, in my opinion is about as low as it is possible for any man with a white mother to get and is unworthy of the association of any decent gentleman."

The activities of students who are members of the Y. M. C. A. at the University of North Carolina indicate that the spirit of this South Carolina legislation does not characterize the feeling of all white people toward the Negroes. For these students at

Chapel Hill, N. C., have undertaken a campaign for the betterment of the Negroes of their community.

The University Y. M. C. A. had long felt that its work should not be confined altogether to the campus. It recognized its duty to co-operate in efforts for community uplift. And it considered the Negro settlements as vital parts of the community.

The entering wedge was a series of lectures on Negro life in the South. Imported speakers, members of the university faculty and students took up various aspects of the problem.

The actual study of the Negro settlement covered occupation, location of homes, home ownership, number of children in families, size of house, water used, etc. The investigators found health conditions above the average of Negro settlements in the South.

While there was room for improvement in sanitary conditions, yards and home surroundings were fairly clean. A case in which a pig was kept in the house with only a partition and a door between the sleeping quarters of the pig and the people, was perhaps the most extreme instance discovered. A large proportion of the Negroes own their own homes.

The most important educational effort is a night school, chiefly for Negro boys from 12 to 20 years old, who are at work during the day. Ten college students are helping in this school, which is conducted five nights each week. Arithmetic and history are the favorite subjects of the Negro student, and in them he makes progress most readily. Grammar seems difficult to grasp and the school aims to drill it into the student by requiring him constantly to write themes. A good example is shown at the left.

The interest of the pupils is shown by their regular attendance. The expenses of the school are paid from subscriptions raised by the pupils.

"DOING THE PAST WEEK"

"the greatest thing that happened to me Doing the past week"

"Was trouble about my work, on the past Wed. as I thori my work was don all wright and neetly don mr. Jones came in. ask me how was getting along. I of corse told him all wright Sir."

"He then looked up ward and sed I dont think so. Would you call this room clean with all of these spider webbs in it. No sir. No sir. I just hadnt seen them. I then went to work and cleaned them out."

"that caused me to think about my other Building, soon as I had finished there I went strait to the Pebody Building, first thing I don was to clean the spider webbs out."

"Prof. Noble came in and sed you are thortful you are the very one we need around here. I then thanked him."

"that made me think that a wise man wont make the same mistake twice so I must be wise."



CUTTING THROUGH POVERTY HILL

Pecking at Poverty Hill by individual effort is slow work. Organized effort acts like a steam shovel. From cartoons by the Associated Charities of Des Moines, Iowa.

JOINT CONFERENCE OF CHARITIES AND SOCIOLOGICAL FORCES IN COLORADO—BY C. R. HENDERSON

THE EXTENSION division of the University of Colorado brought together on the heights and in the clear atmosphere of Boulder, a "sociological conference." In a week of discussion men and women of various professions, representing many points of view, considered vital human interests. On the opening evening, in the vast hall of the university, some historical aspects of philanthropy were presented.

It was urged, with authority, that the disposal of garbage, consideration of sewer gas and plumbing, and pure food laws, while esthetically and economically interesting, have comparatively little to do with health; that more attention should be given to tuberculosis, infant mortality, venereal diseases. The chief means of arming the community against disease is education, instruction and training in hygienic habits. Medical colleges are called upon to train health officials, and communities are urged to employ them and provide adequate funds, since health has its price. Rural hygiene, with reference to Colorado conditions, was noticed.

The meeting on charities and correction opened with a strong paper on public outdoor relief. This form of relief is necessary, and almost universal; in the few cities where it has been abolished the results are in dispute. This form of charity, while inevitable and desirable, is also dangerous, especially when disguised as "mothers' pensions." To save outdoor public relief from bankruptcy, it must use the friendly visiting service whose value has been demonstrated in voluntary charity organizations. The state has resources and can be depended upon, but it needs to be supplemented by private organizations.

The Colorado prison system of working convicts ("citizens") on the mountain roads was sympathetically explained. The system of reformatory institutions of the state was described and their chief defects pointed out.

At almost every session emphasis was laid upon the school, the university and other educational institutions. Very im-

pressive was the plea that while the church loyally helps the school in guiding the young, the sensational newspaper and the depraved theater are agencies of depravity. It is unjust to charge the public school with failure to shape character when so many vicious influences are permitted to gain control of youth.

Naturally just now in Colorado, industrial problems excited the most intense interest. The striking miners were represented by their attorney and several members of the unions. A lawyer representing the corporations declared that there is only one question at issue. There is not and never has been any grievance; the trouble has all been made by walking delegates backed by public officials too cowardly to enforce the laws protecting life and property. The only thing to do now is to hang the assassins and their supporters. Generally, however, there was manifest a desire to see all sides of the problem.

At the last session many of the constructive suggestions of the week were summarized in a statement of a "social program for state and nation." All sane citizens agree that law must be obeyed, life and property be held sacred, and liberty guaranteed by government. But men are coming to believe that government is more than a big policeman with a club; that it has moral duties and is the agency and instrument of the common will, its end the common welfare. Democracy protects property, even that of corporations guilty of fraud and corruption, but it also insists that property must justify itself by its beneficence. Whether this responsibility is enforced by compelling combinations to dissolve into competing units; or by license and control through commissions, or through public ownership, the people are determined to find some way to be masters.

A social program for wage-earners and all who are economically dependent while politically free and powerful will permit and regulate collective bargaining and meeting combination with combination; will provide a system of public labor exchanges and reduce the irregu-

larities of demand for labor; will protect the physical integrity of workers against accidents and disease; will increase industrial efficiency and earning power by technical training; will provide impartial and inexpensive tribunals for the settlement of disputes; will build up a system of social insurance to secure increase when men are disabled by sickness, accident, invalidism, when unemployed, and when death removes the stay of the dependent family.

This is not "paternalism" but democracy; and it will make law respected by making it worthy of moral reverence; it will make armed conflict and violence rare, by giving justice to all on equal terms.

TEACHERS FOR THE FEEBLE-MINDED

THE INCREASED demand for training in teaching mentally defective pupils is shown by the experience of New York University with its summer demonstration school, held for the first time this year.

This school, conducted on Sullivan street, New York city, has seventy feeble-minded girls and boys, three years or more backward mentally, drawn from the neighborhood. It is believed to be the first experiment of the kind ever undertaken. It is conducted for the benefit of those enrolled in the University's Department of Education for Defectives, of which Henry H. Goddard, director of the department of research of the Vineland Training School, New Jersey, is director. There have been eighty registrations for the work of this department this summer—a number far exceeding the expectations of the university authorities. Most of those enrolling expect to teach ungraded classes in the public schools.

New York University will introduce this fall a two-year course in the teaching of mental defectives, awarding a certificate to graduates. It is hoped to make the demonstration school, which this summer is under the supervision of Meta Anderson, supervisor of special classes in the Newark, N. J., public schools, a permanent part of the winter work of the university.

EDUCATION

A MAYOR AND A BIG CITY'S EDUCATIONAL PROBLEMS—BY WINTHROP D. LANE

THE MAYOR of New York city has joined hands with the board of education to solve for that community the most pressing problem before the public schools today—the problem of vocational education for young boys and girls.

Herman Schneider, dean of the College of Engineering of Cincinnati, and William Wirt, superintendent of public schools in Gary, Ind., who were retained by the board of education some months ago to study the needs and opportunities for vocational instruction in New York and to make recommendations, have submitted their reports.

Although the contents of these reports have not been given out in detail, it is known that both specialists have made recommendations in line with the types of vocational schooling for which their names have come to stand. Dean Schneider has become noted for a co-operative system of part-time instruction. Scores of manufacturing, railroad and construction companies in Cincinnati co-operate in educating students by permitting them to alternate between shop and school in two-week shifts.

The essence of Superintendent Wirt's regime is his effective use of the school plant, which makes it possible to house many more pupils than is the rule, and his "vocationizing" of elementary grade instruction. He has cut down the exodus of those who heretofore have become "tired of school."

When retained, Dean Schneider was asked to render his opinion specifically with reference to the need and opportunity for co-operative part-time schooling, and Mr. Wirt was asked to make recommendations affecting the elementary grades. Their reports enjoy the status of expert advice. A committee of the board of education was recently appointed to study the problem of vocational education in New York, and this committee will make use of the reports.

The retaining of Messrs. Schneider and Wirt came as a direct result of a recent trip west by New York's thirty-four-year-old mayor, by Thomas W. Churchill, president of the board of education and by other city and school officials. The trip was undertaken for the express purpose of getting light on New York's educational problems. Visits were made to Cincinnati, Gary and Chicago. It was reported that another purpose of the trip was to find a man to fill a vacancy recently created in the board of superintendents. A specialist in vocational education was wanted—so the report ran—to work out a comprehensive plan for that type of schooling in New York city. This position, which

must be filled by the board of education, is still vacant.

The somewhat unique fact that the mayor of a great city has taken a vital personal concern in the city's educational policy, and the probability that his influence will be felt in carrying that policy through, lend unusual interest to his views on the problems involved. In an interview granted to the writer Mayor Mitchel said:

"We hope that the reports of Dean Schneider and Superintendent Wirt will be such that their recommendations can be adopted in large part. We want to do something at once.

"New York city has three educational objects before her. She must establish adequate co-operative industrial training for pupils of school age, that is, a system of part-time instruction in shop and school for those who are old enough to learn a trade. She must establish a system of continuation schooling by which those who have been forced to leave school and go to work—adults and youths alike—may be given opportunity to return to the class room for a few hours each week for further self-equipment. Finally, she must introduce prevocational instruction. By this I mean there must be an enlivening of the elementary curriculum to retain the interest of growing boys and girls and to lay broad foundations for possible industrial careers later.

"We have made a beginning with continuation and with prevocational instruction, but we have done nothing with co-operative schooling. I do not doubt that our manufacturers and employers will meet the city half way in the introduction of this type of instruction. It may be that there are some industries or trades in which, because of the character of the work or the conditions of employment, it is unwise to attempt co-

operation. I do not know enough about industry to answer that."

"Do you think that it would be possible to discover fundamental principles underlying all, or most, modern trades or industries, which could form the basis of prevocational instruction for boys and girls in the grades?" was asked.

"I doubt it, though here again those who know more about industry have first right to speak. I am afraid the common denominator—the set of underlying principles—would prove too small to be of much educational value. It was proposed that a study be made in New York with the express object of getting information on that point. I have been in favor of such a study for the simple reason that the data may become useful some time.

"New York city is not going to regard vocational education for girls as a problem distinct from vocational educational education for boys. We shall meet the one as adequately and carefully as the other."

For two years New York's board of education has been more and more interesting itself in vocational education. In 1909 the expenditure for salaries alone for day vocational instruction was \$3,722; in 1913 this amount was \$84,000; and in 1914 it was \$140,000. The first experiments in prevocational instruction in the seventh and eighth grades (conducted in two schools) were made during the past year. This is true also of day continuation classes.

President Churchill, of the board of education, declared in his latest annual report that "we are not doing nearly enough along the lines of vocational education" and that "no other problem is of more concern to the board of education than this." City Superintendent of Schools Maxwell has said: "In my judgment, what our schools most need today is a great extension of the opportunities for industrial education."

MOBILIZING WITH THE NATION'S EDUCATIONAL FORCES

THOUGH WE ARE not over-prone these days to look upon the "bold teacher's doctrine" as necessarily "sanctified by truth," yet many of us are apt to listen attentively when educators gather together and unburden their minds. And we strain the ear a little more than usual when the teaching forces of the United States mobilize annually in the sessions of the National Education Association, as they did last month at their fifty-second meeting in St. Paul.

Of course they discussed everything from the function of education in a de-

mocracy to musical terminology. The temper of these 5,000 teachers toward the "emancipation of women" was indicated when a resolution favoring woman suffrage was passed with little opposition. "Equal pay for equal service" was also a popular recommendation.

One felt, as he listened to pronouncements in favor of greater social and educational freedom for women, that many of these were delivered in the spirit of "last shots," just to make sure that the enemy was dead. When a speaker declared that Jane Jones had as much right to become a lawyer or

doctor as John Jones had to become a cook or dressmaker, there was no longer any fire in the eye or challenge in the tone. There was little expectancy of disagreement with the statement that women as well as men ought to be trained for social responsibility or for life in the twentieth century. One had a feeling that declarations of this sort were almost as needlessly cautious as the twentieth "trenched gash" in Banquo's head.

Nevertheless a whole session was given to discussing *The Status of Woman*. Mary E. Woolley saw in President Jordan's statement that "the twentieth century, above all others, will be strenuous, complex and democratic," a hint of the kind of preparation women must have to live in this century strongly and well. The earnest woman of to-day said Miss Woolley, does not look upon education as a personal acquisition, nor does she consider that schools exist in order that she may be "highly accomplished."

Home-making, said Miss Woolley, which is only one of the many kinds of service demanded of women to-day, must broaden into a conception not to be confined within the walls of a single dwelling. The home-maker's "responsibility includes the home of the other woman, the woman who is living in a tenement, not differentiated by the word 'model'; whose only 'sleeping porch' is a fire-escape, which must also serve as the family store-room and the family coal bin; who has never heard lectures on sanitation—probably does not know the meaning of the word—and is so accustomed to inner rooms, where sun and air have never penetrated, to close hallways and foul odors, that light, airy, sunny rooms would seem like a bit of heaven brought down to earth, as indeed they are; whose children learn life not from the wholesome influences of the home but from the unwholesome influences of the street; who ekes out an existence by an unending round of weary toil and never knows what it is to have a living wage.

"In other ways the 'home maker' of the twentieth century has a very much wider responsibility than her grandmother—a responsibility for the industries taken out of the home and entrusted to bakeries and restaurants, laundries and soap factories, canneries and dairies, mills and tailoring establishments; a responsibility for pure food and clean streets, hygienic school rooms and wholesome amusements, for the prevention of contagious diseases of the body, and the elimination of drunkenness and the social evil, the contagious diseases of the soul. Above all, upon her rests the responsibility for the child life of the nation, that it may not be defrauded of the child's right to play and happiness, education and good influence."

A Social Worker's Criticism

Both the National Education Association and its Department of Superintendence, the two most representative bodies of school teachers and administrators in the country, have apparently decided to turn deaf ears to Byron's admonition to seek roses in December or ice in



WILLIAM WIRT, CARY, IND.
One of the vocational education experts making plans for New York

June as soon as true in critics. In pursuance of a seemingly deliberate policy they are inviting the social workers of the nation, who are reputed to frown every time they look at a school, to come and tell them what is wrong with public education.

At St. Paul three instances of failure by the public school were pointed out by Sophonisba P. Breckinridge, assistant director of the Chicago School of Civics and Philanthropy, whose view of the school as an instrument "for testing present social relationships and for securing improvements in social conditions" must have startled many teachers.

The first failure she mentioned includes those cases in which the child's school experience makes little impression because his home conditions are bad. With respect to these, Miss Breckinridge asked whether the school habitually does all it can, not only to discover them, but to bring reconstructive influences to bear on the home situations.

Again, there is a class of pupils, said Miss Breckinridge, whose needs the school as yet fails to meet. Among these are immigrants and those who leave school at the earliest moment allowed by law to take up wage-paid work. What can or ought to be done for these the educator must decide, but the decision ought to be based, said the speaker, on information furnished by those who know out of what surroundings the children come and into what kinds of employment they go.

The third failure cited by Miss Breckinridge embraces those cases in which the attendance of the child is either not secured at all or secured inadequately. From the standpoint of the social worker, to whom school attendance is an important factor in family restoration and industrial efficiency these losses on the part of children, said Miss Breckinridge, seem of enormous importance. There is need of devices within the system and of co-operation with outside agencies that will bring this waste to a minimum.

On Teaching Sex Hygiene

There has been a pronounced forward movement in the attitude toward teaching sex hygiene in the schools, says J. Stanley Brown, if we compare the discussion at St. Paul with that before the Department of Superintendence at Richmond, Va., last winter.¹ Mr. Brown is superintendent of Township High School, Joliet, Ill., where he has introduced instruction in this subject. We quote from a report he wrote for *THE SURVEY*:

"Bitter and arbitrary opposition, which in many quarters this new subject has met, seemed almost gone and the resolutions of the entire body of the N. E. A., while cautious concerning the fitness of the person giving instruction, were positive in declaring that such instruction should be given in the public schools.

"All were agreed that the home has its work to perform and that it is essential that both father and mother be prepared to give the kind of instruction needed and to co-operate with the teacher.

"By common agreement the subject is not to be lugged into the class room in its entirety but is to be given in connection with various studies. Eugenics, eugenics, race preservation and divorce are wrapped up in the big idea of sex and ought not to be dragged into the pool of the 'sexual' as if sex and sexual meant the same thing.

"It is agreed that best results come from teaching boys and girls in special classes. It was clearly pointed out that the treatment of disease, resulting from violation of sex laws, ought to be considered in just the same way as the treatment of any other disease.

"It is maintained that teaching on this subject ought to be graded in just the same way as teaching on any other subject and that instruction ought to begin as early as the third or fourth grade and proceed in a logical way through the adolescent period. Only such information should be given at each stage; the grade of the pupil indicates can be properly assimilated, and it is maintained that the parent or guardian may always have the right to ask that the child be excused entirely from such instruction.

"In order that teachers themselves may be properly prepared to give instruction, it was urged that normal schools, colleges and theological seminaries should provide adequate courses for teachers in sex hygiene, and that by so doing there may be a wiser and more friendly co-operation of the three great forces in society, the school, the home and the church."

Vocational Education

"The problems of vocational education are like a piece of tough beefsteak—the more they are chewed, the bigger they get," writes R. R. Lutz, of the Division of Education of the Russell Sage Foundation, in reporting the St. Paul discussion on this subject for *THE SURVEY*. He goes on:

¹See *THE SURVEY* for March 14, 1914, page 746.

"The Committee on Vocational Education and Vocational Guidance started the ball rolling with 'A Proposed Terminology.' There can be no doubt that this report will aid in establishing a common basis for future talking and thinking, in spite of individual differences of opinion regarding the definitions and classifications proposed. The report is largely based upon the theory and practice of vocational education in Massachusetts.

"The question of training and qualifications of teachers gave rise to a sharp division of opinion. A St. Paul manufacturer defended the policy of employing journeymen mechanics as teachers in vocational schools and cited the experience of the St. Paul Institute, where a marked increase in enrollment and general efficiency was obtained, he said, by substituting shop-trained for school-trained teachers. Most of the principals and superintendents present disagreed, claiming that the best results are secured with teachers who have had both school and shop training, or by employing school and shop men in equal proportions.

"Some of the Westerners protested against the blind following of precedents in matters of legislation and educational policy, established by a few Eastern states, particularly Massachusetts. The Indiana vocational education law adopted last year came in for a good deal of criticism, and it was openly intimated that its defects had their origin in the fact that it was drafted by Easterners who were unfamiliar with local conditions.

"The half-time co-operative school plan, of which Cincinnati and Fitchburg are the best known examples, seems to be gaining ground very slowly in other communities. Reports from the directors of the four-hours-a-week schools in Wisconsin are very encouraging, although only a small proportion of the instruction given in them can be classed as vocational. There is general opposition to the dual system of control, but the Wisconsin men point out that in that state 'it works.' The general trend of development seems to be toward vocationalizing the common school curriculum, a modification of the subject matter taught in the schools without materially changing the present forms of organization."

Rural Education

"The St. Paul meeting made the usual annual plunge into the whirlpool of rural education," writes Van Evrie Kilpatrick, president of the School Garden Association of America. He adds, in a report to THE SURVEY: "This year, however, it seemed a little deeper and more sustained in its struggle to keep afloat.

"It is notable that confusion in failing to discriminate clearly between agricultural education and rural education still exists. There is great unanimity of agreement that rural education should include agricultural education; but the practice over the country at large shows that rural education is really as yet far removed from agricultural education. The notion of education in the rural districts is, traditionally, that preparation

for life which enables the farmer's boy or girl to make a living in the city.

"It was clearly pointed out that greater efficiency in the rural schools could be secured only by enlarging the unit of supervision, making it at least as large as a county. This lifts the work of an individual school out of the pettiness of the small neighborhood. It is more apt to bring into the field a trained expert.

"For several years the atmosphere of the N. E. A. has been more and more charged with discussions of agricultural education. It is held to be as fundamental as industrial education. Almost all of the advocates of a bettered rural education emphasize its importance. Some of the speakers indicated the slight degree, however, to which it has really reached the rural community. The point was made that during the last decade there has been rapid growth in the number of agricultural schools and agricultural courses in normal and high schools. This, together with the constant discussion of agricultural education, gives hope that the next decade will see its actual and widespread acceptance in the rural schools of the country.

"As in former meetings the training of teachers brought out the most discussion. It was almost grotesque to listen to the proposals to make out of a city girl a successful teacher in the country. One speaker went so far as to say a city girl trained in agriculture could teach agriculture to the farmers better than a young farmer who had not been trained in agriculture. I am sure the little that either could do would hardly be a desideratum. This suggestion only goes to illustrate how lamentably weak the preparation of the rural teacher now is. Another speaker most forcibly brought forward the point that agricultural education can be taught successfully only by men. He contended that it was a gross waste of time and money to send a girl into the country for a few months, or for a couple of years at most, and expect work that was worth while. Under such management of teachers the barn-like rural school, with its wretched surroundings, poor sanitation and patch of weeds, will continue to exist.

"The organization of boys' and girls' clubs, as well as adult clubs and even other forms of rural endeavor, were brought forward this year for the first time. It was held that if the successful organization of many thousands of children into tomato clubs, potato clubs and other agricultural clubs, is necessary to socialize and unify the work in rural communities, then it is high time the public school awakens to these new means.

"Doubtless there is much of value in the social centre unit in rural education. This means has been used to bring the home and business plants into co-operation with the school plant. It seems to me that no greater thought has come to us in modern educational trend than this suggestion to utilize the home, factory, farm and office as parts of the educational equipment of our public school system. Leaders in the betterment of all school work must early

adapt themselves to this new idea. It will enable educational work to be increased a hundred fold; duplication will not be necessary; intimate co-operation will be brought about; interest will be increased; all agencies in the community will be unified in one great effort to increase educational results."

On Teachers' Pocketbooks

If the country doesn't presently know what is paid to every person engaged in public teaching and whether this amount has kept pace with the increased cost of living, or whether it is so low as to make teaching a sweated industry, it will be through no fault of the association's Committee on Teachers' Salaries and Cost of Living.

Under the direction of this committee three extensive studies have been prepared. The first,¹ by Prof. Robert C. Brooks, of Swarthmore College, presents measurements of the increase of the cost of living in connection with studies of the social and economic status of teachers in typical cities. It shows, among other things, that many teachers are compelled to seek supplementary employment to make both ends meet and that the very profession having most to do with children is compelled by low income to keep the number of its own offspring at a minimum.

The purpose of the second study, by Scott Nearing, was to indicate how the methods of economists in applying standard of living measurements to groups of wage-earners may be extended to groups of teachers.

The third study, just issued as a bulletin of 465 pages by the United States Bureau of Education, is an exhaustive compilation by James C. Boykin and Roberta King of the salaries paid teachers of all ranks in city school systems; of salaries paid state and county superintendents and rural school teachers; and of salaries paid in universities and colleges in state normal schools, in trade, manual training and industrial schools, and in schools for special classes of pupils, *e. g.*, blind, deaf and feeble-minded.

While interesting facts may now be gleaned from these statistics, such as that the average salary of elementary school teachers in cities of between 100,000 and 250,000 is \$791 and in cities of between 50,000 and 100,000 is \$688, their chief value is the use of them promised for the future. For example, there is a similar mass of statistics dealing with teachers' salaries in all parts of the country for 1903-04. During the nine years between that study and the present one wholesale prices have risen, according to reports of the U. S. Bureau of Labor Statistics, 17.6 per cent, and retail food prices 25.9 per cent. It will be possible, therefore, by proper use of this latest report, to ascertain where teachers' salaries during that period kept pace with the standard of living and where they fell behind. This and other deductions are promised by co-operation of the National Education Association with other agencies.

¹See THE SURVEY for May 24, 1913, page 272.

TRAINING CITIZENS WITH "SPUNK" FOR SOCIAL SERVICE—BY EDWARD ALSWORTH ROSS'

PROFESSOR OF SOCIOLOGY, UNIVERSITY OF WISCONSIN

WITHIN THE LAST twenty years many of our colleges and universities have caught something of the social view of things. But in the schools naïve commercial ideas prevail. Our more promising youth still issue from the class room into practical life with glowing visions of a personal and private success. They have been told of the wonderful chances to rise and have been stimulated with the assurance that the harder they studied the sooner they would get up in life. "Out in the world," we tell them, "there is the great game, and there are the great prizes. Go in and win." Upon many of us it has not dawned that one aim of our public schools should be to make it impossible for the boys to accept the game as they find it.

Into the public mind have filtered during the last twenty years many of the newer ideas about the meaning of industry and trade. But, on the other hand, business men have been drawing together into associations and harkening to the utterances of their big dominating personalities. While the social view has been making headway in the general public, the contrary manner of thinking has been hardening and defining itself within the business world.

Commercialism has become self-conscious and aggressive. It insists that business is an arena in which the strong-hearted and the capable contend with one another for the Supremely Desirable, *i. e.*, money. In this battle, strength has a place and cunning has a place. The "tricks of the trade" are to be tolerated as we tolerate the feints and ruses of the prize ring. Obviously, the rules of the fight should not be changed while the fight is going on, and, of course, the fight is going on all the time. To tie down the combatants with rules limiting the use of their superior strength, adroitness, or cunning, spoils sport and is unfair to the "better man."

In these commercial battles, natural resources, working men and child toilers come to be looked upon as mere raw material to be moved about, husbanded or sacrificed, as the exigencies of the fight may demand. As to the consuming public—for the sake of which in sooth, all such enterprise exists—it lies vague in the dim background with no interest in the fight save as humble and admiring spectators. The hampering of the contending business men with pure-food laws, sanitary requirements, safety regulations, anti-combination acts, and finally the meddling of a trade commission on the alleged behalf of the consuming public, is held to be an intrusion and an impertinence inflicted on "legitimate business" by the demagoguery of "politicians."

In some of the professions likewise the combat idea is well-established. The typical newspaper man is by no means apologetic of the sensationalism, red-

ink, fakes, deceitful headlines, and spiced news, by which he has beaten his rival in circulation.

Most of the lawyers are warm defenders of the time-hallowed contentious procedure by which our courts ascertain the right and wrong of disputes, despite the obvious consideration that the stronger side ought to win the case, not the side with the stronger champion.

In spite of the impression social ideas have made on the worker and the producer, commercialism has gone on developing within its sphere until it is becoming a religion. Boards of trade and chambers of commerce are its temples. The business interests are its priests. Its holy days are Monday to Saturday. Its promise is prosperity. Its first great commandment is "Let us alone." Its plea is "Suffer little children to come unto me and forbid them not." Its beatitude is "Blessed is the employe who demands nothing and expects nothing, for verily he shall not be disappointed." Its favorite parable is of the man who burned down his barn to get rid of the rats.

This whole conception of business as a jungle fight, with its implied admiration of the money-maker as a wonderfully powerful and clever fellow, its thinly veiled contempt for a man who wins only a livelihood, its cool ignoring of the public for whose sake business exists, belongs in a class with trial by ordeal and judicial combat. Slowly there is rising in the popular mind the idea that businesses and professions are not owned by the men who, for the moment, are engaged in them, that they are but instrumentalities for meeting the wants of the public, not roped rings for the conduct of a prize fight; that while oceans of legal verbiage are poured forth on the question whether or not this or that business is "affected with a public interest," there is, in fact, no legitimate business or profession that is not affected with a public interest, and should not be required to square itself with the ascertained social welfare.

The social service that is supreme is not some bit of charitable work, but the following of one's calling as service, not as exploit. Education for social service is to open the eyes of the young to the social nature of their work in life, to purge their minds of a current false notion that to enter one's life work is to take a hand in a poker game or put on the gloves for a prize fight. It is to persuade them that it is wisdom to spend wealth for more welfare, but folly to spend welfare—even somebody's else's welfare—for the sake of more wealth, that industries should be run to yield dividends rather than profits, that a "living wage" must come before a "living dividend," that commercialized sports, commercialized amusements, commercialized newspapers, and commercialized vice are tumors, not flesh, that "prosperity" in the business man's sense is but one element in social well-being and not always the greatest.

The next social service is to fight the

anti-social tendency of the combat regime. Education for social service ought not to damp the primal impulses of moral indignation. Six-sevenths of American teachers are women, and there is danger lest they, with their lady-like ideas of conduct, quench the natural pugnacity of our boys below the point of even chivalrous spunk. Certainly, a woman-taught generation is showing an alarming willingness to take oppression and robbery lying down. The good-government movement, I notice, attracts many mild-mannered gentlemanly citizens quite bluffed by ward heeler's invitation to the use of the natural weapons. I fear our schools are turning out too many sissies, and that the rough greedy element are taking advantage of it. I for one deplore the lady-like citizen. Social service implies not only a willingness to be spent for the common good, but, as well, a capacity for ire and hard-hitting.

One way to divert the people from fundamentals is to get them hurrahing for petty betterments. I sometimes suspect that trivial social service is employed to side-track people from economic reform. The kept newspaper is strong for "swat-the-fly," anti-roller towel, and "clean-up," movements. Likewise, it seems as if little charities for news boys or tenement babies or hospitals prosper greatly just because they raise no embarrassing questions and leave the public with a soothing illusion that something is being done.

It seems to me sometimes as if the springing-up of a great variety of petty charities which annoy nobody, antagonize nobody, and produce but trifling results, is to be interpreted as an endeavor to switch the public mind from the big social services involving questions of fares, prices, wages, hours, and conditions of work, which antagonize prominent people but which also hold forth the possibility of raising the plane upon which great groups of us live. Not that there is a purpose behind it all; but those who start innocent charities get support and put them through; while those who promote movements that lessen somebody's profits or dividends or rentals get the cold shoulder and fail. So that the promoters of social service learn the lesson: "Ask for reading rooms, or fresh air, or teddy-bears; don't ask for less risk or fewer hours, or for more pay or more rights."

A democracy, then, will use its schools to counteract the anti-social spirit that too often radiates from the big masterful figures of commercial life. It will rear its youth in the ethics of brotherhood, team-work, and responsibility. In educating for social service, it aims at something greater than lessons in kindness and consideration. It presents life from a new angle. It meets current notions of success and reward with more exacting ideals growing out of a new vision of social welfare. It aims to turn out youth ready not only to make their calling a service, but to grapple with the old egoistic carnivorous type and eject him from places of influence where he can be a sinister pattern and pace-setter for the next generation.

'Delivered last month before the National Education Association at St. Paul.

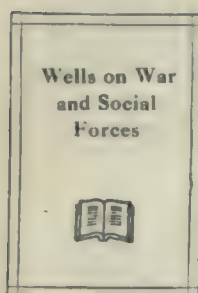
BOOK REVIEWS

SOCIAL FORCES IN ENGLAND AND AMERICA

By H. G. WELLS. Harper Bros. 416 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.15.

THE WORLD SET FREE

By H. G. WELLS. E. P. Dutton. 307 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.47.



What refreshment there is in the bold thinking on large lines to which Wells leads us? An essay in Social Forces dwells buoyantly on the advantages of our modern escape from the bonds of place: "We are off the chain of locality for good and all. . . . People

have hardly begun to speculate about the consequences of the return of humanity from a closely-tethered to a migratory existence." It is an inspiring idea and it applies to thought as well as to matter. For there is no use in availing ourselves of all the trolley-routes and steamship-lines in creation, if our minds stay sluggish and provincial.

Now Wells is an author whom it is impossible to read sluggishly. He has a knack of making our minds migrate; and never was that knack more felicitously shown than in these two books. In both, he leaves his clever but to some of us unpleasant and narrow studies in sex-relations, to revert to that earlier field in which his originality is more marked and his contribution to the common life more distinctive. Here is the Wells of Anticipations, New Worlds for Old, and A Modern Utopia; and we welcome him back.

Social Forces is a collection of the fugitive pieces of the last few years, so arranged that they present, as Wells himself says, a summary of his most characteristic thinking. The book contains a relentless criticism of England—her military ineptitudes, her industrial follies,—mingled with a patriotism so keen that one does not quite know how to connect it with the prediction of the Great State in which nationality will have vanished.

It contains a criticism of America just as relentless, not particularly fresh, but interesting in the centering of hope at four points not often seen from one and the same station: the good-will of the plutocracy, the scientific work of the universities, the Socialist movement and the possibilities of American women. It presents incisive discussion of many minor themes. But the gist is found in the pages on the Great State—pages as searching and fundamental as Wells has ever written.

He is as much a Socialist as ever, despite rumors to the contrary; but his eager mind discards with impatience the current Socialist trick of reposing in large formulae, which ought to be starting points and degenerate into cant when treated as finalities. He seeks new alignment of forces, new definitions of social types. One disagrees with him frequently, but finds him unfailingly stimulating. His trend of thought is as he confesses, Utopian; indeed in the essay on The So-Called Science of Sociology, he claims that the business of the true sociologist must always be the intelligent forecasting of the Ideal State, rather than the meticulous study of specific remedies for social disorders. But his Utopianism, if it separates him from all "planless progressives," is at least unique in its practical cast and its scientific basis.

The World Set Free is an imaginative projection of the ideas in the other book. It is stirring romance. It is also, in the author's own mind sober forecast. It opens with a grim picture of the fearful possibilities inherent in scientific war-making, and passes swiftly through panoramic cataclysms perfectly credible though all but unthinkable, to the emerging of the Great State and the conquest of a splendid peace.

What lingers in memory is not the picture of Paris and Chicago destroyed by atomic bombs, nor of Holland lost under the sea, but the scenes where the few sensible folk left from the general destruction gather on those Alpine slopes which Wells has always loved, to check the world-wide Reign of Terror with matter-of-fact pluck and wisdom, and, half-conscious of their task, to lead society into a new era.

Above all, one will hardly forget the nobility of the final pages where the man who has done most to guide the great transformation lies waiting death in the surgical hospital among the Himalayas, and forgets his own approaching extinction in converse concerning the future of the race which he has lived to serve. The elevation of tone, the terse, restrained writing, deserve high praise; almost they suggest that other death-scene, in an Athenian prison where Socrates waits the poison and the dawn.

If ever we have grown weary of forecasts based on scientific advance and mechanical progress rather than on more religious forces, these pages will be salutary reading; for here the idealist in Mr. Wells has free sway, and he proves himself of the family of the prophets.

Social workers certainly need these books. We have got to plod along soberly at our task of relief and prevention; but it is comfort to be lifted above the whole sweltering mass of misery and

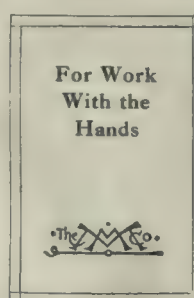
stupidity, to look off to far horizons and breathe deep of the winds that oversweep us from the hills of hope. Wells helps us, not by offering individual freedom—poets and sages in plenty stand ready to do that,—but by showing from his high thought-levels an emancipate race, which is still the old humanity we know.

We return to our posts, rich in clearer power to choose the right direction of effort. The best thanks we can proffer will be to put our invigorated selves more effectively than before under the leadership of his two captains in the secular march toward social freedom,—Intelligence, and Good-will.

VIDA D. SCUDDER.

THE INDUSTRIAL TRAINING OF THE BOY

By William A. McKeever. The Macmillan Company. 72 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.56.



peace, contentment, and spiritual poise predominating elements of his character."

Efficiency in some one or more of the "trunkline industries" as an essential part of the education of every boy and girl, whether rich or poor—first, as a necessary means to educate and develop the character of the child; secondly, as a basis for a truly social life, and only thirdly, as a means of livelihood is the message of this book.

His suggestions are simple, direct, practical, and detailed enough to be tried out in any family. They are of less value to parents and teachers in congested city districts than to those in suburban, village, and country districts. Even so practical and sympathetic a student of boys as the author fails to make suggestions that are really adequate to the needs of the city boy who lives within a crowded "apartment" or "slum" district. Some way must also be found to give this boy his "innings."

As for other boys, happy are they who have parents intelligent enough and sympathetic enough to provide the work and play conditions, under their own guidance and supervision, from kindergarten to maturity, that this little book recommends.

It takes boys, homes, and industrial conditions as they are and shows how to

make constructive use of them, and always with the boy's welfare and the development of an efficient citizen uppermost in mind.

"It is a vicious theory that only those who are to be compelled to work with their hands should be educated industrially."

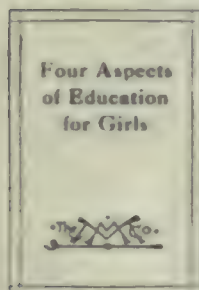
Two of the most valuable features of the book are its suggestions for the educative use of vacations and his attempt at a quantitative statement of how much work, play, sleep, etc., boys need at different ages.

Taken as a whole Professor McKeever's books on the training of our boys and girls make a valuable contribution to our literature of educational purpose and technique.

HENRY W. THURSTON.

TRAINING THE GIRL

By William A. McKeever. The Macmillan Company. 341 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.62.



Dr. Richard C. Cabot in his *What Men Live By* names work, play, love, and worship as the activities that make up real human life. The four parts of this book on *Training the Girl* are really based on the same four activities.

All four motives appear and reappear throughout the book, but each may truly be said to be stressed as follows: Work in Part One on Industrial Training; Play in Part Two on Social Training; Love in Part Three on Vocational Training and Worship in Part Four on Service Training.

The book is written with rare good judgment, familiarity with and insight into the lives of active girls, and with a deep conviction that only by teaching the millions of our young people, both poor and rich, to live a life of work, play, love and worship can they hope to be happy as individuals or efficient as citizens in a democratic society.

The author goes over with the reader the life of a girl from infancy to maturity and in a great variety of concrete, simple, suggestive ways shows the real problems of training involved in each situation and a good way to meet each problem. Almost never does he recommend mere suppression of an instinct, or activity or troublesome manifestation of energy in the growing girl. On the contrary, the controlling principle of his method is one of sympathetic guidance of activity and desire for growth into proper channels and more fruitful forms.

The subject of dancing, of the many discussed, the author failed most completely to handle. Here his method of guidance and control was abandoned and suppression accepted as practically the only alternative. This is simply to admit defeat in the face of one of the greatest problems facing conscientious parents and teachers of the young. It is to be hoped that the author will take courage from his own faith in young

people and his unusual power of interpretation of their activities and essay this problem again.

To parents of the so-called middle classes especially mothers who are trying to live in close sympathy and companionship with their girls this book should be most helpful. Even the topics of the Table of Contents are of themselves helpful and suggestive. There are also good bibliographies at the end of each chapter.

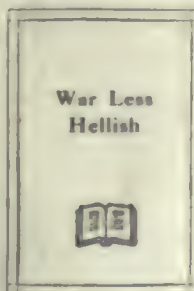
This passage well illustrates the social ideal of the author: "We sincerely desire and hope that the girl destined to a life of industry and the other one destined to a life of affluence shall always know each other through and through; that they shall be prepared to dwell in the same community with the highest possible degree of mutual sympathy and good fellowship. We desire also that the girl of industrial life shall be so masterful in her place as to receive a large increment of joy and satisfaction from her work, and as to be not altogether envious of her sister of the so-called upper ranks. And we desire that the other one shall have been made so intimately acquainted with ordinary girlhood work and industry as to be prepared to think lovingly and sympathetically of all the women who toil, and as to be deeply imbued with the thought of doing her part toward the amelioration of their condition" (p. 7).

Whether or not the author looks forward to a day when "amelioration" will have led to some more fundamental changes in the conditions of those who must get their living by the work of their hands is not clear to the reader who desires to see a genuine industrial democracy. In any event the education herein recommended looks with at least half-open eyes toward the East.

HENRY W. THURSTON.

WAR AND THE PRIVATE CITIZEN

By A. Pearce Higgins. P. S. King and Company, London. 200 pp. Price postpaid \$1.30.



what all law should be, a growth and development, and very naturally reflects a state of mind and advancement in civilization of the people formulating it. The constant tendency, particularly of late years, has been to ameliorate the harshness of all law. This is particularly noticeable in the increased consideration shown to non-combatants, whether belligerents or neutrals.

War has always been the hell which General Sherman called it, but those who carry it on have become with the passage of years less devilish. It is a matter of only two centuries since of-

ficers captured on the field of battle surrendered not only their swords but their money and valuables; today such procedure is unthinkable. The private citizen formerly felt all the rigors and terrors of war in the pillage of his property and the ravishment of his women; today non-combatant citizens are practically uninterfered with by the belligerent forces.

Nevertheless the private citizen has many interests in war and the conduct of belligerents towards his property and particularly that property which may be upon high seas. The present work touches principally upon this phase of the subject. The first chapter treats of the effect of war on the private citizen and its effect upon his property as well as his person, showing that even though non-combatant, he may be very seriously affected by the contest between armed forces of the belligerents. The second chapter deals with the rules of international law relating to hospital ships and the care of passengers and crews of destroyed prizes.

The third chapter discusses interesting and novel matter. When Grotius wrote his work in 1625 war was not aggravated by the newspaper correspondent. Today newspaper readers demand all of the war news which the facts warrant and the imaginations of the newspaper correspondents can manufacture and telegraph, and which either Morse or Marconi system can transmit. The enterprising correspondent who charts a fast boat equipped with wireless apparatus and prowls in the neighborhood of contending fleets is a spectacle which Lord Nelson was fortunately spared.

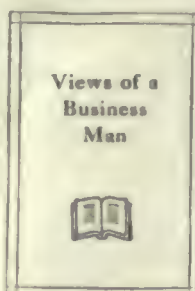
The fourth chapter treats of the most important question of the conversion of merchant ships into warships.

The book is written clearly and interestingly. It has none of the turgid style nor technical phraseology which characterize most law books. The subject is one of general interest and is treated in a manner which while not descending to what may be called a popular style is exceedingly readable.

EMANUEL STERNHEIM.

POVERTY AND WASTE

By Hartley Withers. E. Smith, Publ. London. 190 pp. Price \$85; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$95.



A book on Poverty and Waste, written not by a philanthropist, a minister of the gospel, a politician nor even by a university professor, but by the financial editor of a great London paper—that is a straw which shows which way the winds of current thought are blowing. It is written by a business man on a sound business basis, and will appeal to business men and to thoughtful consumers everywhere. In very simple and logical fashion, Hartley Withers, of the *London Times*, sets forth the relations between the spenders, the workers,

and the managers. His aim is to show how money spent on luxuries is wasted, and how if spent on necessary articles, such as are wanted by all classes, the prices of such articles would decrease and their production increase, because of the capital set free to be invested.

It comes home to those of us who have money enough for our wants, sometimes, that while we are eating more than is good for us, many children in our public schools are underfed; that disease gets its hold on them because of this lack of nourishment. If we could do anything, we say to ourselves, how glad we should be to equalize matters a little. Generally we are told, if we broach the subject to the wise men, that we are silly to trouble about it, that if we gave away every cent we possess and all the rich did the same, things would soon come to the same pass or *impasse*. But here comes Mr. Withers, and shows us very plainly that there is something each and everyone of us can do, and can teach our children to do.

A remedy would be found at once if those who have money to spend would grasp and act on the very simple fact that since the producing power of mankind is limited, every superfluous and useless article that they buy, every extravagance that they commit, prevents the production of the necessities of life for those who need them.

Mr. Withers does not take long to dispose of the grey-whiskered fallacy, that money spent on luxuries is justified because it gives employment to the workers and he meets various other objections to his theory very cogently.

He gives us fair and honest reasons why capital should have its just reward, and writes sympathetically of labor's struggle for a bigger share and then he points out again how easy it would be to reward labor more generously by curtailing the nation's waste.

But what is waste? He gives us a good working formula. "What I mean by luxury is anything that we can do without impairing our health of mind and body. . . . It would be absurd to lay down a hard and fast rule of spending for everybody, and then to say that any excess above that is luxury. A certain amount of amusement, a certain amount of beauty in our homes and surroundings are as necessary to real health of mind as good food is to our bodies."

Of course the gigantic channels of waste the world over are war and drink. As the workers themselves are educated to realize this, and the movement against both evils gains headway, the millions of money now wasted will be used to promote health and comfort and art, and we shall look back with wonder at our present low estate.

But both war and drink are now so firmly fixed in the saddle and riding mankind, as Emerson says, so hard, that it is good to find that in the aggregate they are not more important than the sum of many more trifling luxuries, and especially luxuries that women, who can hardly as yet exert much weight in discouraging war and drink, can discourage and even wipe out.

Among the causes of high prices are

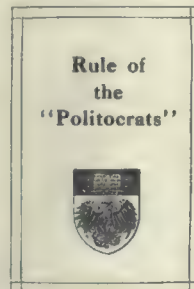
the uncertainty of the manufacturer as to what the fashion will be, his sacrifices in getting rid of old-fashioned goods. Advertising is another of the Waste God's devices. By cunning psychological methods, it foists upon us hundreds of things we neither need nor of ourselves desire.

Mr. Withers' book is well adapted for use in club work or Consumers' League meetings. We echo the *London Times*, which concludes its review by calling attention to the fact that "it is an authority on finance who begs our richer folk to curtail their standard of extravagant living to give a better chance to the poor. All luck to him in his gallant campaign."

FLORENCE GRISWOLD BUCKSTAFF.

UNPOPULAR GOVERNMENT IN THE UNITED STATES

By Albert M. Kales. University of Chicago Press. 263 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.62.



Professor Kales of the Northwestern University Law School presents in this volume a practically valuable study of the way our multiplied elections, offices and candidates inevitably work out the conclusion he reaches that "a practical, workable form of unpopular government has, in spite of the precautions taken to prevent it, been established in the United States." How far the exactions upon the voter transcend the possibility of intelligent voting, and therefore the limits of democracy, is graphically and startlingly detailed within brief but comprehensive compass.

Starting his inquiry in the voting booth, confronted by his own unavoidable ignorance in facing his ballots, he finds how indispensable is the "adviser," who inevitably becomes professional politician or boss, equipped with "organization" and "machine." The separation of offices, the number of elective officials, the frequency of elections—all designed to leave government in control of the many and keep it out of the hands of the few—actually concentrates power with fewer and fewer, as the increase of population leaves more voters dependent upon their advisers.

Thus an extra-legal government of "politocrats" has superseded government "by the people." The very devices intended to restore power to the electorate—the direct primary, the initiative, the referendum and the recall—however effective they prove to be on occasions, are shown to be susceptible of playing into the hands of the few.

The solvents of this crucial problem of democracy proposed in the commission form of government and the short ballot are critically analyzed. As applied to the state, commission government involves combining legislative and executive power in the hands of a legislature consisting of a single chamber.

This is deemed unsafe for the protection of property, and a second chamber

is favorably considered which would directly represent property, giving its representatives the right to propose legislation, to amend acts of the popular assembly and to enter into joint conference with it for compromise conclusions. This consideration, however, squarely reckons with the excessive concern which certain state courts have shown to protect owners from having their property taken away "without due process of law."

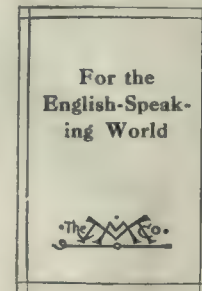
The unique proposal for the selection of judges is that they should be appointed by a chief justice elected at large for each district at frequent intervals, power of removal being lodged with a judicial council consisting of the chief justice and the presiding justices of all divisions.

The survey of the whole complex situation culminates in an incontestable plea for the short ballot. This volume and Alger's *The Old Law and the New Order* clearly show the fundamental reconstruction being forced upon American democracy by its expansion.

GRAHAM TAYLOR.

UNIVERSITY AND HISTORICAL ADDRESSES

Delivered during a residence in the United States as Ambassador of Great Britain. By James Bryce. The Macmillan Co. 433 pp. Price \$2.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.54.



Long before his official residence in Washington, Lord Bryce endeared himself to the American people and represented the high traditions of British statesmanship by his remarkably versatile, sympathetic and vigorous studies and interpretation of the national character and institutions of the entire English-speaking world. He has taught us as he has taught his fellow countrymen to know and feel the full measure of human service which common English traditions impose upon all who inherit and share the English language and its literature, English customs and the English law.

Few ambassadors will ever leave so remarkable a monument of six years' service as this volume dedicated "in admiration and friendship" to our own illustrious senator from New York, Elihu Root.

Historical addresses on *The Beginnings of Virginia*, *The Landing of the Pilgrims in 1620*, *The Scots-Irish Race in Ulster and in America*, *The Tercenary of the Discovery of Lake Champlain*, and *On the Writing and Teaching of History*, are interspersed with studies of Jefferson and Lincoln.

Public Law and Legislation are treated in three remarkably fine essays which I wish particularly that every one who aspires to leadership in social work would read and enjoy. It would have a much to be desired steadying effect on that leadership if social workers generally were to spend a few of the leisure hours of the summer vacation

with Mr. Bryce in his wonderfully fascinating treatment of the fundamentals in human nature and character as we meet them in organized community life everywhere.

The essay on the English Common Law, which is our common law also, deserves a permanent place in English letters for its literary merit in addition to its instructive value.

Art, architecture, world peace in Allegiance to Humanity, ancient literature, "Hints on Reading," and public speaking all come within the range of these addresses, and those dealing with university life and problems, from Oxford and Cambridge in the old world to the keenest appreciation of the new state universities of our western country, have much of interest and instruction for any one who cares to know the trend and promise of modern life.

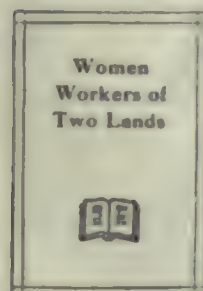
SAMUEL McCUNE LINDSAY.

VOCATIONS FOR THE TRAINED WOMAN

By Women's Educational and Industrial Union. Longmans, Green & Co. 175 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$1.66.

WOMEN WORKERS IN SEVEN PROFESSIONS

By Edith T. Morley. Routledge & Sons, London; E. P. Dutton & Co., American agents. 318 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of *THE SURVEY* \$2.12.



It is full of valuable data for the guidance of college women who desire occupations other than teaching.

It discusses college women in agriculture, social service, secretarial service, and real estate from the standpoint of preparation, occupational opportunity, agreeability of the work, possibilities for advancement to administrative positions, and the minimum and maximum salaries. The pages are filled with very valuable information varying from the table of investments, expenses, returns, profits and other matter in regard to research work among bee-keepers, to a careful schedule of brokers' commissions in the real estate exchange of Boston.

Secretaries outstrip in numbers all others and fill every variety of position. They are found in increasingly large numbers in law firms, as official court reporters, in the administration offices of educational institutions, in social organizations, as private and executive secretaries, and as bank officials with salaries ranging from \$600 to \$1,500 a year—a few women of exceptional power and willingness to assume large responsibility receiving \$3,500 a year. This last salary, however, is reached only after a very definite demonstration of strikingly valuable powers. The real estate and agricultural women work

quite independently rarely on a salary, and their money reward has a very wide range—all the way from a bare living to \$10,000 a year for the women with the uncommon but very real "value sense."

The book reminds one very vividly of Edith Morley's compilation of the Testimony of English Professional Women as set forth in *Women Workers in Seven Professions*, published by Routledge and Sons, London, and appearing almost simultaneously. This book comes from the Studies Committee of the Fabian Women's Group and is even more detailed in description of women's opportunities.

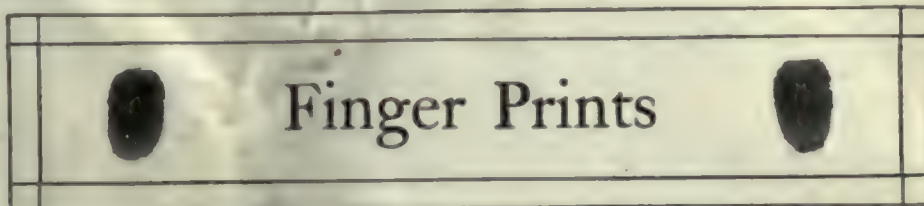
In the two books, *Vocations for Trained Women* and *Women Workers*

in *Seven Professions*, the striking observation is the similarity of opportunities and the divergence in salary of the two countries. The English women receive in general about one-third less remuneration for the same service.

The English book is very exhaustive in detail of preparation, placement, duties, opportunities, and salaries. It enters into the matter of occupational diseases, the accommodations of the workers, discussion of the preparatory schools, civil service, and trade unions.

It is interesting and vivid in multiplied illustration of actual incidents and is vigorous and wise in comment and counsel. Both books are full of the matter of the hour and are rich in well selected and thoroughly tested content.

MARY S. SNOW.



JUST JOHN

Miriam Allen de Ford

AS MISS YORKE entered the Children's Aid office, the superintendent looked up from the newspaper she had been reading.

"I see that Mrs. Ritchie is dead," she said, "I am afraid we shall have to take John away."

Bertha Yorke sighed. John was her favorite charge, as well as her most difficult one, and she was a young visitor.

"I know it does seem a shame," said Miss Delmar, in answer to the unspoken comment, "When here at last was a family that really wanted him, and didn't mind his—his deformity; but there's no help for it. He can't live there alone with the husband. He's been neglected enough as it is, while the wife has been sick. I think you'd better go out to Brookton this afternoon and get John and bring him to the Shelter."

But it was with a heavy heart that Miss Yorke took the train for Brookton, and with a heavier one that she reviewed, as the trim little stations flew by her, with peaceful winter landscape between them, John's sad little history. John wasn't John Ritchie, or John Anything—just John. He was a wistful-eyed, brown-haired little fellow of six, with one shoulder much higher than the other, and a pronounced limp, whom the Children's Aid had rescued from a brutal father and a weak and helpless mother. They were not really his parents; he was a foundling whom someone had left at their door. The woman had taken him in and tried to raise him in the face of her husband's anger and cruelty. But she herself had finally handed John over to the society.

"I don't mind the mister whipping John," she had said, with the hopeless apathy of the very poor, "or me either; but when he kicks him down three flights of stairs, and him with his weak back, I think you'd better take him."

And they had taken him, and given him food and shelter, and baths and clothing—everything, in fact, except love, which a society can hardly be expected to provide in large quantities.

And he was very hard to dispose of. No one wanted a child who was practically deformed, and who might never be able to go out in the world and do the work of men. Once or twice inquirers, touched by the boy's pathetic brown eyes and his pale cheeks, had hesitated; but the responsibility was too great, and they had passed on to a rosy, healthy youngster.

At last the Ritchies had come. They were a middle-aged couple, a farmer and his wife, living outside Brookton, whose two children lay in the little old Brookton graveyard. Ever since the first hurt of their own bereavement had softened, they had planned and dreamed of adopting a child. But money troubles arose, and years passed before they felt able to give a child the sort of home the society demanded for it. Now they had come, full of expectation, with the usual list of requirements—a fair, curly-haired boy four years old, healthy and of decent parentage. Ellen Ritchie had been attracted at once to an angelic child whose blue eyes and red lips made him the prettiest of pictures; but her husband had wished her to look further, and be sure.

"There's John," said Miss Delmar, simply out of a sense of duty, "He's four years old, and—" And John was brought from the Shelter

The little limping, timid figure went straight to Henry Ritchie's heart.

"He's the one, Ellen," he had said, "We're going to take John home with us to be our little boy."

Ellen had been at first aghast, then dubious; but in the end she had been won over, and the two had carried off John, bewildered and yet radiant.

A new John developed in the sunshine of love and tenderness, a John who could laugh, and even sing, and who dug in the garden with his little spade just as if his back had been like every other boy's. The Ritchies lavished on him all the affection they had given their own two children; they would have spoiled any child less pure of soul.

And now Mrs. Ritchie was dead, and John would have to come back to the Shelter. The buggy drew up in front of the long white house, with its old side porch, and tears stood in Miss Yorke's eyes at the sight of the hanging crepe.

It was Henry Ritchie himself who answered her knock—but a Henry Ritchie how changed from the well-preserved middle-aged man she had known. His suit of black hung shockingly about his lean figure; he needed a shave badly; his eyes were red-rimmed and sunken. He motioned her into the kitchen with a trembling hand.

"You came to see about John, I suppose?" he asked in a husky voice as soon as they were seated.

"Yes, Mr. Ritchie," answered Miss Yorke gently, "Miss Delmar wanted to know what your plans were."

"I'm going to keep right along living here. Can't John live with me?" The question was eager, yet despairing.

"I'm afraid not, Mr. Ritchie—not unless you get a housekeeper to look after him."

"I—I can't get a housekeeper, not now," and Henry's voice trembled.

"Then I'm afraid we'll have to take him. I'm sorry—dreadfully sorry. But you know you can't, alone, take care of him as our children have to be taken care of."

Henry started. "You won't—you don't want him today? Not before the funeral?"

"I wish I could leave him,"—Bertha Yorke laid a comforting hand on his arm—"but those are my orders."

The man rose heavily. "All right," he said, "I'll dress him and pack his things and bring him down."

It was half an hour that Bertha had to wait; she could picture the man's slow, clumsy fingers fastening buttons and lacing shoes. Once or twice she heard the child's voice, raised in complaint—his face was being washed too hard, perhaps, or a pin went awry. Finally they appeared together, with John's little valise in Henry's hand.

As soon as Miss Yorke saw John

she realized that she must take him. He still wore the pretty clothes the Ritchies had bought him, but his hair should have been cut days before, there was a hole in one of his stockings, a white string projected from the side of his collar—altogether he showed the lack of experienced care. Plainly he did not know where he was going.

"Good afternoon, John," said Miss Yorke, brightly, but a bit unsteadily, "Don't you want to go up to the city with me?"

"Yes, thank you," answered John, in his quaint, unchildish way, "And with father?"

That "father" cut the visitor to the heart. "No, father's not going," she managed to say, "Father—" But Henry Ritchie was kneeling on the floor by the child, pressing him in his gaunt old arms, crying into the blue serge blouse.

"You're going away, boy," he sobbed, "They're taking you away from me—just as mother's gone—just as mother's gone!"

"Will they put me in a box too, then?" asked John, turning uncomprehending eyes upon Miss Yorke.

Suddenly the man arose, wiped his eyes, and turned to the visitor. "Don't mind me," he muttered, apologetically, "I guess my nerves ain't just right these last few days. I know you've got to do this, it's best for the boy. But I love that boy just as if he was my own—so did she. We was going to send him to school—and to college—" His voice broke again, and he turned his back abruptly on them.

Still John did not seem to understand, even when he kissed his father, and was strained in his arms for the last time, not during the ride back to the city, not in his first few days in the Shelter. But when his question, at first indifferent, then eager, then insistent, received always the same gentle but final answer, he did at last realize that he had lost his father forever. Then came days when he sat, silent and with a dreadful look in his brown eyes, all day long in a corner, and cried himself to sleep every night with agonizing, unchildlike sobs.

"I can't stand it!" said Bertha Yorke to Miss Delmar, "He looks—why, if he were a grown person I should say he looked as if he were going to kill himself!"

When John had been back in the Shelter about two weeks, Mrs. Vincent came. Mrs. Vincent was well-known, a club-woman, a reformer, with ideas and theories of her own.

"My little boy is seven years old," she said, "And I do not think it is good for him to grow up an only child. I want a quiet boy about the same age, who will teach Charles gentleness and consideration for others. I can give him every advantage; Charles has been

brought up scientifically, and so would this boy be."

John seemed to fit the case, and he was brought out for inspection. He stood there, apathetic, but not sullen—there was not a particle of ugliness in the boy's gentle temper. Mrs. Vincent looked askance at the shoulder and the limp, but at last she agreed to take him, and John was sent to her beautiful house.

At Miss Yorke's first visit, she found that John was being scientifically brought up, indeed. Mrs. Vincent described with great complacency his daily regimen—every minute accounted for, it seemed, with instructors and overseers to do properly the work which Nature would doubtless have bungled. John seemed to have stiffened, somehow—but perhaps it was only his rather strange hygienic clothing, and his appearance of having just that minute stepped from the hands of a hairdresser and a manicurist. As Miss Yorke left, she stooped to kiss the pale little face.

"Oh, don't do that, please," exclaimed Mrs. Vincent in horror, "It's not good for children to kiss them, you know."

Miss Yorke remembered the healthy, dirt-grubbing days at the Ritchies', where love and simple life went hand in hand. Her pity increased at each visit, especially after a few interviews with the Vincent child had convinced her that "gentleness and consideration for others" were not in that youth's make-up. She even spoke to Miss Delmar about the matter.

One afternoon, just before the office closed, a telephone message came from Mrs. Vincent. John had run away!

John! Run away! It seemed impossible. But so it was. The instructor in calisthenics had been unable to come that afternoon; the careful program had been disarranged, and the children had had an hour's time on their hands. Charles had spent his in the stable, with the coachman. When tea-time had come John was nowhere to be found. They had searched for an hour before telephoning the news.

Immediately Bertha Yorke went to Brookton. With the help of the police she scoured the town and its surrounding country for the missing boy. She even went as far as the Ritchie farm, but, knowing what a shock the information would be, said nothing of it to Henry Ritchie. However, when she left, at eleven o'clock, she had made sure that the boy had not been near the old house. She stayed at the Vincents' all night, thinking bitterly that her hostess was more annoyed at the disturbance of her plans than worried about John.

After a sleepless night, she dragged herself into the office. "No news," she said, wearily, to Miss Delmar, and dropped into an empty chair.

Suddenly the door opened. Miss Delmar gasped, and Miss Yorke sat up straight. For there stood Henry Ritchie, and in his arms, fast asleep, lay John!

"I found him at my doorstep at three o'clock this morning," said Ritchie huskily, standing still in the doorway. "He'd walked and hidden and tramped again since three in the afternoon, poor little fellow. He was just tucked out—he didn't wake this morning when I dressed him. All he said was 'Father, I've been trying so long to get home to you!'" Henry choked, but he went on bravely, "I brought him to you first thing. I knew I had no right to keep him—"

"Mrs. Vincent said this morning," began Bertha Yorke in the tired tone of one repeating a lesson, "If you find the ungrateful little beggar you can keep him; I certainly don't want him back."

Miss Delmar looked at John. His hair was mussed, one shoe was badly laced, and if his face had been washed, it had ended at a dusty ring around his neck; but there was the faintest touch of color in his cheeks, and as he slept, he smiled. She looked at Miss Yorke's understanding, pleading eyes, at Henry Ritchie's twitching face. Then she drew a printed form toward her, filled it out and signed it.

"Sign this," she said, handing it to the man, "It's against all our rules and regulations, but I think we're going to let you keep John. Do you want us to send his clothes and things to you?"

"No, ma'am, I don't want anything." A great and unimagined joy shone in Henry Ritchie's face, as he bent over the child. "Only," he murmured, his lips on the boy's hair, "only—just John."

tabulated in the archives of our hospitals, swell a great total before the year is closed. Yet, they escape our notice in the whirligig and rush of our daily affairs. For them there are no display headlines or clamour in the thoroughfares. Business men do not stop with blanched faces, because famine has stalked through the land in that way, nor do they pause, staggered at the horror of our law courts, the defiance of our laws.

Right here at home, we are confronted with a war against our inordinate desires to get ahead of the other fellow at any cost, to grab, to bite off a far bigger bite than we can chew.

If we could have more patience with others, if we could reserve the more critical spirit for ourselves, if we could be less greedy, if we could moderate our pace, we might avoid such appalling tragedies here at home.

SAMUEL HOWE.

New York city.

WOMEN'S WAGES

TO THE EDITOR: It seems to me that false inferences would naturally be drawn from the article in *THE SURVEY* of July 25 on Wages for Women Clerks in Ohio.

The article makes no distinction between the different classes of persons employed and whether heads of families or members of a family. Many of the latter class, of course, are supported by the man who may be head of the family, and of course in such cases, it is not necessary that the wages should be equal to the full cost of living of a separate individual living apart.

A French-Canadian working in a cotton mill in New Hampshire was said to have 16 children, seven of whom worked in the mill. With full wages for each one as equivalent to full support, the income of the family would have been naturally something very large.

This whole matter of women's wages was very fully treated in a report of the Massachusetts Bureau of Labor by Carroll D. Wright, then head of the bureau, in 1884, and I think it deserves attention as it covers some of the same problems lately discussed in many papers.

The article in *THE SURVEY* of August 1 as to the state of mind of the Industrial Workers of the World and other anarchists is very interesting, as the description of a state of mind based largely on Marx's theory, aided always by violence which is now a prominent feature of all strikes whether of the American Federation of Labor or Industrial Workers of the World. This state of mind, though interesting as a problem, should not be allowed to upset all law and order. It is partly brought about, of course, by the unrestricted immigration allowed by the United States of many of the most undesirable classes of people in south-eastern Europe and other places.

ARTHUR T. LYMAN.

Boston.

RECIDIVIST CONVICTS

TO THE EDITOR: Though prisons, from the earliest recognition of *meum* and *tuum*, were deemed an essential part of government, not until 1779 were there

Communications

THE AUGUST MAGAZINE

TO THE EDITOR: The best number in a year (August 1)! Evidently the regular editor is away. If you had omitted the vapid, inconclusive article on Labor Disputes in Australia and the wretched "hospital" poem, and put a title page with some meaning, instead of that weakly sentimental cover picture, you could properly have restored your old claim, "a journal of constructive philanthropy." Miss Davis's comment on current investigation commissions alone is worth the price of the paper. Common sense will tell!

J. D. HOLMES.

New York city.

SAFETY AT SEA

TO THE EDITOR: You recently published an editorial regarding the International Convention on Safety of Life at Sea which seems to me very misleading. It states, for instance, that the existing American wireless provisions are lowered. This is not true.

In the first place the Convention only applies to ships plying between ports of different countries, so that it does not affect vessels plying from one American port to another and the existing requirements for such will, of course, remain unchanged.

Article 36 specifically continues all requirements now in effect by the Radiotelegraphic Convention of 1912.

Even for international traffic—which would not come under the requirements for continuous wireless service, Article 34 provides that each government may at its discretion require such continuous service.

I am, moreover, not in agreement with your contention that acceptance of this convention by the United States would

prevent this government from later putting into effect any additional requirement which Congress may see fit to enact. Your editorial intimates that treaty provisions are supreme with respect to statutory enactments that might conflict with them, but the Constitution puts both upon the same basis, and it seems to me that any enactment of Congress after acceptance of the treaty would supersede treaty provisions.

M. S. LLOYD,

[Technical Editor, *Electrical Review* and *Western Electrician*.]
Chicago.

WAR! WAR! WAR!

TO THE EDITOR: The air is filled with the cry of war! What can we do to help matters? There is one thing possible and open to everyone who stands aghast at the ruin around him, at the ignorance, disease, which bars our progress. We can begin by reforming ourselves. We can reduce the number of ignorant people in the world by one. We can inoculate ourselves with the desire to make headway for self-reformation. We can be doers, instead of dreamers. We can concern ourselves with our own limitations, and be appalled by the specter of our own ignorance. This is possible to every man and woman in the Union. We are horrified at the tragedy in Europe. We are confronted with a tragedy here.

Think of the great ravages of disease, of the white plague, of the divorce evil, of child labor, vice in many forms. True, the battle fields of Europe may be strewn with the dead and dying, all charged, as it were, against a few days in this present year. These tragedies are concentrated into a few hours, while the great ravages of disease,

penitentiaries in England. They were planned as a substitute for penal transportation, and the maximum term of confinement was seven years, except after an attempt to escape.

Blackstone in his Commentaries (IV. 370) says: "In forming the plan of these penitentiary houses, the principal objects have been . . . to preserve and amend the health of the unhappy offenders, to inure them to habits of industry, to guard them from pernicious company, to accustom them to serious reflection, and to teach them both the principles and practice of every Christian and moral duty. And if the whole of this plan be properly executed . . . there is reason to hope that such a reformation may be effected in the lower classes of mankind . . . as may in time supersede the necessity of capital punishment, except for very atrocious crimes."

Until a comparatively recent date a careful investigation of our American houses of penal detention would have failed to find indications of this primary philanthropic motive.

In confinement under the ban of the law, one is not necessarily a wicked man. I once lived in the vicinity of a state prison, and for some years spent much of every Sunday in personal contact with the inmates. I was often in the hospital, where I observed in stripes, a lovable elderly man, unselfish and unsparing in his service to the sick. He was said to be a *five timer*. Twice he had served in the prison North, and three times where he then was. To all appearance he was a sincere Christian. He certainly bore a spotless reputation within the prison walls. Too feeble for manual labor he had been assigned to hospital duty, and none ever feared his attempt to escape.

He was an enigma to me. The prison physician said the old man had some chronic ailment, he did not know what, as no treatment had ever been asked. When he died, the autopsy revealed the presence of a ragged calculus two-thirds the size of a goose egg. This led me to make further inquiry in regard to his past. He had doubtless suffered untold agony from this trouble for many years, ignorant of its nature and removability. Unable to toil and unwilling to accept charity he stole a horse, made a feint at escape, was arrested, pleaded guilty, and received a two-year sentence. Soon acquiring the confidence of the prison authorities he was made a hospital trusty. Still suffering, on the expiration of his term, he made his way with his customary fifteen dollars to the neighborhood of the other state prison, stole another horse, was arrested, pleaded guilty, received a longer sentence, and was again made hospital trusty. This he had done five times in all, after each offense receiving a longer sentence because of his incorrigibility; and at last from his prison cot went home to Heaven, as I fully believe.

In some directions things are better now than then, but there yet remain opportunities for improvement.

FRANCIS A. SEYMOUR, M.D.

Los Angeles, Cal.

SOCIAL HYGIENE

TO THE EDITOR: A narrow meaning has been allowed to the term—social hygiene, and I wish to point out that as a matter of fact it has a broad meaning. We usually refer to sex relationships and their hygienic aspects when we employ the term social hygiene, but social hygiene really means all those facts which are fundamental to the physical, mental and moral well being of the people of the community.

Havelock Ellis in his interesting book *The Task of Social Hygiene* uses the term in its broadest sense.

Social hygiene comprehends much more than the fundamental principles of sanitation and hygiene. It includes the intimate subjects of birth rate, death rate, eugenics, sex education, etc.

I gave a course of two lectures weekly on social hygiene in the University of Iowa this year. It was my effort to discuss the forces that are directed toward the amelioration of the people in the most progressive communities. I attempted to show that all the lines which converge to that objective—namely, the improvement of the life of the people are properly considered under the term social hygiene.

Starting, let us say, with the improvement of the water supply, which is a sanitary problem, we move on finally to a consideration of that intimate relationship between men and women upon which the mental, moral and physical vigor of the people depends.

I think it is clear that the term social hygiene ought to be used in a more comprehensive way, and it connotes the field I have suggested more accurately than any other term I know of.

C. S. WOOD.

[Dept. of Public Health and Hygiene,
State University of Iowa.]
Iowa City.

PACIFIC COAST SOCIAL HYGIENE CONFERENCE

VARIED ASPECTS of social hygiene were discussed at a three-day conference of the Pacific Coast Social Hygiene Federation, held at San Francisco and Berkeley, Cal., a few weeks ago. There were six sessions of the conference: Three at San Francisco, under the auspices of the California Social Hygiene Society, the Commonwealth Club of California and the San Francisco County Medical Society; three at Berkeley under the auspices of the University of California, the Berkeley Center, California Civic League and the American Social Hygiene Association.

Among the subjects discussed were: The work of the social hygiene society; sex education; the ethics and normal regimen of sex; social phases of the sex problem; methods of combatting the social diseases; and recent development and prospects of the social hygiene movement. Quack advertising aroused a spirited discussion.

Among the speakers were Franklin Hichborn, secretary of the Northern California Campaign Committee for the Red Light Abatement Law; Rabbi Rudolph I. Coffee of the Pittsburgh Morals

Commission; Dr. W. F. Snow, professor of public health at Stamford; Dr. R. M. Woodward of the U. S. Public Health Service; Prof. Carl Kelsey of the University of Pennsylvania.

Among the resolutions adopted were: Adoption of the name Pacific Coast Social Hygiene Federation to replace the phrase "sex hygiene," as too narrow in scope.

Endorsement of extension of the work of social hygiene societies to include

A plan of educating the public mind in respect to the nature and results of public prostitution; and

A campaign to suppress public prostitution when other agencies in the community are not effectively handling this evil.

Endorsement of the principle of the red light abatement law, and recommendation of such a law for all Pacific Coast states.

Resolutions against the introduction of social hygiene as a *distinct* subject in the school curriculum; but recommending that all normal schools and educational departments of universities train teachers in nature study, biology, physiology and hygiene so that they can present the subjects of reproduction and sex in proper relationship to these subjects.

Other resolutions recommended wider co-operation with federal authorities and other agencies in the campaign against dishonest advertising medical companies; and favored state aid until such time as social hygiene work can be transferred to the public educational and administrative departments.

POSTPONEMENT ANNOUNCED

The Fourth International Congress on Home Education, scheduled to convene in Philadelphia, under the auspices of the International Commission on Home Education and Parent-Teacher Unions on September 22-29, has been temporarily postponed on account of the war situation in Europe. The new date will be selected by the Central Committee.

OHIO COUNTRY LIFE WEEK

The one common conclusion of Country Life Week held at Ohio State University, expressed in both lectures and informal discussions, was that community improvement must come from local leadership and development.

The idea that the country church may be made the basis for much of the improvement which is sought was emphasized.

An important outgrowth of Country Life Week is the plan for a general organization of persons actively interested in rural improvement. Added point is given to such a suggestion by the fact that Ohio is now to have the services of C. O. Gill representing the National Federation of Churches and formerly located in Vermont.

ACKNOWLEDGMENT

The cut showing the gold medal presented to General Gorgas (*THE SURVEY*, Aug. 22, page 527) was used by courtesy of the American Medical Association. Through an error, acknowledgment was omitted at the time of publication.

THE SURVEY



LABOR'S INTERNATIONALISM
TESTED *by* THE WAR *of* NATIONS

By Graham Taylor

WAR SURGERY OF YESTERDAY

By Alice Hamilton, M. D.

MOBILIZING THE RED CROSS
FORCES

By Raymond W. Pullman

The New York School of Philanthropy

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New York

Robert W. deForest, President
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116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 23

Contents

September 5, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

PEACE DEMONSTRATIONS AND FIGHTING WAR'S EFFECTS	555
MODIFIED SEAMEN'S BILL PASSES THE HOUSE	555
STATE DEFENDS EMPLOYERS AGAINST ACCIDENT SUITS	556
SCANT LIGHT IN THE DARKEST STATE	557
CLEVELAND'S NEW CHARTER UNDER FIRE	557
FOR HEALTH AND EFFICIENCY IN DEPARTMENT STORES	558
CLASS FIGHTERS AND A HOBO WHO SOLVED A PROBLEM, John A. Fitch	558

CONTRIBUTED ARTICLES

LABOR'S INTERNATIONALISM TESTED BY THE WAR OF NATIONS	Graham Taylor	561
WAR SURGERY OF YESTERDAY	Alice Hamilton, M. D.	564
IN A FOUNDRY, a poem	Anna Blanche McGill	565
MOBILIZING THE RED CROSS FORCES	Raymond W. Pullman	566
WHERE LESSONS COME FROM REAL THINGS	W Templeton Johnson	570
BEAUTY FOR ASHES—XI. CONCLUSION	Albion Fellows Bacon	575

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THE SURVEY ASSOCIATES, INC., is an adventure in cooperative journalism; incorporated under the laws of the state of New York, November, 1912, as a membership organization without shares or stockholders. Membership is open to readers who become contributors of \$10 or more a year. It is this widespread, convinced backing and personal interest which has made THE SURVEY a living thing.

THE SURVEY is a weekly journal of constructive philanthropy, founded in the 90's by the Charity Organization Society of the City of New York. The first weekly issue of each month appears as an enlarged magazine number.

From the start, the magazine and its related activities have been broadly conceived as an educational enterprise: to be employed and developed beyond the limits of advertising and commercial accounts.

Price

Single copies of this issue twenty-five cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$5 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents. Changes of address should be mailed to us ten days in advance.

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ENTERED AT THE POST OFFICE, NEW YORK, AS SECOND CLASS MATTER

The GIST of IT—

JUST arrived from the countries at war, Prof. Graham Taylor tells how Socialist and labor statesmen met the crisis. The threatened anti-war strikes never had a chance to start. Radicals showed that, after all, they have a lot of national loyalty in their make-up. Page 561.

THE days of savage cruelty may be revived in this war, but not the era of mashed potato and onion poultices for the wounded. Such treatment during the Franco-Prussian war was in many ways worse than that of preceding centuries, according to Dr. Alice Hamilton who writes on the War Surgery of Yesterday. Page 564.

CLEVELAND voters thwarted an attack on the non-partisan feature of the city's new charter, but let the spoilsmen take laborers out of the civil service lists. Page 557.

CONGRESS suddenly realized that uncertainty about the almost forgotten seamen's bill had a bearing on the ship registry bill. So the House passed a compromise measure, modifying the committee bill but lacking many features of the La Follette bill which passed the Senate ten months ago. Page 555.

AFTER an employer declared war on unionism, the "cancer in the vitals of the nation," and an I. W. W. leader served an ultimatum on capitalism to find a soft place to fall, a plain but extraordinary hobo told how he organized his fellow unemployed and got jobs pulling stumps. Page 558.

GEORGIA has barely crawled out of her long held position as the most backward state in child labor legislation. Page 557.

RED CROSS methods in the nations at war—from the scheme of national organization to the work of dogs trained to search out and carry aid to the wounded—are described, with pictures, some of them taken since the war started. Page 566.

EMPLOYERS holding policies in the New York state insurance fund may count on the state's lawyers to defend them against accident suits. Page 556.

LEARN how to buy, cook and eat less expensive but just as nutritious food—one prescription of Mayor Mitchel's committee on high food prices. Another is systematic plans by the public for increasing facilities by which food is brought to the city. Page 555.

YOU will want your childhood days over again more than ever when you read about a fascinating new school in the open air at San Diego. Page 570.

"LABORATORY school" smacks of a college, but it's a brand new stunt to improve health and efficiency in a department store, and it was devised by the former president of a playground association. Page 558.

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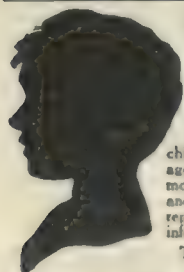
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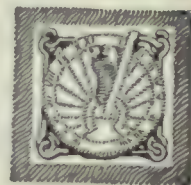
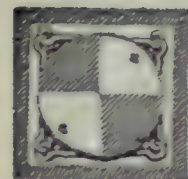
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THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



PEACE DEMONSTRATIONS AND FIGHTING WAR'S EFFECTS

WHILE SOLID MASSES of silent people lined Fifth avenue last Saturday afternoon, New York women, most of them clad in black, marched in somber protest against war. There were only 1,500 in line, but the very simplicity and silence of the demonstration were impressive. The only sound was that of muffled drums. The onlooker felt as if in the presence of a funeral cortege.

Every nationality now at war was represented among the marchers. One division was composed of colored women, and the presence of a company of blue uniformed nurses from the Nurses' Settlement served as reminder that the work of their sisters in the Red Cross service is by its very nature a protest against the barbarity of warfare. As planned by those who organized the demonstration, which had the approval of President Wilson, no mass meeting was held.

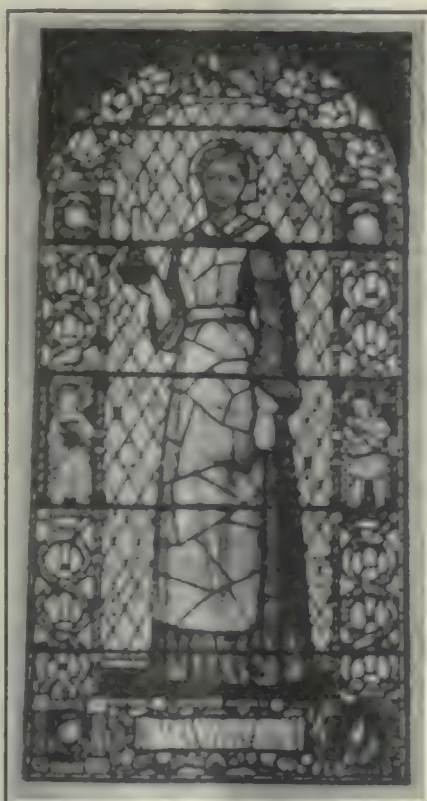
Cleveland, Ohio, has started a form of peace effort which is expected to swell the local Red Cross fund for European relief. Peace badges, consisting of buttons bearing the United States flag and the words "America wants world Peace," are prepared and sold under the auspices of the Cleveland Woman's Club.

This carries out a suggestion made by Thomas D. West, head of a large Cleveland firm. Mr. West has also started the circulation of petitions which pledge the signers to assist in creating sentiment for the settlement of international disputes by mediation or judicial means. The pledge is also printed on cards which are given with each badge. Boy Scouts are co-operating in selling the badges.

Mayor Mitchell's committee to investigate the food supply and high prices has made its report. It attributes the rise in prices to four factors: foreign demand for our foodstuffs, holding back of supplies by producers, stocking up by store keepers and similar buying by housekeepers in advance of need.

The committee urges people to reduce the cost of living by substituting nutri-

tious foods which have not been generally used for the more expensive foods to which many have become accustomed. It recommends education, through schools, churches and public meetings, as to the relative nutritious value of foods, and how to buy, cook and conserve them. It further recommends an increase in facilities by which food is brought into the city. More than \$150,000,000 has been spent, it points out, in providing water supply. Nothing like this amount would be required to build tubes from adjacent territory into New York, which would save an enormous sum to producers and consumers of food.



From The Hospital, London

FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE MEMORIAL WINDOW IN THE ROYAL INFIRMARY, GLASGOW, SCOTLAND, RECENTLY DEDICATED

As an international memorial to "the Mother of Trained Nursing," the International Council of Nurses plan a chair of nursing in some university of her native land.

MODIFIED SEAMEN'S BILL PASSES THE HOUSE

ON AUGUST 27, ten months, lacking one day, after the passage of the LaFollette seamen's bill in the United States Senate, the House of Representatives, following a general debate of two hours, finally passed a modified measure which marks a forward step in giving freedom to seamen and in promoting safety at sea. The bill passed with the general support of members of all parties, and was sent to conference.

The European war, resulting in a demand for a bill to permit the registering of foreign ships under the American flag, was the direct cause of the House taking up the seamen's bill at this time. It had been slumbering for so long in the room of the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries, that its advocates had almost given up hope of getting action at the present session. Apparently believing that the uncertainty about the seamen's bill must be ended before consideration of a ship registry bill, the House voted to suspend the rules to permit immediate consideration of the seamen's legislation pending on the calendar.

In a last effort to prevent the bill's passage, opponents claimed that its enactment into law might lead to trouble with belligerent nations. The republican leader, Representative Mann, urged that the United States should be slow to take any action affecting treaty obligations on shipping questions. Representative Humphreys of Washington, who opposed the bill's restrictions regarding crews of steamers, predicted that if the measure became a law "we would have war with Japan in thirty days." But the supporters of the bill gave little weight to these alarmist views and not even the men who expressed them asked for a roll call when the bill was called on its final passage.

Further delay has come, however, in the Senate where it is reported that the view found currency that the restrictions of the seamen's bill would interfere with the success of the ship registry bill in promoting an American Merchant Marine. Instead of appointing conferees the Senate referred the bill to a committee

TIME EXPOSURES *by* HINE

IN THE COOL OF THE EVENING

At the left, a street on the Lower East Side. At the right, a road through Van Cortlandt Park, ten miles north but still in New York city.

with the apparent intention of pigeon-holing it.

The bill is not as satisfactory to the seamen as the LaFollette bill which passed the Senate in October, 1913, nor on the other hand is it as objectionable to them as the House Committee bill introduced on June 19 last. These two bills were discussed in *THE SURVEY* for June 6, page 253, and July 4, page 355. Representative Joshua W. Alexander, of Missouri, chairman of the House Committee on Merchant Marine and Fisheries, and Andrew Furuseth, president of the seamen's union met and modified the unpopular committee measure.

The principal provisions of the modified bill are as follows:

Imprisonment for desertion is abolished and corporal punishment aboard ship is prohibited. Penalty for desertion is the forfeiture of not more than one month's pay.

A seaman may call for one-half of the wages due him upon arrival at any port.

Vessels shall provide not less than 120 cubic feet and not less than 16 square feet of space for each seaman or apprentice, with suitable ventilating, heating, lighting and sanitary arrangements.

Seamen shall not be required to do unnecessary work while ships are in a safe harbor on Sundays and legal holidays.

Three years' service at sea entitles a man to the rating of "able seaman."

Twenty-four months' service on deck on the Great Lakes or other lakes and the bays and sounds shall qualify a man as able seaman to serve on these waters.

Ocean going vessels on routes more than twenty miles off shore shall have life boat or life raft equipment to provide a place for every person on board.

Ocean going passenger vessels on ocean routes less than twenty miles from shore are permitted to go between May 15 and September 15 with 75 per cent life boatage, of which 50 per cent may be in life rafts.

On the Great Lakes, the accommodation provided in life boats shall in every case be sufficient to seat at least 75 per cent of the persons on board.

The life boats or rafts must be manned by three to seven certificated lifeboat men, according to the size of the boat or raft. A licensed officer or able seaman shall be placed in charge of each boat or pontoon raft.

Advocates of safety-at-sea and seamen's freedom legislation believe that the differences between the LaFollette bill and the House substitute are of such nature that there is opportunity for an agreement which will accomplish most of the purposes intended.

The two bills are alike in that they both repeal statutes and provide a means of abrogating or amending treaties under which American seamen are arrested, detained and surrendered to their vessels as provided by treaties with foreign nations, and under which the United States arrests and delivers to their vessels any foreign seaman who violates his contract, within the jurisdiction of the United States. Both bills give a seaman the right to demand and receive one-half of the wages which he has earned on reaching a port. The Senate bill provides for a time limit of two days in which to pay the money; while the substitute does not contain such a provision.

The LaFollette bill provides for the absolute prohibition against payment of advance wages or allotment to original creditor and makes it applicable to all vessels within the jurisdiction of the

United States. The House substitute bill has the following proviso, which is objectionable to the seamen's union: "Provided that treaties in force between the United States and foreign countries do not conflict therewith." The seamen's friends are against conferring any special privilege on the vessels of a nation protected by a treaty, to the disadvantage of another nation's vessels.

One of the objections to the House substitute is the provision which places each life boat or raft in charge of "a licensed officer or able seaman." This means that an engineer, who is a licensed officer, may be placed in charge of a life boat. The seamen say that there is nothing in their work to fit them for this service, and that the provision should be changed to read a "licensed deck officer." They lay great stress also on the LaFollette bill's requirement of two "able seamen" for life boats instead of "certificated life boat men" as provided by the substitute.

STATE DEFENDS EMPLOYERS AGAINST ACCIDENT SUITS

POLICY HOLDERS in the New York state insurance fund, one of the four choices of insurance open to employers under the new workmen's compensation act, described in *THE SURVEY* of December 20, 1913, are guaranteed state support in fighting employes who sue under the common law, alleging that they are not covered by the compensation act. In such a suit for damages recently brought by an employe the State Workmen's Compensation Commission has instructed its counsel to appear in court for the defendant.

The employer against whom action has been brought is the proprietor of a small meat market. One of his employes was

injured by getting his hand caught on a hook while hanging up a side of a beef. The commission has ruled that meat markets in which meat or meat products are manufactured or prepared by hand or machinery come within the provisions of the workmen's compensation act under group 30, which includes the manufacture or preparation of meat or meat products. The employe in this case first decided to accept compensation, filing a claim with the commission, but later withdrew the claim and entered suit for damages on the ground that his employment is not covered by the compensation act.

The action just taken by the commission is important since it has been asserted by the opponents and critics of the state insurance fund that its policy holders would not be protected against suits such as this and that such protection could be obtained only through insurance in stock or mutual companies.

SCANT LIGHT IN THE DARKEST STATE

FOR YEARS the Georgia child labor law has been the worst in the country, but a little progress has just been made. The state Legislature, recently adjourned, had under consideration a most conservative bill which passed, but only after having been made almost innocuous. The original provisions of the bill included a fourteen-year age limit for employment in mills, factories, laundries, amusement places, hotels, restaurants, mercantile and boot-blackening establishments, and errand, delivery, and messenger service. The old law fixed twelve years for factories but allowed poor children to work at ten. As passed all employments mentioned in the bill after "amusement places" were stricken out, and another concession had to be

made to conciliate the insistent specter of "the poor widow and the orphans." Now a twelve-year-old child may legally work in any of the few establishments covered by the law if his employment be approved by a commission composed of the county school superintendent, the local ordinary and the local school principal on the ground of his earnings being necessary for the support of either a widowed mother or himself if an orphan. Thus, Georgia persists in denying protection to those who need it most.

Between the ages of fourteen and sixteen, according to the original bill, a certificate from the school authorities showing the child's age, attendance at school and ability to read and write English was to be required. This was changed to a period of six months between fourteen and fourteen and one-half years of age, and the ability to read and write was stricken out of the list of qualifications for this certificate.

The prohibition of work at night in the establishments covered was to have applied to all children between fourteen and sixteen years of age. The law as passed makes it affect only those between fourteen and fourteen and one-half. The law fixes no limit for work during the day.

The influence of the cotton mill interests was principally responsible for the mutilation of the bill.

CLEVELAND'S NEW CHARTER UNDER FIRE

THE NON-PARTISAN feature of Cleveland's new city charter, which has been in effect since January 1, 1914, was sustained by a majority of nearly 1,000 votes at the state and county party primary elections on August 11. The amendment which was voted down proposed that the charter's preferential system of balloting for city officers be replaced by the old method of party primaries and alignments. It was initiated by the Socialists.

In consequence of the same election, over 2,000 city laborers face dismissal at the pleasure of the appointing officer, because, by less than 800 votes, an amendment to the charter was passed, removing unskilled labor from the classified civil service list. The passage of this amendment is considered of less importance, however, than the retention of the non-partisan election system.

Less than one-third of the city's voters participated in the election. The additional fact that the occasion was the state and county party primary is taken as assurance that among the voters was a preponderance of party workers, interested in seeing the restoration of the spoils system and party rule. Indications are that if the two amendments had been up at a regular election, their defeat would have been overwhelming.

The amendment exempting unskilled laborers from civil service was notably backed by the party machines, both Democratic and Republican. It was initiated by the so-called "non-partisan" but thoroughly Democratic city council, and passed over the veto of Acting Mayor Stockwell. When Mayor Baker, non-partisan in Cleveland but prominently Democratic in other spheres, returned home, he, too, opposed it. It met with



JUST A DOLLAR OR TWO—

WHAT THIRTY CENTS WILL BUY

Within a week and a day, citizens of Grand Rapids donated \$650 for needy babies in the city, through the milk and ice campaign fund conducted by the Grand Rapids Press, in the interests of the Free Clinic for Infant Feeding. Since the campaign formally closed, the amount of the subscriptions has increased the total to \$722—almost twice the clinic's modest request for \$400.

The first appeal was made in the Press July 10. Short articles illustrated by pictures of infants who had regained health through the baby welfare work were published daily until July 19. Additional emphasis was afforded by the cartoons drawn by the Press artist, three of which are reproduced above.

the active opposition of all the daily newspapers. But the thirst for spoils was too strong in the party men. The amendment passed by 17,413 votes to 16,648.

The ostensible cause for this amendment was the objection of departmental employers of labor, who said that civil service restrictions hampered them in their choice. The civil service examination was purely physical. A medical examination was followed by tests of ability to lift and carry bags of sand of various weights. Powerful men who passed were put at such work as digging trenches; men of medium weight at paving; and light men at street sweeping and similar work. Appointees under this system from January 1, numbered 2,058, with 614 others on a list eligible for appointment. Friends of the system declare it worked well, just as it has in many other cities.

Friends of the city's new charter are by no means satisfied with their partial victory in retaining the preferential ballot, and the Civic League declares it will, within a year, secure another vote upon the unskilled labor exemption amendment.

FOR HEALTH AND EFFICIENCY IN DEPARTMENT STORES

CHORAL SINGING followed by games and a lecture is a morning program decidedly different from the customary department store duties of arranging stock and preparing for customers. Yet songs and games open the day at the "laboratory school" recently established under the direction of the Department Store Education Association in the Lord & Taylor department store, New York city.

The association was founded by three New York women, Mrs. Henry Olshesheimer, Virginia Potter and Anne Morgan. Beulah Kennard, formerly president of the Pittsburgh Playground Association and a member of the school board of that city, has for the past year been developing the association's plan of work. Its aim is to supply a more definite preparation, physical and mental, for salesmanship.

Mrs. Lucinda Prince's School of Salesmanship in Boston is the pioneer in this field and has had the widest influence. Her work has been supplemented by a number of store schools and more recently by organized associations such as the Association of Corporation Schools. Two department stores in New York city have their own educational systems and practically all large stores have short courses for new arrivals on the force. Again, the younger employes of a number of stores have the advantages of the "continuation classes" under public school management, which carry into the store the mathematics, English and other branches that have been missed by leaving school too soon.

The Education Association, however, has gone about the matter in a way of its own. Instead of preparing formulas for training based on theory or on the experience of one or two stores, it has made a careful study of the situation for more than two years. It called in experts to determine what ought to be expected of the selling force, what was the average increase in efficiency for a period of years and what conditions affected the success of any one department or any one salesperson. Salespeople alone are considered because the office force, stenographers and bookkeepers are trained for their work.

The association was able to interest the manager of the oldest drygoods firm in New York city, Lord & Taylor, and made a careful study of that store first. They learned the conditions of work and inquired of more than two hundred girls their length of store service, their personal ambitions and what they believed to be their needs in the way of further training. Since then, with the co-operation of the stores, they have made brief studies at Stern's, McCreery's, Macy's, Loeser's, Sak's, Namm's and Matthews', and another complete survey of Bamberger's in Newark, all for the purpose of getting sufficient data upon which to build a practical educational plan which would give department store work the professional spirit it lacks.

In the experiment of starting the "laboratory school" the association could not begin with the entire Lord & Taylor store so seven representative departments were chosen. Each of these was divided into three parts, and from these classes were formed which include all the members, the experienced as well as the inexperienced, in order that to-

gether they may work out the plan.

Contrary to the usual method of beginning with talks on salesmanship the first item in this educational program is health. Lord & Taylor's new building, with its model dining and rest rooms, its gymnasium and its very complete medical department, gives unusual opportunities for successful work in this line. All the newer employes have been examined before admission to the store but for this special work even the older ones have welcomed the examination and friendly personal talk with a woman physician about ways of improving their health. Short lectures on hygiene are given and twenty minutes each morning on the floor of the gymnasium are devoted to brisk games. For the choral singing the girls have elected to come on their own time a half hour earlier. The Musical director is Carl E. Martin.

Part of the morning is given to the study of stock, of fashions or of some topic related to department work. The study of stock will not stop with a superficial knowledge of what is in the department, but will include a knowledge of materials, color and forms which will make the salesperson a real help to the customer. A moving picture machine has already been purchased and educational and scientific films will be used.

It was very largely through Miss Kennard's efforts that playground work in Pittsburgh sprang from a most humble beginning to its present high stage of development with over a million dollars invested in playgrounds, buildings and equipment. In 1913 she was appointed acting head of the Department of Play in the School of Education, University of Pittsburgh.

CLASS FIGHTERS AND A HOBO WHO SOLVED A PROBLEM—BY JOHN A. FITCH

CLASS FEELING is bitter in Seattle. That fact stood out in all the testimony before the Commission on Industrial Relations the week of August 10. There were few witnesses—employers,

union men, university professors or hoboes—who did not have something especially severe to say about existing conditions. There was little of a conciliatory nature. The testimony was mostly spirited and belligerent. And it reached its climax when two witnesses, one a large employer of labor and the other an I. W. W. leader, predicted revolution.

J. V. Patterson is president of the Seattle Construction & Dry Dock Company. He is said to be so antagonistic to organized labor that he will not receive goods at his plant from the hands of a teamster wearing a union button. Patterson delivered one of the most amazing speeches that has been made before the commission. He condemned unionism as a cancer eating into the vitals of the nation, destroying our liberties, taking away the independence of the worker. He charged the union leaders with being despots and grafters. "If our liberties are to go, the country

Probing the Causes of Unrest XI

The eleventh of a series of interpretations of the hearings, before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission, by a staff representative of The Survey.



ought to be destroyed," declared Patterson, and "I will help destroy it." He denounced the professors in the University of Washington, the ministers of Seattle, and the public officials from congressmen to mayor as "rotten." He declared that the President of the United States should go down in disgrace as "the worst enemy of the people and of labor" that the country has ever had. He threatened that the employers would start a revolution, and declared that they were ready to fight.

James P. Thompson, one of the founders of the I. W. W., was far less explosive but he was just as much in earnest when he declared that a revolution is coming in which the workers will come into control. He stated that civil government has recently broken down in three states, and said: "It will break down in all, there will be general strife and revolt." For this reason the I. W. W. is organizing, not alone to carry on the every-day struggle, but to carry on production when capitalism shall have been overthrown."

Other employers declared that Patterson had given utterance to their feelings. There is little doubt that Thompson reflected the spirit of the workers. And there was world timeliness in his statement that:

"There are two armies in the world, the army of production and the army of destruction. The army of destruction is the military army. Now the army of production feeds everybody. They produce it all, and what we want is for the army of destruction to disband and join the army of production. Then we who do the work won't have to work so hard, won't have to work so long. We will have the world's work to do but we will have more help to do it. We won't have the capitalist class. We want to put them to work. We want to do away with the wage system and establish the co-operative system in its place."

The Pacific coast is the home of the "blanket stiff" and the hobo. Its industries call them forth. Work is seasonal and jobs insecure. Lumbering is Washington's greatest industry. It is not, properly speaking, seasonal, but operation, by reason of depression or otherwise, has been intermittent. One operator testified that out of nineteen years in business his company's plant had been idle nine. After lumber come the fisheries and canning establishments which is seasonal work. There is a big run of salmon only once in four years. Then there is fruit picking and canning, and that is seasonal. There is general agriculture—seasonal again. And there is railroad construction—also seasonal.

Wages in the lumber camps are fairly good. Common labor gets \$2 a day or more. Skilled labor in the sawmills runs as high as \$8 or \$9 a day for a saw filer. But there is complaint that owing to short seasons of employment the men

make very little. They claim that they are hired through employment agents from whom, as they put it, they buy a job, and that they are soon laid off to make room for other men—suggesting fee splitting between agent and foreman. Some of the larger lumber operators maintain jointly free employment agencies in the towns. Here this practice would not be likely to occur.

The men generally pay \$5.25 for board in the lumber camps. They also pay \$1 a month hospital fee. This is a source of bitter complaint, for if they change jobs they declare that they have to pay again, and that sometimes they pay in this way \$3 or \$4 in a single month.

der her direction into the department stores, laundries, box factories and candy factories of Seattle, revealed the fact that before the law went into effect the average term of employment for a majority of the women was less than a year. This being the case, these girls could be taken on as apprentices, paid the lower wage and dismissed at the end of the apprenticeship period, making little change in the condition which preceded the law.

Mrs. McMahon also stated that the law puts a premium on child labor. Juvenile labor, which includes girls under eighteen, has had a minimum wage fixed at \$6 a week. For adult workers

REVOLUTION IN SEATTLE

What an Employer says:

"Unionism is a cancer which is eating the vitals out of this American people, and I hate it . . . I don't see the good of passing Clayton bills or any other kind of bills. That won't help us a bit because, gentlemen, you will force us to the point where we will fight you. We will rise with a counter revolution. . . . We have a right to do it. We have got to destroy you if it comes to that. That is what it is coming to. It is coming to a civil war, gentlemen, and we will fight. . . . I am ready.

"If there is any justification for the guillotine it is self-constituted power. It will come. Turn your backs on the past, don't read history. Read the vapors of the rotten professors. Read that trash, and you will soon read—you will soon read of a worse revolution than France—far worse."

J. V. PATTERSON,

President Seattle Dry Dock
& Construction Co.

An I. W. W. Statement:

"I would recommend to this commission that they say to all whom it may concern that a revolution is inevitable. We may delay that revolution a little, we may hurry it a little, but we can't stop it, and everyone who is big enough to rise above local interests and see the inevitable should do all he can to lessen the birth pangs of the new society being born from the womb of the old.

"And to the capitalist class I would say 'you are doomed. The best thing you can do is to look for a soft place to fall.'

"We would recommend to the working class that they organize as a class and depend for their labor laws, not upon the politician, but that they should organize and pass the labor laws in the union and enforce them on the job."

JAMES P. THOMPSON,
I. W. W. Leader.

Testimony before U. S. Commission on Industrial Relations

An employer testified that when a man left one job before the expiration of a month he could take with him a hospital card that would be recognized by any other employer up to the end of the thirty days for which it was issued. There were indications that this practice is not universal, however, and employers testified that all in all the earnings of lumber-jacks are not sufficient to enable them to support a family.

Professor Theresa S. McMahon of the University of Washington gave interesting testimony regarding the minimum wage law. Mrs. McMahon was formerly a member of the minimum wage commission. She stated that if a period of apprenticeship is allowed during which the minimum wage may be suspended, the good effects of the law may be lost. An investigation conducted un-

der her direction into the department stores, laundries, box factories and candy factories of Seattle, revealed the fact that before the law went into effect the average term of employment for a majority of the women was less than a year. This being the case, these girls could be taken on as apprentices, paid the lower wage and dismissed at the end of the apprenticeship period, making little change in the condition which preceded the law.

Conditions in the salmon canneries were a subject of investigation last year by Mrs. McMahon and the state commissioner of labor. She testified that violations of the child labor law were found, and that long hours of labor prevailed. When the eight-hour law for women was passed in Washington the canneries were exempted.

In some of the canneries Chinese labor is employed and Mrs. McMahon filed with the commission a copy of a contract which is in use in some of the canneries. It provides, among other things, that the

"party of the second part" may be called on at any time to work overtime after 6 p. m. or on Sundays. For such overtime he is to be paid fifteen cents an hour. If he refuses to work overtime, however, he will be fined twenty-five cents for each hour that he refuses to work.

The contract further provides that the worker must be in bed not later than ten o'clock, that if he engaged in "gambling, carousing, brawling, shouting," or making loud noises around the sleeping quarters after ten o'clock he may be fined \$5 by the foreman, or he may be discharged, in which case twenty-five cents per hour shall be deducted from his pay "from the time said contract is forfeited to the end of the fishing season"; that if he "strikes, demands higher wages or additional board or food" the contract is forfeited; that if he gets sick he must pay twenty-five cents for each meal and forfeit twenty-five cents for each hour that he does not work, and that he must pay \$3.50 "as part of the consideration for obtaining such employment" and in payment for storing any property that may be left with the employer, and for forwarding mail. All these sums are easy to collect for the contract provides that wages are to be paid at the end of the season. The contract states that board shall be furnished—"the same as is usually furnished to Chinese laborers."

Washington's industrial insurance act is well known. It is compulsory and requires employers in hazardous occupations to insure their employes in a state fund, from which compensation is paid to injured workers. The chairman of the Industrial Insurance Commission, Floyd L. Daggett, testified that the act is working very satisfactorily to all concerned.

John H. Wallace, a former commissioner and a hoisting engineer at a coal mine, followed Daggett on the stand and made a severe attack on the present method of administering the law charging that injured workmen often do not receive the compensation to which the law entitles them. He charged the commission with offering settlements for less than the legal compensation and with adopting a system of report blanks whereby the employe's report passes under the eye of his employer—with a resulting hesitancy about reporting the true facts of an accident.

The most peculiar fact about this law is that, alone among compensation laws, it makes no provision for the payment of first aid or medical expenses by the employer. A first aid clause was put in the original bill as drawn by a commission of five employers and five employes, but under the attacks of the lumber interests it was stricken from the bill in the Legislature. First aid and medical attendance is now taken care of in the \$1 a month fee that practically all working men in

the state are required to pay. A first aid bill is now before the people through the initiative and will be voted on this fall. The employers associations of the state are opposing it.

It remained for Henry Pauly, business agent of Local 22 of the Itinerant Workers' Union, or "hoboes' union of America," to give the most constructively valuable testimony of the week.

Because of Washington's seasonal industries, because Seattle is the gateway to Alaska, and because the railroads assiduously shipped laborers west last fall, Seattle's unemployment problem was serious last winter. "In the West an unskilled casual laborer who goes from job to job, following the seasons, is called a hobo. Seattle was full of hoboes.

Henry Pauly, a plain, honest, straight-speaking hobo, went on the stand to tell how the situation was met. He had shipped out to Montana last fall, on an understanding that the railroads needed labor. When he got there he found 400 hungry men on the prairie with no work in sight. Next day he was offered a job and was taken down the line to a place where the workers were on a "grub strike." He had neither money nor food so he went to work. After completing his job he had to go back to another town to get his money, and here he found several hundred men whom the railroads had brought in, mostly from the East, and who had no work. Pauly appealed to the town council and through them received an offer of transportation from the railroad, but it was for transportation west, not east. So Pauly and his fellows arrived in Seattle to swell the number of the unemployed.

There they found Jeff Davis, president of the International Union of Itinerant Laborers, trying to organize a local. Pauly helped and they made him business agent. An old hospital building that happened to be vacant was secured, the rent was paid by the Central Labor Council of Seattle, and Pauly was put in charge.

Then followed something unique in American labor history. Pauly set out to make the unemployed support themselves. He determined first of all that a reputation for sobriety and honesty and industry was essential to a successful outcome. Rules were made that every man must be in by 10:30 p. m.; that no one would be admitted unless he was willing to work, and that no one would be admitted who was under the influence of liquor. It was decided further to exclude I. W. W. men and agitators. They were barred as disorganizers. Pauly defines as an agitator one who is too much inclined to making incendiary speeches.

Then they began to advertise for work—any sort of work that did not conflict with organized labor. The Hoboes' Union is bound by an oath not to furnish strike-breakers. They began to get

odd jobs here and there. Men who got work in this way came back and put part of their money into a general fund.

Then Pauly organized men into squads to secure supplies. One squad would scrub out bakeries and receive their pay in stale bread. Another sorted "spuds" at the commission houses and took "seconds" for pay. Another squad gathered up odd and ends of lumber from building operations and carried them home for fuel. Everything was carried on the back, nothing was spent for cartage. As soon as possible Pauly made a first payment of \$50 on a stump puller and sought contracts to clear land. He got some contracts and the men who did the work shared the pay equally, after paying the balance on the stump puller.

All the while they had to fight against opposition. Someone named the old hospital the "Hotel de Gink" in derision. Pauly calmly appropriated the name, and its use became universal.

Pauly went to a business man for help and was told that Seattle had no use for him and that he and his followers ought to be driven out of town. He replied with dignity and spirit that he was a citizen of Seattle, and that he rather believed he would stay.

People said that the hoboes would not work if work were offered them. Pauly showed where twenty-five of his men had taken a clearing contract and had worked more than a month in the rainy season absolutely without shelter.

There were some holdups around town and some of the papers intimated that perhaps some of the guests at the "Hotel de Gink" could tell something about it. Pauly called in the police without warning and had them search every man in the place. A Seattle lawyer testified on the stand that "not so much as a pen-knife was found that didn't belong to them."

The men appointed police officers from their own number to maintain discipline and they organized a "kangaroo court," the decrees of which were strictly enforced. Penalties consisted of menial tasks, such as scrubbing floors or washing windows of the "hotel."

From February 17 until the industries approached their busy season so that all the men could get work, the place was made self-supporting—aside from the rent, which was paid by the Central Labor Council. From December 26 to April 27, 73,046 meals were served and 33,952 nights lodgings provided at an expense of \$1,308.85.

The Hotel de Gink closed in April and since then Pauly and a small gang of men have been clearing land on contract, sharing the receipts equally. So far they have taken contracts on a cash basis. It is Pauly's ambition to get clearing to do where small plots of land may be taken in payment. Then he will begin to settle men permanently on the land.

Labor's Internationalism Tested by the War of Nations

Graham Taylor

ATINGE of disappointment is apparent in an editorial in the *London Times* on War and Class War which followed another on Waning Hopes, while war was being declared. The *Times* inquired where the Socialists of Germany, France, Belgium and Britain are, now that "the artificial conflict," which they with other parties and factions represent, are tested by "the touch of a real one." For fifty years, the editorial reminds us, "we have been told that the united voice of the 'workers' will forbid war, and strenuous efforts have been made to put some substance into the promise. A universal strike on the advent or approach of war has been proposed and much discussed as an effectual means of frustrating it."

To this reminder the *Times* significantly adds, "if the plan had been earnestly entertained by wage-earners, it must have exercised a great and deciding influence."

But to the contrary, the Socialists must be as surprised, as all other divided groups are, at the amazing spectacle of this fratricidal strife. German Social Democrats in one army are fighting the Socialists of France, Belgium, and England in the army of the allies. The question is a fair one which the *Times* raises, "Where is the class-conscious solidarity of labor?" However, it is only fair to remember that the same question arises at the sight of Christians in a life and death struggle against Christians, Protestants against Protestants, Catholics against Catholics, the Holy Orthodox, against the Holy Orthodox, in the same irrational struggle.

There are reasons for doubting as too hasty the conclusion of the *Times* that "the class war of Socialism and the international peace movement associated with it, have evaporated and are in process of collapsing altogether." The onset of this war was too sudden and severe for anything to withstand. The German Socialists indeed proved to be no exception.

The same night on which martial law was proclaimed throughout Germany, their 79 newspapers were suppressed, their clubs and unions were not permitted to have another meeting and some of their members were summarily shot for continuing to protest against war. In France the foremost Socialist, Jaurés, was killed by a fanatical French patriot who justified his murderous deed

In this early discussion of one of the most significant experiences of the European war. Professor Taylor gives The Survey the first of his personal impressions gleaned from observation and interviews in France and England during the opening fortnight of the crisis.—Ed.

by claiming to have rendered France a service in removing the man who, in his consistent stand for international peace, opposed the measure for the three years of military service. The assassin at his arrest cried, "Jaurés was an enemy of the three-year law. He was an enemy of my country. I have done my duty." Although the deed was repudiated by everyone, most of all by the government, yet, the assassin's bullet at least rang out the warning to everything and everyone standing in the way of this fierce reassertion of nationalism.



JEAN JAURÉS

Assassinated in Paris, July 31, by a fanatical French patriot. As leading Socialist in the Chamber of Deputies and editor of *l'Humanité*, a Socialist daily, he stood for international peace, though, like Bebel, emphasizing the value to a people of its national character. At the time of the Moroccan crisis he went to Germany to urge workmen not to fight against their French brothers. He was not allowed to speak but his printed address was widely circulated by the German Socialists.

In the face of this rising tide of passion and the far more perilous military repression, the German Social Democrats held meetings and made public demonstrations in protest against the impending war at Weimar, Stuttgart, Strassburg and Berlin, until "a state of war" and martial law were proclaimed. To be sure, they did not court martyrdom as did the early Christians in their stand against the Caesars; neither did the heirs of those martyrs professing to follow the Prince of Peace, in any of the warring nations. On the contrary, the Socialists certainly became opportunists, as did the adherents of every other outstanding cause or sect, party or faction.

The French are led to war by a premier who had been a leader in the Socialist Party, upon whose arm the widow of the murdered Jaurés leaned as she followed her husband's body to the grave. Another Socialist leader, M. Hervé, who had even advised French soldiers to desert in case of war, himself applied to enlist under the colors. The *Confédération Générale du Travail*, corresponding to the American Federation of Labor, issued an appeal to all trade unionists to join in the defense of France. All these apparently self-stultifying attitudes and actions are extenuated by their hope that the war will break up the German monarchy and thus be the first step toward "the United States of Europe."

M. Vandervelde, the scholarly yet popular Socialist leader in Belgium, at the violation of the neutrality of his country by the German invasion, consented to serve in the ministry of the clerical and conservative party which he had always opposed. The *New Statesman* declares that "all the peace parties of Germany collapsed before the specter of the Russian peril, just as German aggression (for which the Russian peril is the excuse if not the justification) has frustrated all efforts of pacifist elements in the countries bordering on the western German frontier."

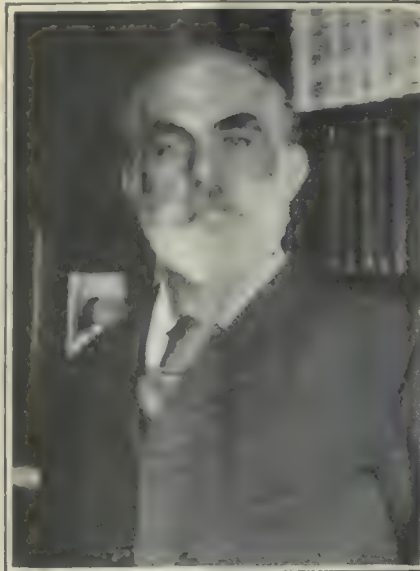
Even Peter Kropotkin, exiled prince of Russia, from his refuge in England declares his loyalty to his people in their war, which has already brought from the autocracy assurances of more liberty to Poland and Finland and to the Zemstvos throughout the Empire.

There was a temporary split in the British Parliamentary Labor Party



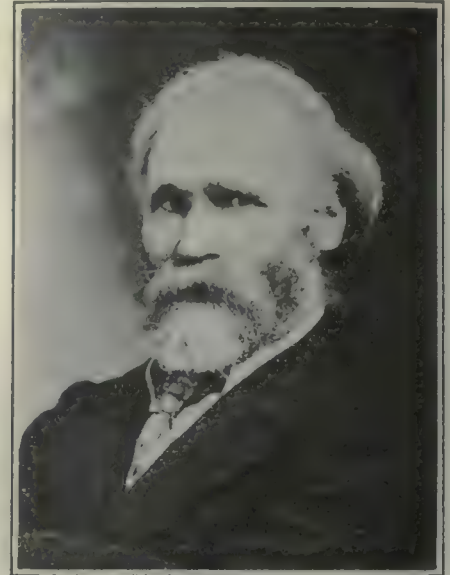
J. RAMSAY MACDONALD

As a protest against the war he resigned his chairmanship of the Parliamentary Labor Party. His career in the House of Commons has not been that of an irreconcilable extremist but that of a practical labor statesman. During the great railway strike in 1911, his firm yet reasonable presentation of the men's cause brought about a settlement of the strike.



JOHN BURNS

Labor's only member of the British Cabinet, who resigned owing to England's failure to remain neutral. Although famous as organizer of the dockers' strikes, and later as the foremost British labor leader, his political preferment has subjected him to the criticism of the extremists in the labor movement. His resignation created surprisingly little comment.



KEIR HARDIE

One of the chief speakers at the labor protest against war, held in Trafalgar Square the Sunday before England declared war against Germany. Thousands of workmen called upon their brothers in other countries to unite to prevent their governments from engaging in war. Representatives of different nationalities joined hands while the crowd cheered.

over the war issue. They, with the trade unionists and other more radical groups, had written, spoken and taken action against Britain's engaging in the impending war.

A great meeting of protest was held in Trafalgar Square the Sunday before England declared war against Germany. It was attended by many thousands of working people, some five thousand Socialists and trade unionists marching from the East End, carrying the red banner of the National Transport Workers' Federation. There were some minor interruptions by a group bearing the union jack, which, however, were quickly and quietly repressed by the police.

During the meeting a Russian, a German, a Frenchman and a Swiss embraced each other and stood with joined hands while the crowd cheered. The resolutions adopted called upon the citizens of London to express "their deepest detestation of the international war that seems to be on the point of breaking out, and upon the workers to unite to prevent their respective governments from engaging in war."

The British Socialist Party issued a manifesto to the workers of Great Britain, declaring that "it is not a war of peoples," that "the workers of Germany declared vehemently against war," that "never again must we entrust our foreign affairs to secret diplomacy," and that "only an agreement between the peoples of France, Germany and Great Britain will be solid guarantee of peace and a powerful bulwark against the encroachments of Russian despo-

tism, a result which may easily come of the present war."

After war had been declared, however, all these groups decided to discontinue opposition to the government's foreign policy and concentrate their effort to assure government protection and care for the wage workers against the rising cost of living, unemployment, and destitution from which they would



GEORGE LANSBURY

Consistent opponent of the war through the *Daily Herald*, which has attained under his editorship a wide circulation as a workmen's newspaper. He urged a strike of the workers in transportation and communication, to prevent their use for war purposes. He resigned from Parliament recently as a protest against the government's attitude toward woman suffrage.

otherwise surely suffer as a consequence of the war.

Not agreeing with the attitude thus taken, J. Ramsay MacDonald resigned his chairmanship of the Parliamentary Labor Party. Action was deferred for two weeks in the hope that the resignation might be withdrawn. John Burns also resigned as head of the local government board in the cabinet, when Lord Morley and C. T. Trevelyan also withdrew on account of their opposition to the war. Burns' resignation was received with no protest and surprisingly little comment, especially in labor circles.

The *Daily Herald*, which George Lansbury edits in the interests of industrial unionism, continues its protest against the war, although in somewhat modified form, since it actually began. Just before the declaration, in an editorial entitled, Down with the War, it alluded to the much talk and many resolutions in recent years about the international solidarity of labor.

"If the protest against war is to be made effective," it declared, "those workers who have in their power the control of transport and communication must refuse to allow them to be used for an end which will cause untold human suffering. They must strike against war. The labor leaders must act at once. There is given to the worker the opportunity to strike a blow at the very heart of the capitalist system. The weapon stands ready to the workers' hand. May they dare to be wise."

Acting on this or similar advice the Welsh miners at Cardiff refused unani-



KARL LIEBKNECHT

Socialist member of the Reichstag. Sentenced in 1907 to imprisonment for writing an anti-militarist book. He charged that the Krupps, in league with army officers, fomented war scares in order to sell armament to the German government, and was active in recent effort to force reduction of army estimates for next year. Reported executed soon after war was declared, but said to be safe in Berlin.



PETER KROPOTKIN

Russian nobleman. In early life a Cossack lieutenant, he later joined the revolutionists and was exiled as a philosophical anarchist. From his refuge in England he has declared his loyalty to the cause of the Russian people in the present war, which has already brought from the autocracy assurances of greater freedom to Poland and Finland, and to Zemstvos throughout the Empire.



EMILE VANDERVELDE

Leading Belgian Socialist who, after the outbreak of war, consented to serve in the cabinet of the conservatives. He has an international reputation as a scholarly lawyer and Parliamentary debater. At the time of the Congo atrocities he made a personal investigation on the ground. He was active in the nation-wide strike for manhood suffrage in 1913.

mously to accede to the request of the British admiralty that two holidays be curtailed in order to mine coal urgently needed for the navy. In so doing they justified themselves thus: "We do not consider it necessary for defensive purposes to ask the miners to work on these two holidays, and we decline to encourage, or in any way countenance, the policy of active intervention of this country in the present European conflict. Further, that as the International Miners' Congress has, at its meetings, adopted a resolution condemnatory of war between the nations represented, we think the present moment is opportune for the miners of Europe to make an endeavor to enforce their views upon the governments implicated in the conflict and the pending complications."

This action caused excitement in Parliament. A ministerial party member declared in the House of Commons: "If those men had acted in that way in Germany, they would have been taken out and shot forthwith. What was the government going to do in a case of this kind? The Socialist Federation was a body which had passed a resolution saying that all war was wrong and urging its members to take the necessary steps to prevent the government from getting coal. They might be right or wrong in their standpoint, but it was a proposition the state could not admit for a moment and the state should take some action against those who incited the miners not to go to work."

Dr. McNamara, speaking for the Ministry, said: "There was no occasion to give rise to uncalled-for apprehension. A great many of the men did go to work and all are at work now."

Subsequently, the Miners' Federation in South Wales decided that all existing questions, including those relating to non-unionism, should be dropped, and declared that they were willing to work at any time, day or night. The Scottish coal mine owners informed their miners that in view of the existing situation, they would not proceed with their claim for a reduction in wages. In line with this subordination of all differences to the national defense, almost all pending disputes have been settled or dropped by the London building trades, the marine engineers, electricians, boiler-makers, ship repairers, and even the transport and dockers' unions. Lists of these settlements are printed and editorially emphasized in the London papers.

Jean Jaurés, at the Congress of the Socialist Party in France, the month before he died, faced the demand that his party should support the general strike, as the most efficacious of all means of preventing war, at the International Socialist Congress which was to have been held soon at Vienna. In a remarkable oration he admitted that a strike could be effective only if genuinely spontaneous and effectively simultaneous in all countries; but he prophetically added that it would not avail where or when nationality was at stake.

In a striking editorial, indicative of the change in its tone of discussion, the radical *Daily Herald*, quoted above, thus finely applies William James's urgency of a "moral equivalent for war:"

"Cannot we still have an army, equipped not for death but for life? Cannot we fight, not each other, but our common foe—nature? Cannot we thus preserve in the inmost fiber of the people that morale we would not have stagnate?"

"It is not difficult to find that moral equivalent. It lies in the creation of a civic sense. We must engender a hatred of the errors of our civilization, a hatred so bitter and compelling that men will not endure wrong because they would regard it as sin. We want to take that pride the soldier feels in the possession of his gun, that erect posture of body and soul which can be seen as the outcome of his training, and substitute for it a pride in the tools of labor, be they the miner's pick, the surgeon's knife, or the weaver's loom."

Meanwhile, at the call of their home lands, workers all over the world are laying down their tools to go back to their mother countries and take up arms to kill each other. Surely, for the time being at least, their "class-consciousness" is superseded by their national loyalty, and yet before this war is over, or as a result of it, national loyalty may be subordinated to the supremacy of race-consciousness. But beyond all wars, behind the clouds and darkness, above the valley of the shadow of death there still shines the fixed star of undying hope—"the parliament of man, the federation of the world."

War Surgery of Yesterday

By Alice Hamilton, M. D.

AS we follow the story of the war in Belgium we are continually reminded of the last great war waged over much of the same territory, the Franco-Prussian war of 1870. Whatever other contrasts there may be between the two wars, the greatest contrast certainly will be in the treatment of the wounded. If we can trust the newspapers, we have not left savage cruelty behind in the nineteenth century; but we have, it is a comfort to reflect, left behind that crass ignorance of the nature of infection and fever which made the military surgeon of 1870 a very doubtful good, and made the lot of the survivor of a battle often much more terrible than that of his fellow soldier who was shot to pieces at once.

It is not yet fifty years back to 1870, but during those years all the advances of modern surgery have been made. Indeed, the practice of those days was in many ways worse than that of the centuries preceding it. It was the era of heavy, filthy poultices, made of anything and everything, of yeast and onions, mashed potatoes, bread and milk; for erysipelas, a cranberry sauce, and so on. The patient was fortunate who had anything as clean as flaxseed. In earlier, more primitive days, physicians had unknowingly worked out a very efficient antiseptic method of dressing wounds. The Good Samaritan poured wine and oil into the wounds of the man who fell among thieves, and for centuries oil and brandy or wine dressings and the use of the cautery were usual. Dressings were sterilized by dipping in hot wine or by baking till slightly scorched. In the Napoleonic campaigns, the great surgeon Larrey used hot oil and brandy and advocated infrequent dressings; but his successors in 1870 were under the domination of new theories of inflammation and scorned such simple ways.

Surgery of Old Times

In 1870 Pasteur had already completed enough of his work on the germ origin of disease to inspire Joseph Lister, who for four years had been treating patients in Edinburgh with antiseptic dressings and using sterilized instruments in his operations, but his methods were not given any attention in France and Germany, where surgeons still held fast to the belief that suppuration, pyæmia, erysipelas, gangrene, were of spontaneous origin within the patient. That was Pasteur's greatest service to the world—the overthrow of the theory of "spontaneous generation" of disease.

The surgeons of 1870 had a high degree of skill and also had the aid of

anaesthetics in their work; but so dreadful were the results of the most "successful" operation that one of the most eminent, Denonvilliers, is quoted as saying to his students: "When an amputation seems necessary, think ten times about it, for too often, when we decide upon an operation, we sign the patient's death warrant." And indeed, it is said that in 1868 the mortality of amputation cases in Paris hospitals was 60 per cent.

Some of the greatest Frenchmen in modern medicine served in that war and have left us records of their horror, not over the direct results of a battle, but over the terrible complications which developed in the hospitals. Landouzy tells us that pus seemed to germinate everywhere, "as if it had been sown by the surgeon," as in very truth it was. Nelaton, seeing during the siege of Paris the death of almost every operative case, exclaimed that the man who could conquer purulent infection would deserve a golden statue. The man who did that, very thing, Pasteur, was even then pointing the way and France has given him in the institute that bears his name something much better than a golden statue. One of the best descriptions of the military surgical practice of the Franco-Prussian war is to be found in Pasteur's biography.

Suppose we follow in imagination an army surgeon making his rounds of a morning in 1870. The moment he opens the door of the ward he is greeted by the familiar foul, heavy odor, which he calls the odor of the wounded. There they lie before him, pale, suffering, emaciated faces, or faces swollen with erysipelas or dull-eyed, flushed and stupid from the poison in the blood. All those who are conscious brace themselves for the agony of the morning dressings.

The surgeon goes to his first case with clean hands, and if he is a careful man, the instruments he takes out of his bag are clean from a soap and water washing at the end of yesterday's work. But he puts them down anywhere, and if one falls to the floor, it is probably picked up and used. He probes and explores the sinuses that have formed, for he knows no reason why he should not handle the wound. For dressing he puts a poultice or at the best a pad of lint, of that lint which was picked and sent in bales to the front by devoted women, but which nobody ever thought of sterilizing and which lay anywhere in the ward, on beds or floor where it would be handy.

He passes on to his next case without stopping for hand washing or to cleanse

instruments. This may be a clean case, a deep bullet wound in a healthy young man whose tissues have been able to dispose of the slight infection carried in by the shot. But when our kind surgeon leaves him, it is no longer a clean wound. The probe which he used on the man with a purulent infection has been thrust into the track of the bullet and has inoculated it as surely as the bacteriologist now inoculates a test tube.

And so he goes, this skilled and well meaning man, scattering infection in his wake, and when he leaves the ward he leaves his victims to an increasing restlessness and pain and to "wound fever" which almost surely will have come on by night; but he has no feeling of anything but duty well done. And when the next morning he removes the dressings and finds the clean wound of the day before now bathed in pus he congratulates his patient. This is "laudable pus," the best result that could have been looked for. We recognize it now as a staphylococcal infection, usually much the least dangerous form of suppuration, though always a deplorable accident. But not nearly all the cases are as lucky as this. Others have the far more dangerous streptococcal pus, with perhaps diphtheroid or gas-forming bacilli added and still others are dying of that terrible filth disease, hospital gangrene, so foul and so infectious.

Beginnings of Progress

What chance had the ordinary wounded soldier under treatment like this? Had he been carried to the nearest farmhouse, washed clean, laid in a fresh room, his wounds dressed in clean linen, he would have been infinitely better off. Even in a hospital ordinary cleanliness was not maintained. The air was always foul and pestilential, and the first dressing often put on without even washing away dirt and dried blood. No wonder that the surgeon Sédillot, writing from the seat of war, called on the friends of science and humanity to devise some way of stopping the frightful mortality among the wounded in the hospitals.

Toward the end of the war the teachings of Pasteur and of Lister began to receive attention and we find in 1871 Alphonse Guérin declaring that the cause of purulent infection was probably to be found in the germs and ferments discovered by Pasteur to exist in the air. He washed the wound with a solution of carbolic acid or with camphorated alcohol and covered it thickly with cotton wool and linen bandages,

leaving the dressing on for twenty days. In Paris during the Commune this treatment was carried out in the Hospital of St. Louis; and to the amazement of surgeons, nineteen out of thirty-four patients survived operation. Dr. Reclus who could hardly bring himself to believe it, said, "We had grown to look upon purulent infection as an inevitable and necessary disease, an almost divinely instituted consequence of any important operation."¹

The practice in our own civil war was just the same. To anyone who wishes to read a graphic description of one of our military hospitals, let me recommend Louisa M. Alcott's *Hospital Sketches*. With complete unconsciousness of the disgracefulness of the picture, she describes the foul sickening air of the wards in the Washington hospital and the agonizing scenes over the daily dressings which were done without anaesthesia, though often as painful as the original operation. She gives a naive picture also of her own and her fellow nurses' incompetence, made up for partly, it is true, by her warm-hearted devotion to her patients.

The era following 1870 was that of Listerism, antiseptic surgery. Carbolic acid was indispensable. Instruments and dressings were sterilized in it, the wound was washed with it, the surgeon

kept his hands drenched in it and the work of operating and dressing was all carried out under a carbolic acid spray. Since then we have learned the value of Pasteur's heat sterilization and we have learned to dread the effect of strong antiseptics on the recuperative powers of the tissues, which means that we have passed from antiseptics to asepsis. But this step is infinitesimal compared to that from septic surgery to Listerism.² We owe an enormous debt to the disciples of Lister, many of whom contracted Bright's disease from chronic carbolic acid poisoning as a result of continual exposure to the spray.

Modern Asepsis

The soldiers wounded in the battles of today will, if they can be reached by nurses and doctors, stand an infinitely better chance of recovering and of recovering unmaimed than did those of 1870. In other ways too they are probably more fortunate. It is said that the high speed of the modern bullet makes a small, clean wound which often produces surprisingly little injury to the tissues it passes through.

The *Journal of the American Medical Association* quotes a report on surgery during the Balkan war, written by an eminent Belgian surgeon, Octave Laur-

¹For the benefit of the anti-vivisectionists, I cannot help saying that this advance would have been delayed for years if, indeed, it were possible at all without animal experimentation.

ent. In that war amputation was rarely necessary, less than 1 per cent of the wounded requiring it; and serious abdominal operations were still rarer. The mortality from wounds in the limbs was only 5 per cent; even from wounds in the trunk it was but 35 to 40 per cent; from wounds in the head, 55 per cent.

We have learned some lessons from the great wars of recent days. In the Russo-Japanese war the importance of bodily cleanliness was demonstrated, for the Japanese with their frequent baths and their rule that clean underwear must be donned before a battle suffered far less from infected wounds than had ever been true in other wars. The ordinary bullet is germ free when it reaches its victim and whatever infection is carried in comes from his skin or clothing. In the Balkan war surgeons found the value of non-interference. A wound unprobed and treated with iodine and dressed with balsam of Peru usually healed without trouble.

We feel as if all the progress that has been made through the centuries in the realization of the value of peace and in the understanding of human relations, has been lost when we look at this war; but it is some slight comfort to know that the results of medical science have not been lost and that after modern death-dealing artillery has done its work, modern skill and knowledge will make the fate of the poor victims as easy as possible.

IN A FOUNDRY

ANNA BLANCHE MCGILL

GREATmuscled, with bare breast of Hercules,
Attentive eyes, firm hands that lift with ease
Huge dippers of the crimson liquid fire—
Seething and hissing while the sparks aspire—
Now, as the cauldron's glow his form enfolds,
He seems a stalwart god of flame who holds
Aloft with vigorous grace some molten force
To speed new worlds upon their spiral course.

O that as radiant fabled deity
Once elemental fire through space set free,
This strong flame-master of our modern hour
Might liberate for us some kindling power
To quicken and assay earth's sluggish hearts!
Would that his Toil-born sparks were Love-tipped darts!
Would that as he in some deep glow we stood,
Forging dissev'ring strifes to brotherhood!



TRAINED DOGS OF THE FRENCH RED CROSS

Mobilizing the Red Cross Forces

By Raymond W. Pullman

WITH seven nations of Europe, and now Japan as well, involved in war, societies of the International Red Cross are confronted by the mightiest task ever facing committees of succor since the beginning of the movement to alleviate human suffering in war. Are those societies prepared to meet the crisis? What is the Red Cross situation abroad?

It is too early, perhaps, to hear from societies now in active service. But it is possible to recall their growth in the several countries, and to know the particular plans by which the several organizations co-operate each with the military authority of its own country.

Only fifty-five years have passed since Henri Dunant's band of volunteers searched the field of Solferino for dead and wounded. They buried the dead and nursed the wounded whether Austrian enemy or Sardinian ally; for pain and death made enemies brothers—"tutti fratelli." With the dreadful scenes of that field in heart and memory, Dunant fought the opposition of the many who believed that "War is divine," and urged his question, Could there not be in every country aid societies that should provide volunteer nurses for wounded soldiers regardless of na-

tionality? He published the story of the volunteers at Solferino, and his story made men ponder.

Four years later Dunant's plan was approved by a *conférence* held at Geneva upon invitation of the *Société Genevoise d'Utilité Publique*. Fourteen

governments were officially represented. The resolutions passed at this *conférence* were embodied in a formal code, and a treaty was signed the following year, 1864. Out of compliment to the society taking the initiative, the new organization adopted as its emblem the Swiss flag with colors reversed—a Greek cross red, on white ground. Its motto was, "Neutrality and Humanity." For the first necessity for such work as they planned must be neutrality not only for the wounded themselves but "for field and stationary hospitals, for officials employed in sanitary work, for volunteer nurses, and inhabitants assisting the wounded."

But save for a few guiding principles, the code left each society free to determine its specific work according to the customs, needs and opportunities in its own country. Inevitably some friction occurred in the process of adjustment to existing military medical service. But rivalry and opposition have given way to co-operation. Authority has remained with war departments; the Red Cross organizations have aided by activities that make a splendid story of enterprise and courage.

In France there are recognized three societies of the Red Cross: the *Société*



MAJ. ROBERT U. PATTERSON
In charge of hospital units on American Red Cross relief ship.

de Secours des Blessés Militaires; the *Union des Femmes de France*; and the *Association des Dames Françaises*. The last mentioned has branches in several countries for French residents. Plans of each society are discussed by a committee consisting of a member of the army medical department and a member of the individual society. All three societies are under the central direction of the Marquis de Vogue, formerly ambassador to Constantinople, a man over 80, of wide culture and sensitive to the finer needs of the French people.

Every six months a statement of resources and plans for each district is sent to the government medical officer of that district who in turn reports to the war office. Activities of these societies are of four chief varieties:

1. Maintaining hospitals in home territory for the expansion of the military hospital system. These hospitals are graded as "complete" when from twenty to one hundred beds are available and equipped for at least three months. A second grade recognizes less fully equipped hospitals; a third, definite plans for such hospitals. The latest full report available (1907) credits to the *Société de Secours*, over 6,000 beds in hospitals of the highest grade; to the *Union*, over 4,000; to the *Association*, over 2,000. More than 35,000 beds were at that date planned or partly provided for by all three societies.

2. Maintaining auxiliary field hospitals on the line of communication between a scene of action and the home base of supplies. These relieve the regular field hospitals, when because of severe cases



NEW RED CROSS UNIFORM

Worn by nurses on the American Relief Ship.

the latter cannot follow the army to a new position.

3. Securing gifts—money or otherwise—and forwarding these to the soldiers indicated and distributing them to others in need.

4. Maintaining "sick rooms," *infirmaries de gares*, in railway stations along

the line of communication. A *dépôt* waiting-room or an express office must sometimes be transformed at a moment's notice into an operating room for men whose injuries require immediate operation. More frequently these rooms provide refreshment for trainloads of wounded soldiers on their way home or to a hospital, and treatment or dressing of their wounds. These *infirmaries de gares* are placed not further apart than a six hours' ride. This special branch of work is under the care of the *Société de Secours* exclusively.

The revenue of the French Red Cross comes from many sources, as in other countries. Each society has its own fund. Special fêtes are frequent. Memberships, contributions, and bequests are the largest and surest means of income.

In this excellent organization the weak point has been considered to be the training given the nurses. Too often instruction does not pass the mere rudiments of nursing. Thousands of women are said to take short courses six weeks or three months in length, which cannot, of course, prepare them for serious emergency work. A number of women study a course in hospital administration which gives them the title of *dames comptables*. The uniform of these *dames comptables* is a white dress and blue cap; that of the regular nurse is white, in both dress and cap.

It will be noted that the French Red Cross activity does not ordinarily reach to the "army zone." This has been true in other countries also.

¹Journal of the Royal United Service Institute, 1907.

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GERMAN AMBULANCE CORPS TAKING CARE OF THEIR WOUNDED



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RED CROSS DIVISION OF THE GERMAN ARMY PREPARING
FOOD FOR THE WOUNDED

GROUP OF RED CROSS NURSES IN THE JAPANESE ARMY

The German society is organized with characteristic thoroughness. Its especial strength is the training of its nurses, men and women. On the thoroughness of this training depends the strength of its plans for operation. Its nurses are in field hospitals along the line of communication, in military hospitals in the home territory. One special group of nurses receive definite training as assistants to the professional nurses. Sections of trained men serve as *Hilfs Sanitäts Kolonnen*. These "columns" are auxiliaries to the army stretcher-bearers, conveying the injured from field to hospitals or homebound trains. Information bureaus and medical rooms in railway stations are, as in the case of France, equipped by the Red Cross; the military hospital system is extended by Red Cross hospitals, at home, and by refuges for the convalescent or helpless. Hospital trains fully equipped can be rushed to a disaster or to check the outbreak of an epidemic in the army.

Completeness of equipment and unlimited stores—these seem perhaps the most significant evidence of the careful organization centering in Berlin and reaching out through every section of the Empire. The latest available figures give a total membership of nearly 500,000; 196 auxiliary hospitals; 599 railway medical rooms, and 521 convalescent homes.

Similar lines of Red Cross work in all countries need not be described repeatedly. Space demands that only certain unique features of the work be indicated.

In Austro-Hungary the Red Cross organization has a direct official relation to the *Reichs-Kriegs-Ministerium*, or

war department. Several societies cooperate in typical Red Cross work, though keeping their distinct titles. The division of responsibility assigns to the Red Cross the furnishing of supplies, and to the government the personnel and direction of activities. Work is similar to that in Germany though less extensive. The costume is, in many cases, that of a church sister.

The smaller societies of Belgium and Servia are perhaps facing their first great test, although Servian physicians and nurses gave important aid during the Balkan wars.

In Russia, the Red Cross is practically a state organization. Part of the society's revenue comes from the government, a proportion of the charge for passports being set aside for Red Cross work. Russia claims to be the first nation to plan for peace activity. Possibly, incomplete organization may explain the rivalry nevertheless resulting when in a war crisis two groups of people attempted the same task. The Russo-Japanese war taught an important lesson in this matter of field economics. During the war, Red Cross hospitals were operated quite independently of the government institutions. So it befell that sometimes a Red Cross hospital would be placed just across the road from a government establishment. Comparisons resulted. Food was better, it was said, under Red Cross direction, and salaries were higher. A soldier who recovered in the Government hospital was expected to go at once to the front again; the Red Cross usually sent him home for thorough recuperation.

Such obvious objections to a double system could not long remain unnoticed.

But the real secret of such rivalry lay in zeal for service. A Delegate-General of the Red Cross was heard to say during the action in Manchuria, that only with the greatest difficulty could he prevail upon his workers to remain anywhere but in the thick of the fight. Since the government permitted their presence within the army zone, all relatively safe positions along the line of communication lost interest! No danger was too keen, no risk too great for these Red Cross nurses.

The training of their nurses is perhaps the strongest point in the Russian Red Cross. It is most thorough and trains nurses for all civil and military hospitals. These nurses—many of them women of high social position—are called "Sisters," although wearing a modification of hospital uniform rather than an ecclesiastical dress.

The Japanese society is a descendant of the *Hakuaisha*, or Society of Universal Love, through which the native humanity of the Japanese had long found expression. But these eager observers of other civilizations noted the better organization of the Red Cross societies, their more scientific training of nurses and more efficient work on field and in hospital. So in 1875 Japan applied for admission to the Geneva Convention. The *Hakuaisha* had at this time thirty-eight members; at the time of the war with Russia, the Japanese Red Cross had more than a million members. Its hospital at Tokio is in peace a training center for nurses and a charit-



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RED CROSS NURSES OF GREAT BRITAIN BEING INSPECTED BY MR. LOWTHER, SPEAKER OF THE HOUSE OF COMMONS, JUST BEFORE THEIR DEPARTURE FOR THE FRONT.

BELGIAN NURSES IN BRUSSELS DRESSING THE WOUNDS OF A GERMAN PRISONER OF WAR



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able institution accommodating over 400 patients. It becomes in time of war a military reserve hospital.

Membership in the society is honorary, special, or regular. Deeds of valor are recognized in a spirit of fine sentiment—not only is a medal given, but "mention is made to the Emperor."

During the war with China, 1894, women Red Cross nurses first worked in military reserve hospitals and by their quiet skill, overcame all opposition. Two well-equipped hospital boats proved their worth during the Boxer trouble. The society has the usual bases of hospital supplies, railway medical rooms, trained nurses, men and women, for war emergency; and a bureau of information about prisoners.

The present war will afford opportunity to test the efficiency of Red Cross dogs. In several countries, Germany, France, Belgium among others, dogs have been trained for police service and more lately for special Red Cross duty on fields where soldiers falling in long grass or into ravines, would easily remain undiscovered by human searchers. The dog best fitted for this purpose has proved to be a cross between collie and bloodhound. Around the body is wound a long web band with certain medical supplies in its folds—stimulant and first aid material, so that the soldier may do something for his own relief while the barking of the dog attracts the attention of the Red Cross corps.

Nothing can be said in this brief sketch about the Belgian "Little Sisters," about Italy's *La Croce Rossa*,

*Baron Okuma: Fifty Years of Japan.

Spain's *Rudanos Cruz*, or the many British societies that follow in the footsteps of Florence Nightingale. Enough of the Red Cross story has perhaps been told to show that the hordes of soldiers facing the fire of their enemies' guns may have this consoling assurance: their injuries will be more skilfully treated, they themselves more carefully nursed, than has been possible before in any country's warfare. Significant too is the fraternity of such work. Whether the title of a society can be read without a dictionary or not, the Red Cross emblem tells at once its message of brotherhood beyond the bounds of nationality.

A fundamental part of the code of Red Cross work is the exchange of services between countries without violation of neutrality. The American Red Cross has already received calls for help. France cabled for 10,000 stretchers, more than were immediately available in this country. Absorbent cotton, rubber gloves, iodine and other first aid supplies have also been called for. A hospital ship will shortly start for Europe equipped with doctors, nurses and supplies. This ship is probably the first to be sent out under such conditions. The most nearly similar case was the "field hospital," completely equipped, which the German Red Cross gave in 1904 to Russia. The American ship is painted white with a red stripe from prow to stern. Sailing under the Red Cross flag, it is protected by the treaties of Geneva and The Hague and can enter any harbor to discharge its beneficent duty.

The necessity is imperative that the American public realize the opportunity afforded by these Red Cross treaties of neutrality. After the recent disaster in Salem, \$600,000 was within a few days received for relief work. Within two or three weeks after the Ohio flood, nearly \$2,000,000 was given for the relief of the sufferers. For this was at our very doors; full and graphic reports reached us through the newspapers. Yet these disasters represent but a small part of the real suffering caused by the present war in Europe. We have not full details of this suffering; we have no adequate conception of the state of actual want and misery. When a battle wages for days men lie on the field wounded, suffering thirst and fever, for hours before they can receive aid, unless there is an armistice while the dead and wounded are cared for.

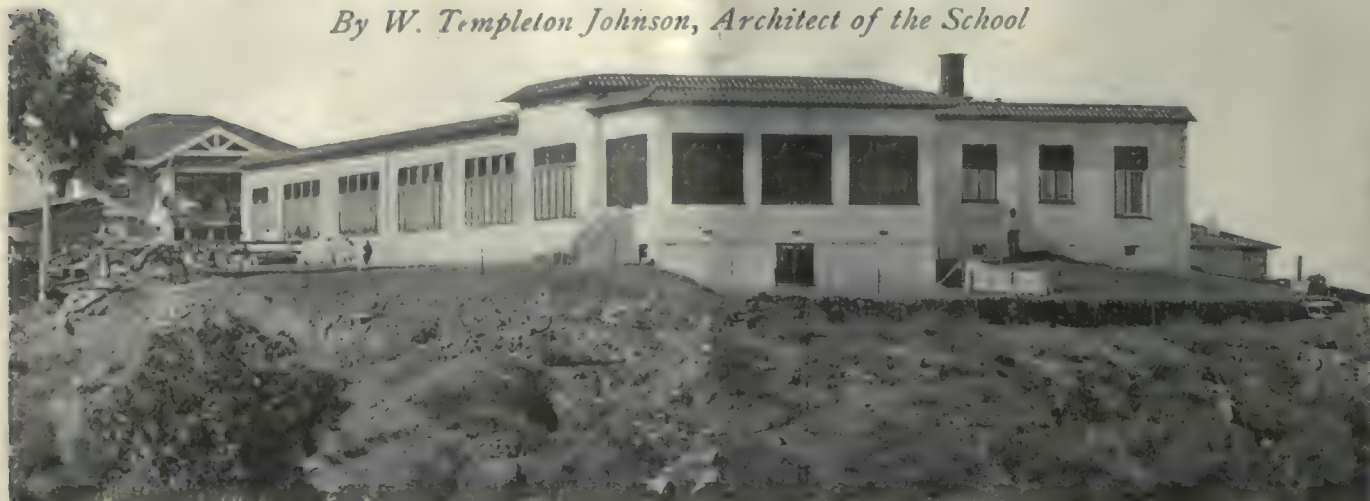
The American Red Cross asks for prompt and generous co-operation through money gifts. It lays emphasis on the value of small contributions. A gallon of iodine costs \$10. A little Red Cross bottle of iodine can be had for 15 cents. Treatment of 15 cents worth of iodine may help a man to live, —a 15 cent contribution may turn the balance between death and life.

This story has dwelt on only the war activity of the Red Cross. Its work at home in times of fire and flood and tornado, needs but an allusion to be gratefully recalled. When shall the nations beat their swords if not into plowshares, at least into surgical instruments for the relief work that is still needed even in days of peace?

WHERE LESSONS COME FROM REAL THINGS

The Parker School in the Open Air at San Diego, California

By W. Templeton Johnson, Architect of the School



TWENTY years ago, Col. Francis W. Parker was a pioneer in modernizing the education of children. His work in connection with the schools of Cook County, Ill., was thought revolutionary at that time. But with the passing of years his methods have been pronounced constructive and sound.

Three of the fundamental principles which governed the work of Colonel Parker were:

"The needs of society determine the work of the school;

"The supreme need of society is good citizenship;

"The purpose of the school is to present conditions for growth into ideal citizenship."

The Francis W. Parker School of San Diego, modeled after the widely known school of the same name in Chicago, was established in December, 1912, to carry forward and amplify Colonel Parker's ideas. But another purpose was sought also—that of adapting the architecture to the educational aims. The editor of the *American School Board Journal* has said of the school:

"We have given a good deal of attention to the subject of school architecture during the past twelve years, and I confess that your adaptation of the open-air idea is not only a novel departure but the establishment of some principles which must become universally accepted if the open air school is to succeed."

For the first few months there were only kindergarten and primary classes, but the school has grown so fast that it now includes all the grammar grades, and will have a high school department in the fall. It is financed by people interested in progressive educational methods; and the building, equipment, and the courses of study are planned to give each student the very best possible chance to develop physically, morally and mentally.

If a child is in perfect physical condition his mental and moral possibilities are correspondingly advanced. With this in view the building is designed to have the air as fresh in the classrooms as it is out of doors, and a great deal of the actual school work is done in the open air. Careful measurements are taken at intervals, of each child, but the school is not yet old enough to make these measurements of any statistical value. However, results of this healthful environment are shown by the fact that while in the public schools of San Diego there have been during the winter the usual number of cases of children's diseases (measles, mumps, etc.), there has not been a single contagious disease among about sixty children at the Parker School.

The purpose of the school, in a broad sense, is to break through the iron bound curriculum of our school system and evolve a type of education related to the problems of daily life; an education which teaches pupils to think and to solve problems by their own initiative

rather than by accepting blindly the statements of teachers or textbooks. To "help" and to do real things are natural tendencies among children, and the plan of the school is to capitalize and develop these self-active impulses as a basis for school work.

Our schools have too often been looked upon by students as prisons where the best hours of every day are spent. If a course of study is arranged which makes learning so attractive that the pupils want to stay after school hours, it must be working in the right direction.

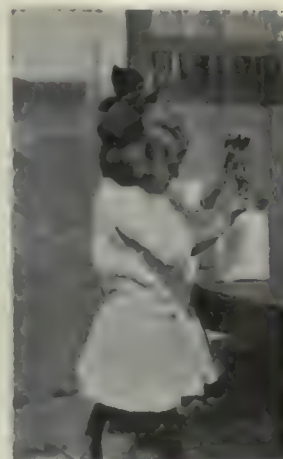
To illustrate—A twelve-year-old boy came to the Parker School. He had been pronounced incorrigible at the public school and his parents were at their wits' end. His teacher had kept him in after school day after day. She said it was doing him no good and only wasting her time; however, there was nothing to do but follow the usual custom. At the end of his first day's work in the new environment, the boy went home and said "Mother, they don't have any rules [to break] at that school." The next week



WHERE GOING TO SCHOOL IS NO HARDSHIP



LEARNING HOW WORDS LOOK



PERSEVERANCE



PRACTICAL LESSONS FROM TODAY'S DESSERT

he said, "Mother, it's an awfully long time from Friday till Monday. I wish I could go to school on Saturday."

If this boy had continued to be kept

in during his school career he would, to say the least, have received a poor education; but in a small group with teachers who can understand him and direct

his enthusiasm, he is doing splendid work and making his parents very happy.

In planning the curriculum one of the main ideas has been to suppress as far as possible the abstract, and to do real problems with real equipment. The training of the hand and eye goes forward with that of the brain and the interest aroused is far greater than it would be in a purely textbook course of study.

For example, an arithmetic class is engaged in figuring the lumber necessary for an additional out-door room which will be built by the children themselves. A class in environmental history has made excursions to the site of the first Presidio in southern California and to the ruins of the old Franciscan Mission, and has since then acted in the open air a little play consisting of incidents in the life of Fra Junipero Serra who founded the mission. A printing-press has been installed for publishing a school paper. One of the classes has assumed the cost of the press as a class



, COACHING ON THE MOUNTAINS—OR CANOEING ON THE BAY



STUDY ROOMS CAN BE OPEN AT ONE SIDE IN ANY WEATHER

debt and will operate the paper as a business enterprise to pay off gradually the indebtedness.

Every week one class does something for the entertainment of the rest of the school and it is astonishing how fast the children gain self-possession and lose all shyness and diffidence. Each group of children has made a garden of both vegetables and flowers. Biology is to be imbibed by raising pigeons, rabbits, etc., and "Investigation Lane" is a portion of the playground where any group of children may make anything from a sand model to a play house, provided that the work started is carried through till finished.

In its site the school is peculiarly fortunate. Physical geography is at its very door. The school is built on the edge of a beautiful canyon overlooking the San Diego river valley. To the east rise range after range of mountains. Far off to the north beyond miles of flat mesa are the snow-capped peaks of the

San Bernardino range. To the west is Mission Bay, and separated from it only by a narrow strip of beach, the Pacific Ocean.

San Diego is becoming known as the city with the shortest thermometer in the world. The climate is remarkably temperate in both winter and summer,



LEARNING TO MANAGE HAMMER AND PLANE



ARITHMETIC WITH A PURPOSE



SHARING THE HOMELY TASK OF "CLEANING-UP"

OUTDOOR
WORKPLAY
HOURSTUDY
HOURA READING
LESSON

the sun shines over three hundred days in the year and the winds are so gentle that conditions are almost ideal for the establishing of open-air schools.

The Francis W. Parker School is designed to make the most of these climatic conditions, but a similar scheme could be used in any city which has not a really severe climate by simply having the students dress warmly—warm clothing costs less than doctors' bills.

In planning the school the architect worked toward three fundamental and desirable ends:

To make the air in the classrooms as fresh and pure as the outer air;

To construct a practical and efficient building at low cost;

To achieve artistic effect by good proportions and pleasing color rather than by the use of lavish and expensive ornament.

As the school grows the building is being erected on the multiple unit plan, and when entirely completed it will form a hollow square with an open court about a hundred feet square in the center, surrounded on all sides by a covered portico. All the class rooms open on this portico, and their inner walls are arranged with folding, sliding doors, by means of which the rooms may be thrown completely open on the portico. Both the folding doors and the wide French windows which glaze the outer walls have transoms above them, so no matter what the weather conditions, one whole side of the rooms can be entirely open.

A great deal of money has been wastefully spent in ornate and costly school buildings which are intended to be monuments to their architects and to make a striking impression on visitors. The initial cost of these elaborate buildings is very high and with the rapid progress in American methods of education, school plants soon become antiquated. It would seem much wiser to spend at least part of the money which goes for mere show, in relieving the overcrowding prevalent in so many schools, and in paying adequate salaries to obtain efficient teachers.

In building the Parker School no money has been spent on lavish decoration. Although the materials employed have been the best of their kinds, expensive materials have not been used. The school is one story high, and as the fire hazard, as far as it affects the safety of the pupils is entirely negligible, the building is of frame construction covered with stucco. The flat roof is asphalt and gravel and the parapet walls are crowned with red Mission tiles. Instead of using concrete columns and a tile roof for the portico, which would have been attractive and commensurately expensive, wooden posts are used with a composition roof painted to match the tiles on the parapets.

It seemed foolish in an open-air climate to use a closed corridor as a means

of communication between classrooms. A portico, besides being a decorative feature, saved the expense of one additional wall. It seemed equally foolish to spend money on an elaborate heating and ventilating plant. None has been provided. The classrooms have small wood stoves which are used on wet days but hardly ever for any other reason, as the pupils are dressed for out of doors.

All the wood work in the classrooms is stained dark brown, the walls being painted a warm tan which makes a good background for pictures. The patrons of the school believe in the subconscious influence of art, and the bareness and stiffness of the old time schools is avoided by hanging artistic prints and photographs and by using movable chairs and tables instead of desks.

The kindergarten is designed as a miniature home. The large sunny class room is made as home-like as possible with an open fire-place tiled with low reliefs of deer and rabbits, birds and dogs.

Next comes the kitchen where reading, writing and arithmetic are the by-products of the pupils' interest in learning to cook. Many of the necessities for the school lunches are grown in the children's garden. When the vegetables are harvested they are weighed on the kitchen scales; the blackboard comes into use for writing down recipes and for figuring the costs of the few supplies which must be bought from the grocer.

Beyond the kitchen is a tiny bedroom all light blue and white, where tired tots may rest or lessons be given in dusting or making beds. The white curtains have blue birds flying along their edges, stencilled by the children, and the blue and gray rag rug is the work of many little weavers.

In the kindergarten one may see a group of children making aprons in order to keep clean in the kitchen. At one of the manual training tables on the wide covered porch, a boy is measuring and putting together a miniature chair. A little girl is mending a broken toy for the Christmas present of some child less fortunate than she. All are doing real things,—things there is a reason for doing, and are taking the keenest pleasure in their work. Without knowing it they are learning self-reliance and logical thinking, thoughtfulness and consideration for others.

Among the older children the methods employed in the kindergarten are simply carried forward and amplified. The classes are small, so that much individual attention is given; and as the grading is entirely flexible, pupils showing a particular aptitude may progress rapidly.

There is no rigid enforcement of si-



"INVESTIGATION LANE"



FACING A GARDENER'S PROBLEMS

lence in the classrooms; the interest is such that usually any talking is about the subject in hand. It was thought that having the rooms open on the portico where there is more or less passing, would perhaps be a distraction, but experience has proved this a groundless apprehension.

The spirit of the school at Christmas is a revelation to the visitor. It is not "What am I going to get?" but "How much pleasure can I give?" The children bring fruit and vegetables to school, apples are polished, celery and potatoes scrubbed, each child contributing real labor in making attractive the baskets that are filled to be sent where there is real need. Broken and discarded toys are repaired and painted to go where they will bring happiness. Under the Christmas tree are presents, things the children themselves have made. A boy drags a cart across the room to a little brother too small to go to school. A little girl darts to her mother with a

wicker scrap-basket neatly finished. It does one good to see the transparent joy on a boy's face as he hands his father a leather purse he has made all himself. It is the true spirit of Christmas.

In his address at the opening of the new school building, President Hardy of the San Diego State Normal School, said that the Francis W. Parker School will be to the public schools of San Diego what Stanford University has been to the University of California. If the school can be an inspiration for the public schools it will go far toward achieving its mission.

After graduating from college, one of the students of the Francis W. Parker School of Chicago, became an instructor in a large eastern preparatory school. After a time he wrote to his family—"The ——— school prepares for college but the Parker School prepares for life."

There can be little doubt in our minds which is the more important.

"BEAUTY FOR ASHES"

By Albion Fellows Bacon

CHAP. XI. CONCLUSION

A glance backward over the White Road that led out from home, and forward to the hill-top and the vision of a New World.

BATTLE SONG

There are great things to do while the careless ones sleep,
There are heights to be won, there are ramparts to keep;
And the call that we heed is not Fortune or Power,
But the need of a hero,—the cry of the Hour.
We have dreamed of a time when the world should be bright
With the dawning of Peace and the triumph of Right.
But our slumber is shaken; the dreamer must waken:
He must rouse him to battle, and gird him to fight.

A. F. B.

"AND what are you going to next? Suffrage?" asked a friend.

"No, housing reform; housing till I die. I have only made a good beginning," was my answer.

There is so much to be done! Contemplating the vastness of the field, and the smallness of the force that is at work, I am reminded of the legendary "seven maids with seven mops" attacking the ocean to "try to sweep it clear." Almost as hopeless seems our task. In our state alone how many mops are needed! And beyond our borders—dismaying thought! If, in all the cities, every house that is past repairing could be pulled down or burned up, how great would be the crash, how heaven-high the conflagration! It would be a veritable crack of doom and glare of Judgment.

But this is only a pleasant little picture, to cheer housing reformers while we wait; for, "at this poor dying rate," as the old hymn says, our country is not to be cleaned with a crash.

In my own state, and particularly in my own city, I can hear the actual sound of rotting timbers falling. Our strong city administration is carrying on the work of housing reform most vigorously, and by means of our state law and various ordinances, is either making over or tearing down everything bad in the way of buildings.

"This city must be cleaned up," Mayor Bosse's edict has gone forth, and all departments are entering into the work.

"I couldn't sleep for several nights, after my first round of our tenements, thinking of the little children I had seen in some of those dreadful places," said Edward Kerth, our building inspector. Needless to say, he will do thorough work. And now our organizations of business men have just passed strong resolutions pledging their support to the movement, and have created a joint housing committee. Their plan includes the building of good houses for working men, as well as the wiping out of our slums.

It is a most helpful sign that our

architects are taking hold with right good will, and that their state association is pledged to housing reform. Not only will this make the enforcement of the law much easier, but the value of their interest and their recognition of their responsibility for the public welfare can hardly be overestimated. It is to them that we may look for the development of better, more durable, more convenient and more comfortable houses, that shall be within the reach of the hitherto neglected classes. It is to them that we must look, in the absence of civic experts, for the redemption of our cities from their unnecessary ugliness.

The Law at Work

In my own city I have seen not only the action but the reaction of housing reform. Many people labor under a delusion that I am an official with a salary.

"I thought you ought to know about the family back of me," comes buzzing over the telephone, every few days, with a description of one more case of overcrowding or unsanitation.

"I am glad you are interested," I say, and right glad I am, "and the Building Inspector will appreciate your help. Won't you call him up, please—No. 462?"

Fewer complaints come to me now from angry landlords and weeping women, as the tenement law is better understood. But even the tenants who suffer most grumble occasionally when we try to pull them out of an old house before it falls over them, especially when they are misled by shrewd landlords about the law. I have a soiled and misspelt letter, in a pencil scrawl, whose message shows the sharpness of another wit than that which directed the hand. It appeals to me to stop the demolition of a notorious old tenement, whose ribs were bare of boards and whose condition beggars description. "We thought you were our friend," the letter says. "We don't know where to go, and, if you can't stop the workmen, will you shelter us yourself?"

The inspector assured me that they

found better places—indeed none could be worse. One of the families, I found, was Lucindy's! Her husband had died, and she was trying to keep her little ones together. We were glad to see her rescued once more, and installed in a better neighborhood.

Above and beyond the tenement law and its enforcement, a wonderful result has come from the educational campaign of the last six years, in the awakening of public sentiment. Where the law compels one decent building, sentiment builds or repairs a score, and whatever is done by sentiment always goes far ahead of the demands of the law. More than cutting windows in some hundreds of old houses, or than saving the yard spaces behind as many new ones, is it to cut windows into the minds of the people and to give them broader standards.

Some sins that used to be committed in ignorance in Indiana will never be repeated. Builders are voluntarily making better plans; many, through an awakened sense of propriety; others in anticipation of future restrictions.

One of the most significant results has been the building of an entire mining village upon nearly model plans, giving the miners sanitation, conveniences and many comforts, providing spring water, and giving each house its garden—things hitherto unheard of.

"We used to build a miner's shack for \$100," said the owner. "These cost over \$1,000, but they pay a good percent."

All this sounds so smooth and so pleasant that it might lead the reader to believe that no law is needed. Alas, those who make it necessary will not listen to the appeal of sentiment, which has a strong voice but no "teeth." Only the law, which has a bite as well as a bark, can make them hear.

"You will go on, and carry your work into other states, won't you?" I am asked. And a magazine answers for me, "She will never rest until every state has a law as good as her own."

"A weary lot is thine," methought, reading that comment. Happily, the

National Housing Association, to which I belong, goes far afield and is organized to answer the appeals for help and expert advice that are coming in from all sides. Still, there grows a pile of letters upon my desk asking for lectures, for help in starting housing campaigns, and what not, and it isn't in the heart of a housing reformer to refuse.

The Appeal of the Slums

But whether it be a chamber of commerce, a civic association or a woman's federation that gives the invitation, I hear always, above it, the faint, far-off call of little voices, and see the beckoning of little shadowy hands. And so it happens that I see more and more of the misery of our cities.

"If you could stay over another day we would show you the beauties of our city," almost everyone says when, after a tour of the slums, and divers meetings and conferences, I am being borne to the train. Once in awhile I do visit the good residence sections and parks and I always get a glimpse of them, coming and going from the slums. We dash across the business streets, lunch in a great fine building and I see the state house, when there is one. It is always a matter of interest to me, as well as curiosity. I like to figure out how long it would take to get from the senate chamber to the house of representatives. Some of them are too far apart, but I like those that have no place for the audience, except the gallery, and those that are well ventilated. As to the marble stairs, and all that, the shortest way up takes me!

It isn't missing the beauty spots of a city that I mind. If I am imported for the purpose of issuing jeremiaids and making miserable as many people as possible, I must be glad if I succeed, and be content to leave the "pleasures and palaces" to other guests, who come on gayer missions. The part I do mind, though, is having to be remembered, like a wasp, for its sting. But there are always happenings that warm my heart—and new friends.

One of the greatest encouragements in this journeying, has been meeting others interested in the same work, who have been through similar struggles and, often, are further along the road and know how everything will work out.

I can never forget our first National Housing Conference. I felt as a two-eyed person might who had lived in the Land of One-Eyed people, for a long time, and then came back to the Two-Eyed country. It was a relief to be with a whole association of people who saw as I did, without having to explain, argue or apologize. In fact, every one of them would have dared to ask for more than we had in our tenement law. They thought we hadn't asked half enough for Indiana. It was most encouraging.

I remember one lovely luncheon, during the conference, at which we discussed ashes, garbage, alleys, and such things, for several hours, continuing the discussion at an after-meeting until dinner time, and then carrying it on till midnight. And still earnest groups gathered in the corridors, and lingered on the steps. Every kind of civic expert was there, and it was a joy to find out just how to do the things that one was puzzling over alone.

Along the White Road

It is far, indeed, that the White Road has led me—through the village, to the city, across the state, and out into other states. And it has been uphill all the way. But with every turn of the road there is a broader view. There are surprises, too, at every turn,—such beautiful surprises, and so many of them, that I have come to expect something unexpected around every corner. Some of them are good times. Some are unlooked-for help. The best and the most wonderful of them are the friendships. And I was looking only for thorns and flinty places—and brickbats, I remember!

True, there is weary climbing and hard fighting still in store; but there are the little resting-places, where one can stop and take a full breath, and look out over the view.

It is a glorious thing to be standing at the gap of Opportunity, to be in the sweep of great movements, in the current of all good purposes, in the company of lofty souls. It is great to feel that one is living, even now and here, the eternal life, and to rest in the poise of a perfect trust in the divine will. Only so can one wait with patience and serenity for the issues of life. Only so can one bear to look down into the shadow, and hear the wail of the helpless and suffering, and feel their burden as one's own.

The Gain of the Years

Looking back over these years, and the struggle to which they have been devoted, I am thankful that they have given me more, and not less, faith in both God and man. I am glad that I can see the most hopeful phase of the forces that hindered. I am grateful for all the forces that helped—the personalities, rather; for every force was represented by some strong man or woman, and it is they whom I remember.

Of all the forces arrayed against housing reform, selfishness, ignorance and indifference were those that hindered most. I really believe that ignorance is the prime cause, for most of those who are indifferent would arouse to action, if they could know. And a majority of those who fought us, through selfish interest, would cease to oppose, I believe, if they could see how much misery their selfishness costs. But they

will never know fully, unless we could put into the penalties of our tenement law that the owners of slum property should be incarcerated for a term in their own tenements.

I remember how, in my first campaign, I tried to excuse the landlords because housing reform was a new thought, and they perhaps did not know better. But now, for six years, housing reform has been taught from one end of the state to the other. It has been preached by pulpit and press. Chambers of commerce have endorsed it, boards of health have insisted upon it. Charities organizations have begged for it, women's clubs have demanded it. Pictures have been published and thrown upon screens, describing the dangers and horrors of slums; and if people do not yet know that "it is no better to kill a man with a house than it is to kill him in the street with an ax," it is time they did.

Strange Slum-Owners

Still, we have been amazed, even this year, to find who are the men and women who own the most of the worst houses. Wealthy, many of them, for slums are paying property; respected, because the community does not know the source of their revenue; prominent in society, but their friends live in the best part of town, and never pass by their property. They are church members, some of them, and even build churches or help build them with their revenues.

There can be no doubt that these persons know the value of sanitation, also of light, air and space, for they live on choice corners, or other good sites, and their homes have every sanitary device.

I know one town where two men own practically all the wretched dwellings of the poor. "One of them buys up old box cars, and makes them over into shanties," we were told. This man is disliked and not even respected. The town realizes that his deeds are an abomination, a wrong to the poor and a menace to the community, but they do not realize it keenly enough. Not one citizen has thought to lift a finger to interfere with him.

In other cities one is surprised to find the easy-going forbearance of the large body of high-class real estate men towards the few sharks who own slum property, even though their own property is injured in that vicinity, the fire hazard increased, and the slum owner has a large and undue advantage over them, in many ways.

It is pleasant to turn from the forces that hindered housing reform to those that helped. I wish I might have a chapter on "The Men Who Helped," and express the gratitude that is due to every man who has unselfishly done his part towards this much of bringing

in the Kingdom, whether he be politician or preacher.

Those three campaigns in the Legislature were a wonderful experience, and if I have come out of them with a deeper faith in humanity, it is a high tribute to the men of Indiana.

In those three campaigns, standing, as I have, on the outside of parties and politics, I have seen some things that strangely puzzled me, but, as no one has given me a more satisfactory interpretation than my own, I shall hold to my own conclusions until wise men agree. When I first went into public life I made up my mind to make the most and the best of conditions as they existed, of men as I met them, and of politics as the majority allow them to be. In fact, one cannot do otherwise; for obviously, one cannot work with conditions as they are not. Yet I have seen many earnest but ineffective people fail to secure by legislation the splendid ends they had worked zealously to achieve, because they insisted on the impossible, and would have none but their own methods. It is just as if we should take our corn to a miller, and demand that he should reset his burrs and change his whole method of milling. If there be only one mill, we must take our grist thither or leave it unground.

An Impartial View

Having no hand in the management of political affairs, I may leave to the various parties the care of reaping the thorns in each other's fields. It has been my pleasant task to gather only the grapes, and I am fain to accept the divine guarantee that they were grown upon grape-vines. It is only fair to say that I have encountered far more figs than thistles, and fewer thistles than what seems to be a sort of cacti that, I firmly believe, could be Burbankized for human good. Would they might be, and that we might include in the conservation of vital resources, those great powers for good that are so wasted by constant warring in the struggle for supremacy.

"Don't you believe for one minute that those politicians would have worked for a tenement law if they hadn't thought it was a good thing for their party," a friend said.

"Why, of course," I told her, "I wouldn't have gone to three legislatures and asked for anything that sensible business men wouldn't think was a good thing. One's faith in men doesn't depend on their doing foolish things because we ask them to. And, of course, no good politician will ever 'turn down' the Homes of Indiana. But nobody could ever make me believe that that was all there was of it."

And then I tried to tell her of the splendid hearty way they had given their service, and of the noble qualities that had so often shown themselves.

In order that this story shall not fail of its purpose, let me say, first, that it has been my intention to show that if any one so timid, and so physically unfortified for hard marching and fighting, could stand the strain and meet with some success, surely no one else should fear to try.

What is Service?

It has been far from my thought to hold up public work as the most valuable service. Rather, I have tried to make it plain that no one but a genuine Daruma, who is weighted so as not to be "upsettable", should go into the range of cannon-balls. In the words with which Mrs. Blythe comforted Mary Ware, whose sole idea of public service was the former's kind of torch-bearing:

"A torch is a torch, no matter where you put it; and sometimes the lights streaming from cheerful home windows make better guides for the benighted traveler than the street-lamp, whose sole purpose is to give itself to the public."

Most strongly have I desired to show how much can be done by women's organizations, by simply demanding right legislation; and to show their equally important part of helping to enforce legislation, after they get it. I should like to show the very valuable work that has been done by clubs in raising funds to employ civic experts, but the suggestion must suffice.

Too much cannot be said, however, of the service into which even the most modest and timid may enter by joining in the work of federated clubs, or civic organizations, to carry on the great educational campaigns for moulding public sentiment that must precede and follow every legislative success. This assertion is made by the majority of speakers on reform platforms. What is not said, however, or is touched too little and too lightly, is that the fundamental necessity of all this work is the securing of data, the knowing of actual conditions that call for reform.

"Know your City"

"Go and see for yourself," is my parting plea to every audience, no matter of whom composed. "Know your city," is a motto that I wish might be sounded daily by a megaphone, in the ears of every one who presumes to have any part in the control of chambers of commerce, civic associations, school boards, social service circles, churches, women's clubs, etc. They should be made to see that if they are to give intelligent service, they must know their city as the politician knows it, as the police know it, as the drain-man and the man who reads gas meters know it—because the outside and the pretty places we already know well.

They should know their city, who try to manage its affairs, as a merchant knows his business, in all its details; as a doctor knows his patient, in all his

weaknesses. They should know it by means of surveys and sanitary maps that X-ray every defect, and by civic institutes that exhibit its greatnesses and meannesses, its overlapping or undermanning of departments, its schools, factories, trade, traffic, institutions—all its "works," from the city hall to the saloon, from the choice residence district to the slum quarter.

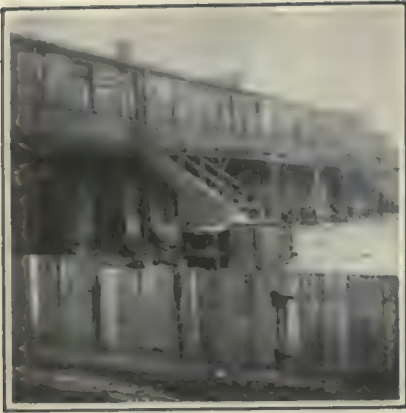
How else shall we understand the causes that are piling up social wreckage, faster than our schools can educate or our churches evangelize? How else can we ever know with certainty the city's resources of wealth, which pours in, in large streams and runs out in many leaks? How else shall we be able to help our city's morals, of which one-half are in darkness? How else reckon with the city's political forces, of which the stronger part, the root, is underground, like the horse-radish? And how shall we control public health, safety and welfare, unless we can keep our finger on the pulse of private health and safety and welfare.

Home—the Beginning

And so we come back to the home, where this story started. All roads lead back to it. The squad that goes out to hunt up the evils that prey upon us, whether they follow the lead of the charity worker, the district nurse, the mission worker, the health official, the probation officer, the detective, or the anti-tuberculosis specialist, will take a circuit and all round up and meet together in the place where the housing reformer has gone straight to the core of all the trouble—the homes that society forgets, neglects, abandons.

I have not told anything about the trails of the civic improvers or city beautifiers converging with those who track the fly, the germ and the imp, because in so many cities they go on a careful détour, and avoid these places. And yet these hideous, offending bad residence districts, where visitors are never taken and nobody likes to go, cry most loudly for help, with all their ugly mouths and discordant voices, smiting the passerby in ear and eye and nose. What assault they must make upon those who live amidst them!

Yet these need beautifying, more than any other parts of the town. I have often wondered why so many civic clubs begin and end their beautifying with lawns, gardens and parks, instead of houses. The reason must be that it is easier. Or else, it is a misconception of what a city is, and what it is for; a failure to recognize that a city is mostly made up of homes, outnumbering all other buildings; that the streets are there to lead to the homes, and the stores are there to supply the homes; that for the homes all mills grind or weave, all wheels turn, all traffic exists, and all the business of the city goes on.



TWO-STORY "DWELLINGS"



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Some glimpses of the slums
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WHERE EACH COTTAGE HAS ITS GARDEN



APARTMENTS ON A PRIVATE ROADWAY

The Liverpool Housing Committee aimed to "let the poor share the idea of an Englishman's home." In the Bevington Street Area, where formerly were 900 slum courts, streets are now laid out 30 feet wide. Cottages and flats, of from two to five rooms, rent for from 2/9 to 4/ a week.



SOME OF THE FOUR-ROOM COTTAGES



GIRLS' PLAYGROUND DRINKING FOUNTAIN AT ENTRANCE



EACH HAS FIRE-PLACE AND HOT WATER



HEDGES OF BOX AND PRIVET ENCLOSE TINY LAWNS



BAY WINDOWS AND PANELING GIVE VARIETY TO THIS BLOCK OF APARTMENTS

People forget that though the parks are there to supply the lack or to augment the delights of the homes, they can never take the place of space or beauty about the homes; that, when the mills are empty and still, and the streets deserted and dark, when the parks and gardens have only a solitary sentinel, the human life that quickened them in the day time has all withdrawn into the homes. Thither at night the toiler comes; thence at dawn the toiler fares; but his treasure remains there, the little ones, the mothers, the old people who must stay. And where these are, is the Heart of the City.

Not Houses but Homes

In our state we have settled upon a simple translation of the term "housing reform" into "the betterment of the homes." This takes away the cold, forbidding aspect of the subject, and insures a larger audience when we lecture. The public smelled fresh mortar and new pine whenever the other term was mentioned, and had in mind an arraignment of carpenters and masons. But the real meaning of "housing reform" comes out when we put in the "home." The house lives, lights twinkle in the windows, smoke comes out of its chimneys, and the public can smell supper and hear the children at play. But we have made them smell the yards, too, and hear the children cry.

"The Homes of Indiana," has proven a magic watchword for housing reform in our state. Already two other states have caught up the battle cry, and we hear "The Homes of Kentucky," and "The Homes of New Jersey." Would that the cry might ring on till we hear "The Homes of the Nation."

Now, we have many prescriptions for housing reform, from many schools of medicine. Belonging to the allopathic school, I must hold to legislation as the best cure, though I am ready to welcome most heartily everything that can show by results that it will help our sick cities. Not all civic doctors will consult, however, and housing legislation is attacked by others than "skin builders" and slum landlords.

The comedy of the situation lies in the fact that the half who attack housing laws complain that they do not go far enough; the other half charge that they go too far. If we could pit the two parties against each other, it would save our breath.

To the first we must give the answer of Solon, when asked if he had provided the best of laws for the Athenians: "The best they were capable of receiving."

To the others, who complain of the law's exactions, we can best answer by pointing to our better class of real estate men, who take an honest pride in doing the right and proper thing, and who give so much more to their tenants than any

housing law demands (for much less percentage of returns than slum owners receive), that they feel insulted when asked if they give water and sewer connections, and repairs.

As education advances, housing laws will be extended, but their extension will be mainly to other classes of buildings, and to higher standards of decency and safety. And yet I could die happy were it possible to leave, by means of housing laws, no more than the Irishman's legacy: "I bequeath to every man the free air of heaven."

Simple wish! Preposterous supposition!

Could our forefathers ever have believed, when first they trod the lonely shores of this country, and looked out over its vast unpeopled wastes, that we should be fighting today for the very air we breathe? No more than that we should cease to have the breath of Freedom. Nor do we dream how much harder the fight will be in the day when monstrous cities shall cover our plains, the cities where, we are told, the greater part of our population is to live.

For at present, our cities have been growing much faster than they have been improving. We are speeding on to greatness, while we are crawling out of barbarism—that barbarism that submits to filth and lack of sanitation and preventable vice and disease.

A Fight for Free Air

Anyone, with an untrained eye, can look about and name the elementary problems of sanitation that we have failed to solve, or at least to handle. It needs no civic expert to do that, but it would need a prophet to tell us when we shall achieve them.

Light and ventilation—when the space that insures them is held dearer than life, and when even our little towns have dark rooms?

Cleanliness—how many really clean cities have we? If they have clean streets, how about their alleys? If they have water and sewer mains, how many lots have access to them? Garbage and ashes and trash—the worry of the wealthy, the terror of the poor—how many cities deal adequately with them today? In most cities, every kind of waste is stored at the back door, for a day, a week or a lifetime.

And until these simple essentials are mastered, how can we hope for the higher things? Perhaps, even now, in their cradles are the legislators who shall enact the laws that shall bring some of these fundamental reforms. It is best to begin on these future legislators in their cradles, and then follow them up in the kindergarten, school and college. It saves the frantic letter sent just before election.

Some day we shall appreciate safety and sanitation enough to pay for them;

and all the experts,—and we have many of note—cannot give these things to us before that time. Some time we shall appreciate space in our cities, as we appreciate all desirable things when they begin to disappear. Later, Beauty will be called in and set in the place of honor, among "practical" people; no more crowded out, no more apologized for, no more even kept for "solitary festival." I am glad that those years are past in which I dared not publish a verse, and spent my time in hunting up dollar-and-cents arguments—and there are many—to show that bad housing is bad business, and that slums do not pay. And this was because of having to fight men who assumed that it was not "practical" to give decency and sanitation to everyone.

Allies in the Fight

It is only necessary, now, to refer skeptics to the more than forty commercial organizations that have taken up housing reform by housing laws. It is enough to point to the practical men who have actually built model houses to rent that are durable and well built, comfortable, homelike, private, that have veritable cupboards and sinks, and real bath tubs. They are on pleasant streets, with a good view, have trees, grass and flowers, rent for less than some of our most miserable and squalid slums, and pay a fair profit.

Leaving the skeptics gazing at this pleasant sight, it is a relief to slip away to a quiet place where the vista opens upon a view that rests my soul—a view of things whose practical nature no one will ask me, at least, to defend—planned towns! garden cities!

Ever above the quivering heat of noon in the desert they have hung like a dim, fair mirage. Does any one ever look upon them more wistfully than a housing reformer? We draw near to them, as the children of the tenements come and press their faces against the tall palings of the forbidden garden, standing without in the dust, peering in at the ranks of lilies, the winding walks, and the fountain-splashed bowers. And we have a place inside, too, for even as in the Garden of Buddha there had to be a constant removal of blight and decay; and the jealous guard upon destructive forces, the constant weeding and pruning—this need, there will always be in all places where men live.

I had hoped that we might have, before this, the simple initial enactment permitting town-planning in our state. It must come soon, or we shall pay dearly for the lack of it. Where we can get people to listen, let us plead for generous space allowances, especially in our new city enlargements. The sanitarian and the artist and the unhampered architect, all will agree to this.

Even the "crazy-quilt" city can give much in the way of beauty to dignify

the characters of its people, that will bless them from their windows—if they have windows. It can give improved streets and alleys, parks and gardens, upon which even the mean dwelling may lift its eyes and take cheer. As far as monuments, fountains, or public buildings may be in sight, in vista or sky-line, nobility may be brought into the daily lives of the people. To those who have outlook, may all view be given. But to those who are set back, overtopped and shut in, the character of the premises becomes all important and leaves the problem between the tenant, the landlord and the neighbors.

Poverty, in Tale and Truth

We will find ourselves coming out somewhat behind those enchanting story-book descriptions of poverty, that deal with "poor-but-honest" and "patched-but-clean" people. The "scoured deal table," the "shining tins," the "geranium in the window," the "prints on the wall," always sound so delectable. As children, we could never quite decide whether we would rather be fabulously wealthy, and sit on diamond chairs, or be poor after this wise; but we strongly inclined to the latter. I know that settlement workers, often, with great taste, a little money, and infinite labor, perform miracles of paint and paper upon certain old houses, and make them look as good as the story-book kind. Would we had more of such people, to plant more oases in our arid brick wastes!

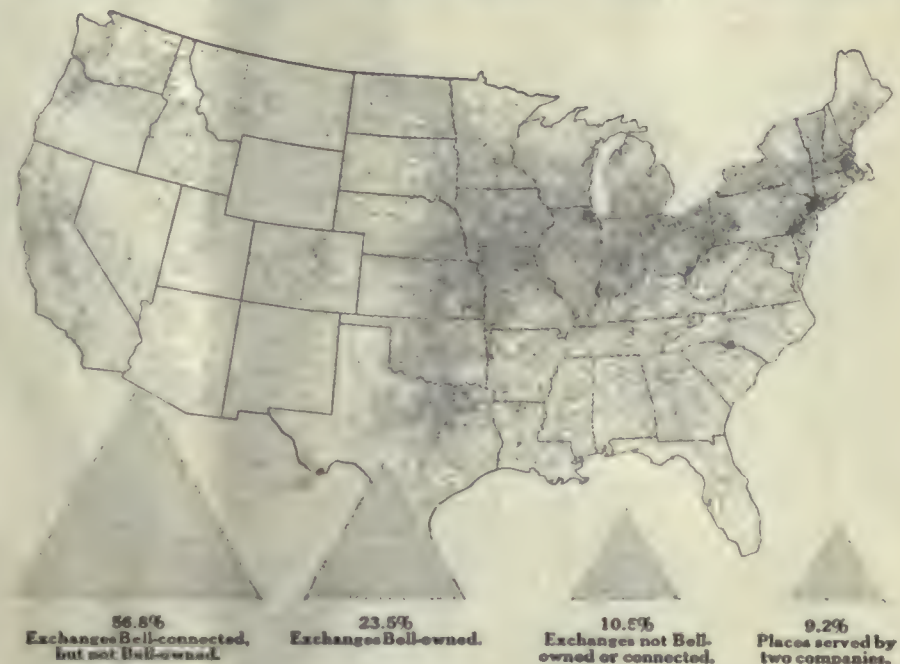
But not all the old houses can be transformed that way, not even by the "municipal scrubbers," welcome as they are. And the reason is that some old houses were flimsy and mean even in their newness, and now in their decay are beyond reform. To try to beautify them with paint and paper, is much like gilding a skull.

The premises are even worse, with loathsome cellars, yards soaked through with grease and sewage soaked and hard with cinders. All that could redeem such a place would be to burn the house, blast out the foundations, fumigate the hole, cart away the composite horrors of the soil, and fill in with fresh, sinless country earth—though we should pity the earth worms in their new environment!

This is a formula for the owner, not the tenant. What the tenant can do, with little means and less taste, is pitiable enough. I have seen tenants expending work on old houses—work as hopeless as efforts to educate an imbecile—that would have made a decent dwelling most attractive. Yet I can testify that the house looked worse than before, because the extra scrubbing wore off more of the old paint.

I have said enough in other chapters, of the efforts of many poor folk to make things more homelike, of their

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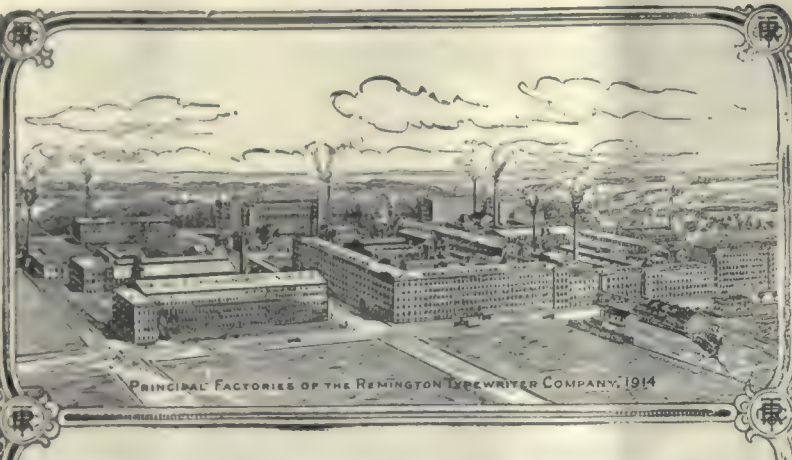
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reaching out for brightness and beauty. It seems to be, as Maeterlinck says, "A groping about the walls of life," to find some chink where the light streams in.

There must be something in this universal craving for beauty that testifies to our universal need of it. It must be meant to lead us back to the Garden, by the unerring perceptions of the delicate antennae of the soul. We feel that craving as a deep thirst, the longing for the woods and fields, the open shore, the stretches of cloudland. Confinement is irksome and work is hateful, at times, not for itself, but because it shuts us in, away from the green and blue-and-gold, from the Something that draws us. And when we leave the town and go to the country places, how we feel their restfulness sweeping in upon us, in a great tide.

How much the beauty of physical environment can contribute to moral beauty, or be reflected by it, we do not yet know. I am convinced that we have not yet begun to estimate its value, in our environment, as we shall in years to come. We think of it as desirable though in no way essential; but until it is exalted to a place of more dignity, we shall not have it in our national life. With all our rugged strength we shall be like the unfinished temple, "wanting still the glory of the spire."

The Meaning of Beauty

How shall we, then, come to a higher estimate of beauty? Only by taking it to be "that divine thing the ancients ever esteemed it," as Emerson reminds us.

The restorative and healing power of beauty seems to be well established. We can well understand why the sick or deranged have, as a part of their treatment, the view of green pastures and still waters; why cheerful flowers are brought about them, and soothing music is played for them.

The reformatory value of beauty may not be so well established, though some day the purgation of beauty will supplant the purgatory of pain. Thinking of the rebuke that purity gives to the impure, greatness to meanness, truth to falsity, the power of "good for evil," we can but wonder why beauty should not be used more for both formative and reformatory purposes. In fact, we acknowledge its value in our careful selection of those things that must be before the eyes of our own children.

When society comes to value one child more truly, we shall have, for every community, a country homestead where that child can go who needs special encouragement. It will not be a penal place, nor even a place of reform; it will be held out, rather, as a dear delight and a reward. But when society values the child enough, and realizes what the child means to the

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state, and what the home means to the child, it will provide even better, for then the child will have, in its own home, all that a home should give, in its vital essentials.

There will be safety. There will be the chance to be well, to be pure; room to grow and breathe in; the sacred privacy of the home circle—all those things that are the birthright of every child. And there will be, in some way, beauty, to which the soul of the child naturally turns as does a plant to the light.

Yet why should we need to plead for beauty, when we have the words of its evangels, the "ever living poets," to whom has been given a share of that Spirit that is to "preach good tidings"? They have taught us that there is some power in beauty to "bind up the broken-hearted," and to "comfort all who mourn." How often we invoke the very beauty of their words to do this, and set them to music or to flowers. How often, too, they release us from care, by "the opening of the prison," whose portals yield to their gentle touch. They have shown us beauty that we missed. They have yet to "open the blind eyes" that, in the midst of loveliness, gaze unseeing.

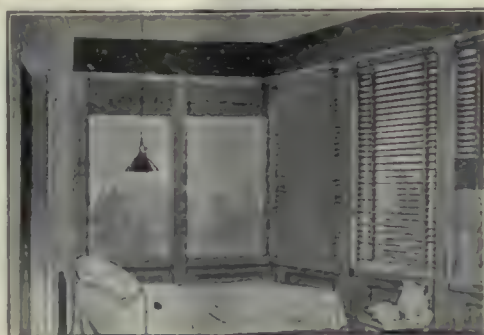
A Vision

All of this swept over me on that day, not long ago, when I went back to the ridge where my childhood was passed. Standing on the top of the ridge, I looked across the sweep of the valley to the far ranges of the blue hills that lay beyond. In a meadow the sheep were grazing. Faint and far off came the country sounds, strained to a clear sweetness through that pure atmosphere. It was the Sabbath, and in the little church they were singing hymns.

In the churchyard, under the dark cedars, I could see the flags upon the soldiers' graves. "My country"—it had never meant so much to me! A sudden rush of feeling seemed to claim comradeship with those who had fought on other battlefields.

How profound was the Sabbath peace! How sweet was the air! The old spell of the view came over me. There ran the road to the valley, then climbed the hills, to the sky. As a child I had felt it beckon and lure me, with dreams of the cities that lay beyond. I had thought of them, with a child's imagining, as one sees temples and spires in a sunset glory, and hears their far-off chimes. I had wondered about their poets, their artists—all the beauty that must be there.

But now—I had seen the cities! And the glamor was gone. Instead, there was the shadow enfolding them, the shadow that all of our effort has never been able to lift. And there, in the shadow, are the poor, the toiling. Instead of the chiming of bells I could hear, far away, a great chorus of those whose groaning and crying mingled with the roar of the



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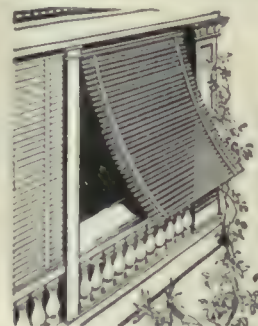


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Chairman,

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NOTE: Suggestions from social workers as to possible candidates will be welcomed.

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mills and the din of the streets.

Like the shadow of clouds passing over the fields came another thought—the thought of the great cities that some day may be there, blots on their greenness. But it passed. The fields lay untroubled, the great cup of the valley was brimming with sunshine, the sky swept down over the valley and closed in about me.

The Presence was there! It filled all the vast spaces, near and far.

I reached out my hand, as in childhood, to its tangible sureness. It will still be there, I felt, when, having done our small part, we are gone. When the cities are built, underneath their foundations will be the divine plan.

Even now that plan seems nearer fulfillment. Men are coming to see the fuller meaning of life. The levels of living are set at a higher plane. The units of measurement are larger, the standards of value are fairer—for ourselves, for all men, as we learn that we have natures and needs alike.

In wonderful ways great teachers are leading the people, marshaling the forces that shall finally lift them out of the shadow. There are the small forces, such as the gentle ministry that gives oneself to the needy. There are the mighty forces, the great movements to fight disease, to promote purity, to protect the laborer, to save the child. There are the countless methods of education. There is the pleasant drawing, as by the light touch of a child, along the paths of the playground, to health and strength.

To these have been added, in later years, various methods of redeeming the home.

Too much of these forces has been needed to clear away the wreckage among the ruins. But now we can look across the "waste places" that shall be rebuilt, the "desolations" that shall be raised up, to that joyful day of the prophecy when all of this social effort is to have its flowering in the beauty of a higher life for all humanity. The "beauty" that, the prophet proclaimed, shall be given for "ashes," is to be, the translators tell us, as the garland crown of the bridegroom that shall replace the symbol of mourning, the ashes upon the head.

The ashes—all that chokes the spark of life, all that is a part or a reminder of hopeless despair—are to be put aside.

The low and bestial life, all that is groveling, is ashes.

Disease, vice, dissipation, are ashes.

Strife, discord, lawlessness, are ashes.

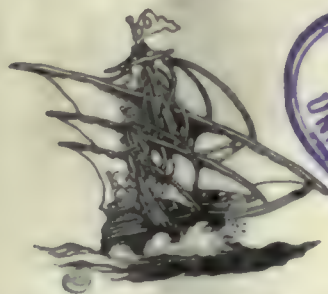
Toil without rest or recreation, is ashes.

These are to be cast away, and instead we shall have the redeemed life, the reinstated family, the restored home.

It is to be the crowning of life with its radiant graces, its shining and supreme joy!

[THE END.]

THE SURVEY



FIRST AID TO STRANDED AMERICANS
IN EUROPE

Robert W. de Forest

SOCIAL MEASURES PROMPTED
BY THE WAR

Graham Taylor

PUBLICITY CAMPAIGNS AGAINST
MILITARISM

SURVEY ASSOCIATES

PUBLICATION OFFICE
105 East 22d Street
New York

INCORPORATED

Robert W. deForest, President
Arthur P. Kellogg, Secretary Frank Tucker, Treasurer

WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 24

Contents

September 12, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

FOR A PUBLICITY CAMPAIGN AGAINST MILITARISM	585
HELPING THE HOME TO COMPETE WITH THE STREET	586
DECISION IN INDIANAPOLIS STREET CAR STRIKE	586
JOINT BOARDS TO TRY CITY EMPLOYEES	586
HOSPITAL FOR THE NATIONAL CARE OF LEPERS	587
EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN SCHOOLS	587
SOCIAL MEASURES PROMPTED BY THE WAR, By Graham Taylor	587
FIRST AID TO STRANDED AMERICANS IN EUROPE, By Robert W. de Forest	589
THE WORK OF THE AMERICAN COMMITTEE OF LONDON, By S. Stan-wood Menken	590

INDUSTRY

UNEMPLOYMENT, CHARITY AND THE MINIMUM WAGE IN PRO-CESS	John A. Fitch	593
A VITALIZED MASSACHUSETTS LABOR BOARD AND ITS TASK		594

HEALTH

AN OLD INSTITUTION ON A NEW BASIS	Howell Wright	596
STATE SUPERVISION OF TUBERCULOSIS SANATORIA		598

CIVICS

THE DUBLIN CIVIC EXHIBITION	Anna Louise Strong	599
PLAY ZONES IN NEW YORK STREETS	Carl Beck	600
THE BEAUFORT PLAN OF CITY MANAGEMENT		600
NEWSPAPER VERSE	Miriam Teichner	601
VERSES FROM 'PRENTICE SONGS	George M. P. Baird	602

COMMUNICATIONS		603
--------------------------	--	-----

JOTTINGS		604
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Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents. Changes of address should be mailed to us ten days in advance.

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Haven't you a friend who *ought*, as the saying goes, to be a reader of THE SURVEY, one who would really appreciate the issues if he but knew the magazine well?

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This offer is good only until September 30, the close of our fiscal year. It is strictly a "home stretch" offer.

The GIST of IT—

OREGON'S minimum wage law, sustained by the state court and now before the federal Supreme Court, was studied in its operation and results by the Commission on Industrial Relations. Page 593.

ALL Americans stranded abroad became friends instantly by virtue of their citizenship, writes Robert W. deForest, who served on the American Citizens' Committee in London. All were eager to help and the committee's clerical force included men on \$25,000 salaries. Page 589.

HOW the London committee set to work—with sub-committees on everything from diplomacy to baggage—is told by one of the editors of the daily newspaper it published. Page 591.

RAPID-FIRE stamps and posters in the war against war; the movies now enlisted. Page 585.

WAR measures in England include important social legislation to deal with home conditions. Parliament, in the midst of gigantic military preparations, passed, among other relief bills, an improved housing appropriation—to provide employment for the building trades and housing for the people. Page 588.

DESPITE local riots and European war, Dublin's Civic Exhibition was a success. Red Cross classes and food supply conferences were added activities when war came. Page 599.

SEPTEMBER 14 is the next district day in the House of Representatives, and those who have been urging legislation to wipe out the Washington alleys hope the House will act favorably on the substitute bill which has come from the Senate. This is the bill which was passed while Mrs. Wilson lay sick unto death. It prohibits alley dwellings after July 1, 1918. Friends of the housing movement look for supplementary legislation providing for reform in a manner which will be fair to both tenant and owner of alley property—by some method such as that provided in the original House bill.

BEAUFORT has a half time city manager who also serves as secretary of the Chamber of Commerce. The town believes it has solved the small city's problem of securing an efficient executive. Page 600.

CITY hospitals are more than places to board and treat sick people. The modern idea of their function is expressed by the superintendent of the Cleveland city hospital as "a medical means to a social end—public welfare." Page 597.

STREETS are the real playgrounds of 600,000 children in New York. Police Commissioner Arthur Woods has therefore closed to traffic one block in each of nineteen streets from 3 to 6:30 p. m. Social workers have volunteered as play supervisors. Page 600.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



FOR A PUBLICITY CAMPAIGN AGAINST MILITARISM

SO FAR from causing a temporary abandonment of the propaganda for universal peace, the war has spurred on the advocates of disarmament, mediation and judicial means for settling international disputes. They feel that this is the very time when educational effort can be most effective, with popular attention so impressed by a realization of the horrors of war.

Attention was called in these pages last week to the peace parade in New York and the peace badges suggested by a Cleveland business man and sold under the auspices of the Woman's Club.

Another suggestion has been received by THE SURVEY from Mrs. Elizabeth Tilton, of Boston, whose publicity campaign in Massachusetts against alcohol commanded public attention in remarkable degree, as told in THE SURVEY for March 21, 1914. Drawing upon this experience, she writes to the editor:

This war is a tragedy, of course, but it seems to me it is time now to recover from the great shock at the blow civilization has received and say to ourselves—not, Who, is to blame, but What are the dangers accruing that we can allay and What good can we make come out of it all? In other words, our plain duty is to shield and reconstruct civilization as fast as we can. How? A peace parade? That was good as a first, quick move.

"I believe, however, that the time has now come to say 'How can I help to make this war the last?' I believe we must all think whether the peace people have not been right all along when they

avored disarmament. Nations cannot be trusted with armies.

"I believe a national stamp committee should be formed to issue educational stamps, to be sold by some head committee or by some magazine for 25 cents a hundred. These stamps should be used on the backs of letters and should ring the changes on this idea."

Such poster stamps would be used, Mrs. Tilton believes, by women's clubs, business houses, associations of various sorts and individuals. Large firms might be induced to use them for one day on all outgoing packages—as was done in Boston in the anti-alcohol campaign. She urges that the sale of the stamps ought to be undertaken at once by some agency with country-wide influence, and by co-operating local committees. The proceeds from the sale of the stamps should be turned over to the Red Cross, she suggests.

The movies would also be utilized, according to her plan. They will be filled, of course, with pictures showing the glory of war, the spirited movements of troops. To counteract this influence upon the youth of the land she would have especial effort made to provide the movies with pictures showing the seamy side of war and its terrible human costs. She has already prepared posters and lantern slides which are in use in Massachusetts.

The cartoon by John T. McCutcheon in the Chicago Tribune, reproduced in THE SURVEY for August 29, "The Colors," should be printed in colors and widely circulated, she suggests, with pictures of actual war scenes that tell the story step by step.

In a recent despatch, H. G. Wells says, "when this war is over all Europe will cry for disarmament. Will the United States help?" Quoting this challenge, Mrs. Tilton writes:

"The only way to get the United States ready to help is through instant

MAKE WAR ON WAR
FAVOR
DISARMAMENT
AN INTERNATIONAL COURT
INTERNATIONAL POLICE
THIS IS CIVILIZATION

HERE ARE THE POOR MADE POORER,
THE HUNGRY MORE HUNGRY.



THIS IS WAR

THEY SAY
IT COSTS THOUSANDS TO KILL
ONE OF THESE MEN.



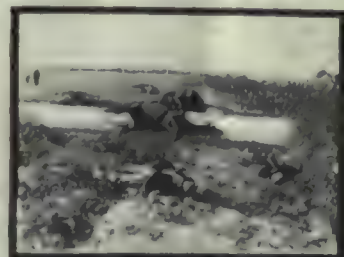
THOUSANDS TO KILL A GOOD MAN
NEEDED BY HIS FAMILY
THIS IS WAR!

HERE GO
GOOD MEN—Needed by their Families



TO KILL
OTHER GOOD MEN—Needed by their Families
THIS IS WAR

Here Lie Slain—the Flower of the Race.



THIS IS WAR—THE SURVIVAL OF THE UNFIT,
the Lame the Halt and the Blind.

education, by every publicity means possible. To me it will be tragic if the flower of youth go down to death in Europe and nothing comes of it but a little re-arranging of the map of the world. But if a disarmed democracy steps out of the ruins, or is even brought nearer, there will be something to show for all the health that must be ruined, the hearts that must be broken, the poor that must be poorer, and the hungry made more hungry."

HELPING THE HOME TO COMPETE WITH THE STREET

"BACK TO THE HOME" is the movement being promoted in Oregon by the Oregon Social Hygiene Society to keep boys and girls off the streets at night. Last winter the vice commission reported that by actual count one agent, employed two successive evenings, found 1,215 children under eighteen on the streets between 8 p. m. and 12.30 a. m.

From another source came the information that during 1913 a small group of high school boys often invited girls to go to the theater and took them instead to a house which they had provided for immoral purposes. Among younger children it was found that a great many attend moving picture shows at night, unchaperoned, two or three times a week, and that some boys frequent billiard halls and pool rooms.

Repression is not the antidote offered by the Social Hygiene Society to counteract these evils. Rather its purpose is to help the parent make the home a competitor with the streets, the public dance halls and the theaters. Back to the attractive home, the fun-loving home, the understanding home, is the real significance of the movement.

Twenty-five definite ways of accomplishing this end are suggested in a leaflet distributed by the society:

"In building a home," it advises, "better begin with a large yard and a small house—and remember that a small yard is better than none.

"A 'shack,' though rudely constructed, will serve well for a fort or an Indian cave. Let the boys make the shack themselves.

"A work bench in the basement may be the cause of developing a world-famous architect—or add much to the happiness, usefulness, and health of a plain man.

"An older girl might take a great interest in sweet-pea growing if her father would contract with a cafeteria to use the whole product for table decorations—or she might give them to invalids and shut-ins.

"Abraham Lincoln used to play one-o'-cat with the neighboring boys. All fathers cannot be Abraham Lincolns, but they can play one-o'-cat with their boys.

"A few electric lights strung out in the yard will make family croquet more novel and interesting for the summer evenings.

"Mothers can take their daughters with them when calling, and, of course, leave their gossamer at home."

— A — PROTEST AGAINST WARS

"Peace on Earth, Good Will Toward Men"
"Malice Toward None; Charity for All"

All persons desirous of increasing public sentiment to protest against war, aid the advancement of settling international disputes by mediation or judicial tribunals and assist the humane work of the RED CROSS can do so by wearing one of these peace emblems.

Price, 10 Cents each, or 3 for 25 Cents

Production and sale of peace badges under the auspices of the Women's Club, 1146 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio. Cash orders from organizations and business firms are solicited.

CLEVELAND'S POSTER AND BUTTON
CAMPAIGN AGAINST WAR

"AMERICA WANTS WORLD PEACE"

A PLEDGE



AM in favor of world wide peace, and I will wear this "Peace Button" to assist in creating universal sentiment in favor of settling international disputes by mediation, or judicial means.



Production and sale of Buttons under the auspices of the Woman's Club, 1146 Euclid Avenue, Cleveland, Ohio.

Profits from the sale of Buttons to be given to the Red Cross Society.

DECISION IN INDIANAPOLIS STREET CAR STRIKE

INDIVIDUAL CONTRACTS between the Indianapolis Traction & Terminal Company and its employees, relinquishing the right of the employee to certain privileges under an arbitration award given February 14, 1914, were held to be invalid by the arbitration board in an opinion handed down August 26. The opinion of the arbitration board was given as a sequel to the Indianapolis street railway strike of 1913, in pursuance to an agreement made between the employees and the company to submit their differences to arbitration.

The original grievances were submitted to the five members of the Indiana Public Service Commission but after objections had been made by the employees to two members of the commission, it was finally agreed that the permanent arbitration board should consist of only three members of the commission, Thomas Duncan, John F. McClure and Charles A. Edwards.

It was the contention of the employees,

acting unofficially through their union organization, that individual contracts signed by certain new employees of the company forfeited their right under the award not only to belong to the street railway men's union but their right to one Sunday off each month. The arbitration board sustained these contentions but denied the employees' right to solicit new members of the union on the property of the Indianapolis Traction & Terminal Company. The right of the company to employ special Sunday men is recognized in the latest award.

The officials of the union pronounce the award as favorable to the employees in every material point.

JOINT BOARDS TO TRY CITY EMPLOYEES

MARCUS M. MARKS, president of the Borough of Manhattan, New York city, has originated a plan which provides that a city employee under charges shall be tried by a joint board composed of borough employees and officials. The first two trials under this plan resulted unanimously for dismissal.

The new system is an adaptation of the employers' and employees' joint tribunal idea to the development of which, as a means of adjudicating labor disputes, President Marks has devoted much study.

"In the past" said President Marks, describing the plan, "a commissioner has been the sole judge of the sufficiency of the charges, and his own condition of mind completely determined the result. Now, under the new plan, two fellow employees are selected by lot, and form an equal part of the jury called together to advise the president as to the disposition of the case, the other two being officials representing the department.

"It has been feared by those who were timid about the proposed plan of trial that fellow-workmen would invariably side with the man under charges. My long experience with the labor movement gave me an opposite conviction. I knew that when workingmen were called upon as judges, their sense of fairness and justice was fully as keen as that of employers.

"Discipline and *esprit de corps* will be improved by this system, for the men will carry back to their fellows the story of a 'square deal'; the punishment of the guilty and absolute fair play and vindication for the innocent.

"I hope, not only that this innovation will become a permanent feature in the borough offices, but that it will spread by adoption in all other city departments, and later to the state and federal governments.

"So far as my knowledge goes, the new system of trial by 'joint board' is an entire departure from precedent, either here or abroad, and a new advance in democracy."

HOSPITAL FOR THE NATIONAL CARE OF LEPERS

DR. W. C. RUCKER, of the Public Health Service, is working to have the federal government establish an institution for the care of all lepers in the "continental" United States, and entrust its management to the Public Health Service.

Leprosy, he says, is undoubtedly on the increase. Though it is only mildly contagious, yet as we know so little of the mode of contagion we are forced to resort to segregation of all the known cases, for once the disease has begun to spread in a community it never recedes till active measures have been taken.

Strict segregation is, however, most difficult to carry out under present conditions. Only three states have hospitals for lepers, and these find them excessively expensive since the overhead charges are divided among so small a number of patients.

Dr. Rucker proposes to gather all the lepers in the country into a national hospital such as many countries far less wealthy than the United States already have. He would settle the question of disputed diagnosis, which has been the source of great difficulty during the ill-defined early stages of the disease, by referring each case to a board of physicians of the Public Health Service who are specially skilled in this disease.

Dr. Rucker gives an interesting sum-

mary as to our knowledge of this ages-old disease. It reads more like a summary of our ignorance. The route of entry of the bacillus is not definitely known, nor do we know the length of its incubation in the body of man. There is no positive means for diagnosing its earliest stages; no wholly satisfactory method of treatment has been devised; the period of its greatest infectivity is unknown. Two facts, however, can be certainly maintained: segregation and personal cleanliness are the only known weapons against leprosy.

EMPLOYMENT BUREAUS IN SCHOOLS

FREE EMPLOYMENT bureaus in public school houses form the latest development in Wisconsin's social center activity. These have come about through the co-operation of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission with the educational authorities of two towns, Sauk City and Osseo, where school principals have become paid civic secretaries.

The appointment of these principals is in line with the conclusions of the recent social center conference, reported in THE SURVEY for August 8, that the most needed next step to make the center effective "for practical service of every sort" is the leadership of paid civic secretaries. These school principals have been made deputies of the Industrial Commission in carrying out the work of the employment bureaus.

available as specified by the prime minister, not only for "all expenses arising out of the existence of a state of war," but for "assisting the food supply, for promoting the continuance of trade, industry and business communications, whether by means of insurance or indemnity against risk or otherwise, and for the relief of distress."

The establishment of a state insurance office to underwrite the war risks on ships and cargoes, was most obviously necessary to keep commerce at sea and to assure the inflow of food supplies. Yet it was referred to in the press as the "most dramatic" of these emergency measures. So far from superseding the usual marine insurance, however, the government only encouraged the extension of such insurance to cover war risks by assuming 80 per cent of this extra-hazardous risk for 80 per cent of the premiums.

No sooner had the war scare prompted the hoarding of food stuffs and the raising of prices than the cabinet appointed a committee on food supplies. Various traders' organizations at once began to co-operate with it in reporting and publishing maximum retail cash prices which ought not to be exceeded for three days in advance. Parliament supported the government in assuming control of the maximum prices for food, urged the exemption of farm horses from requisition for military purposes, and by a one-clause bill, bearing the title of "the unreasonable withholding of food supplies," invested the Board of Trade with the same powers for requisitioning food stuffs as the naval and military authorities exercise.

This act is depended upon to anticipate or check any attempt to "corner," or to speculate with, or arbitrarily raise the price of, food. Although its authority is to be used only at the discretion of the government, it is relied upon to have a steadying effect on the public apprehension. This summary governmental measure to prevent distress on a national scale was preferred to the proposal of a non-party parliamentary committee to deal with the situation. It was put through its three readings and passage at a single session of Parliament.

From the opposition came the additional suggestion that the government would consider the desirability of preventing well-to-do-people buying up large stocks of provisions. Lord Cecil branded this practice as a scandal and hoped the government would take measures to strengthen the criminal law against it. Leading dealers assured the government that in no case would they supply customers, however well-to-do, with more than normal supplies. The possibility of "an equitable distribution of food stuffs throughout the Kingdom at fixed prices by government agency," is intimated. The national Board of Ed-

SOCIAL MEASURES PROMPTED BY THE WAR—By GRAHAM TAYLOR

EVEN THESE darkest war clouds which have ever enveloped the civilized world have some silver linings which light up the gloom a little and throw a glint of hope into the future. Under the necessity, urged by overpowering emergency, advanced relief laws and measures have been enacted, especially in England, with unprecedented rapidity and unanimity. The old adage, "Necessity knows no law," is superseded by parliamentary acknowledgment that necessity demands more and better laws.

England's prompt recognition of the need for such legislation may be due partly to her earlier and later experience in dealing with distress. The warning from her experience during the period 1797 to 1817, covering the Napoleonic wars and the conflict with the United States, has been vividly brought home to heart and conscience, and to the very instinct of national self-preservation, at the menace to her food supply and the employment of her wage-earners. The memories of prohibitively high cost of living, food riots in the towns and at the ports to prevent the shipping of grain, of starvation wages and scarcity of work, of burdensome poor rates and the growing work-house population, of the

military occupation of mill towns and the parliamentary grant of one million pounds for relief work on roads and canals a hundred years ago, are still very much alive, especially in the leaders of this third generation of British working people.

England's recent experience with her social legislation has sufficiently demonstrated both its practicability and necessity, so as to sweep all opposition into co-operation with the war relief measures. They extend the operation of some of these advanced laws and enact new ones far more radical than any legislation hitherto proposed or passed. The practical demonstration of that brave grappling with the problems of peaceful industry now furnishes Parliament and people with a base line for defense against poverty, unemployment and misery with which war menaces every homeland engaged in this fatefully exhausting struggle for national existence. Thus only can the sudden and unanimous co-operation of the opposition with the government in framing and enacting these new measures be accounted for.

First and most comprehensive of them all was the vote of credit authorizing the expenditure of \$500,000,000 to be

ucation requested the local school boards to provide for the feeding of school children. To this and other ends the schools were reopened before the summer vacation ended. By order of the king and queen plain and simple living is the daily rule at the royal table. The co-operative stores, which handle a large percentage of the retail trade in England, have so far managed to undersell other provision merchants by protecting their members from the somewhat higher prices prevailing elsewhere. The Rochdale Co-operative Society formally disavowed all intention of sharing any profit from rising prices.

In Paris likewise the dealers at the central markets in co-operation with the police combine to fix a scale of maximum prices to be charged at wholesale and retail, and to prevent selling in large quantities to single customers. A proclamation was issued in Holland forbidding the storage of food except for current consumption. Municipal shops supplying provisions at little more than cost, are operated by municipalities in Switzerland, Austria and Germany.

To prevent financial panic and bankruptcy or undue pressure for debts, the "moratorium" act was passed by Parliament, authorizing the king by proclamation to extend to September 4 the legal term for the payment of indebtedness on bills of exchange and certain other obligations. Further extension to October has been announced. Among the exemptions to which this delay does not apply are wages and salaries, liabilities not exceeding \$25, the pay-

ment of rates and taxes, debts due outside the British Isles, dividends on interest on stocks, funds or securities, withdrawals from trustee savings banks and payments due under the workmen's compensation act, old age pension and national insurance. Rents were not exempted for fear of accumulating burdensome indebtedness upon the workers. Reservists' allotments from their wages to their families were paid in advance, to cover the first month's rent in their absence.

Very particular and considerate care is being taken to forefend wage-earners from unemployment and to secure the reservists and territorials from the loss of their occupation after the war. As president of the Local Government Board, Herbert Samuel announced in the House of Commons that many traders and manufacturers were patriotically keeping their mills and works in operation by reducing working hours instead of dismissing any employees; that the Road Board had a reserve of some millions of pounds which could be spent on new work employing many laborers; that the development commission also had funds available for large construction work; that the government departments would maintain and, where possible increase, the number of their employees. Mr. Samuel also issued a circular reminding all town and county councilors and officials that it was their duty not to curtail their undertakings and reduce their staffs, but to maintain and increase their operations.

The War Emergency Workers' Com-

mittee, representing all the labor groups, vigilantly watch the situation and offer suggestions and co-operation to the government. The Cabinet has appointed an advisory committee on distress which includes both John Burns and J. Ramsay MacDonald, together with officials of departments most closely involved. Local committees, having the same title and function, are being organized throughout the country and include representatives of the trade unions, boards of guardians, philanthropic organizations and the local authorities. It is thus hoped to promote "the mobilization of labor" as effectively as the mobilization of troops and ships.

The most significant and original of all these relief measures are two national housing enterprises. One, for the building of cottages for rural laborers, had been initiated, but not put into operation, before the war. Housing Bill No. 2, however, was proposed and unanimously carried through distinctly as a war relief measure for the employment of the building trades and for the provision of improved dwellings in town and country. It appropriated \$20,000,000 for the building of houses and cottages to be let at economic rent in the United Kingdoms. The bill was announced as more of an investment than a charity and its operation was restricted to one year. The money will be advanced on loan for such local use. The opposition expressed its approval of the measure and facilitated its passage, Bonar Law remarking, however, that "under ordinary circumstances such a measure would have taken some considerable time."

The Local Government Board explained that it would arrange with public utility societies and local authorities to proceed under the act to provide houses where they were most needed. Housing thus becomes a national issue, both by the act authorizing expenditure for housing the people as legitimate in times of peace and by the emphasis laid upon this policy in appropriating so large a sum promptly to carry out and extend it, as one of the most effective emergency measures to protect and nourish the resources of the homeland.

In concluding its statement of how the funds provided by the vote of credit would apply to "the relief of distress," the government informed the House of Commons that it would co-operate with the Prince of Wales's National Relief Fund, Queen Mary's Needlework Guild for soldiers' garments, the Red Cross Society, with Queen Alexandra as patron, and all other private voluntary agencies. The Government Advisory Committee on Distress would endeavor both to prevent overlapping and to promote co-operation, especially between official and voluntary efforts. Most significant was the government's final word: "While the Poor Law authorities should deal with present paupers, the re-

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BELGIAN PEASANTS ESCAPING FROM THE BATTLE ZONE

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PEASANT REFUGEES, HOMELESS AND HELPLESS IN THE STREETS OF BRUSSELS

lief of distress would as far as possible be carried out by other bodies. The poor law was being kept rather in reserve, and all other methods would first be adopted before we fall back on that last line of defense."

Thus that first week in August, which threatened Europe with the greatest destruction which has ever overtaken its civilization, was signalized by the most constructive, or reconstructive, legislation ever enacted in any one week throughout the long history of the Brit-

ish Parliament. And this was done in the rush of Parliament's gigantic defensive and offensive preparations for war.

Although all these are temporary measures to meet the emergency demanding immediate relief from the present or possible disasters of war, yet they cannot fail to affect profoundly the social legislation and administration which had already become the permanent policy of the British Empire and of its county and municipal governments.

ing the important Continental languages, with European friends, the situation was anxious enough. To the inexperienced student or teacher, with no amount of ready money at hand, and without the ability to communicate with friends, the situation was terrifying.

Here was an opportunity for Americans to get together and to use their power of quick organization and inventiveness in dealing with a situation entirely novel and calling for immediate action, and if ever there was a demonstration of these qualities that demonstration was complete. Wherever Americans were, whether in Germany, France, Austria, Italy, Switzerland, England, Scandinavia, or elsewhere, they got together. They pooled their resources, however scanty. They counselled together as to what to do, and so far as my knowledge goes (and it is fairly extensive) they succeeded in obtaining transportation to the nearest important city, and there they organized as only Americans could for mutual help. This organization usually grouped itself around the American ambassador or the American consul. In some instances the ambassador or the consul took the initiative in calling an American committee to its aid. In others the committee formed after advising with the American representative. In all instances, so far as I am aware, co-operation between such committees and the nearest American representative was complete.

Wherever Americans happened to be at the time when the "cyclone" came, they were almost always able to reach some point where there were other Americans, usually some city of importance where Americans were or soon became numerous. There were fortunately available among this assemblage of new-found friends (for all Americans involved in a common misfortune became

FIRST AID TO STRANDED AMERICANS IN EUROPE— By ROBERT W. de FOREST

VICE-PRESIDENT AMERICAN RED CROSS; MEMBER, AMERICAN CITIZENS COMMITTEE IN LONDON

IF THERE could be any bright spot in the dark cloud which has suddenly enveloped Europe it is the quick and effective way in which Americans have organized to help their fellow-countrymen, and particularly their fellow-countrywomen during the appalling month of August. There were probably about 80,000 Americans in Europe at the time when war followed immediately upon mobilization. They had no warning—the situation came upon them with the suddenness and unexpectedness of a cyclone.

It is quite evident from the English and German "White Papers" that diplomats were alarmed when Austria served her ultimatum upon Serbia. The European financial world undoubtedly had some sense of danger a day or two before the cloud burst, but the average American, traveling for pleasure, seldom reading and seldom able to read the local papers, had no warning. Unthinkable as was a general European war, equally unthinkable and inconceivable was the situation which immediately developed.

Replete as the press seems to have

been with stories of stranded Americans, it is not possible for those who did not witness the situation to realize it.

Letters of credit and other forms of credit became immediately valueless. Paper money was refused outside of the country of issue. English paper, French paper, German paper, with which most Americans who travel provide themselves, was valueless outside of the country of its issue. Nothing but gold and silver "went," and gold and silver disappeared almost immediately from circulation. The traveling American without coin or paper of the country in which he happened to be was without money.

All communication ceased. The trains ran only for soldiers; the telegraph and telephone could be used only for government messages; communication with friends was impossible; automobiles could not be had because the government impressed them all. Even cabs and horses disappeared from the streets of many European cities. To the able-bodied American, with ample resources, experienced in European travel, speak-

friends instantly by virtue of their citizenship) men of experience in business affairs—bankers, lawyers, executives of great corporations, social workers, men and women.

Out of such groups committees were formed, or, to speak more precisely, formed themselves by some process of natural selection. Where American representatives had executive ability and were resourceful such committees placed themselves under the leadership of the American representative. When they were not, the committee was accorded the lead and the American representative co-operated, or at least fell into line. Indeed, they could have done nothing else. I know of no instance in which the help of such committees was not warmly welcomed. Except for their organization our embassies and consulates would have been swamped. Their organization supplemented the official force by a large body of men and women of the highest efficiency. There was no lack of volunteers—everyone was not only ready and willing, but anxious to help. Mere suggestion that funds were needed produced them. No one was ashamed to do anything. In London we joked about our clerical force, who drew salaries of \$25,000 apiece, but the humor of the situation was that it was true, though our committee paid nothing.

My generalization as to the formation of such committees and their effectiveness in all important cities may be too broad. My own personal knowledge relates to London, Paris, Brussels and The Hague. I believe myself to be thoroughly informed with regard to Berlin, Munich and Swiss cities which had their headquarters at Berne, but I have sufficient confidence in my fellow-countrymen to believe that they acted in the same spirit and with substantially the same effectiveness elsewhere.

The London committee was presumably the most highly organized, naturally, for it had to deal with the largest number of people. It was upon London that almost everyone centered their devious and various routes from the afflicted Continent. The London committee had an excellent card index system. It had special committees on finance, transportation, hotel accommodation and relief (relief for men, relief for women), lost baggage, exchange of steamship tickets etc. It published a daily bulletin, which gave each successive day's registration as well as general information. The Munich committee did the same. Its daily was entitled *American Notes*. I wish to pay my tribute of praise to my own countrymen, and I can do it no better than by applying the closing editorial of our London bulletin to all the Americans who helped, wherever their place of activity:

"When the bomb of war broke, every

mainstay of our civilization seemed for the moment to perish for those Americans abroad. Inter-communication ceased, the family relation was often sundered, necessities were denied, money lost its value, homes were unobtainable by even the ill and aged, and 80,000 Americans were helpless and appalled—the foundation of their normal life had been wrenched away, and help, direction and comfort from strong men and women was their greatest human desire. This was the necessity of the hour which the noble men and women of the committee and their assistants met with a capacity and sympathy which has fully aided the afflicted and has won the respect and admiration of all who know the true measure of their achievement. No demand of service was refused, no want left unsatisfied.

THE WORK OF THE AMERICAN COMMITTEE OF LONDON—By S. STANWOOD MENKEN

ONE OF THE EDITORS OF THE AMERICAN BULLETIN PUBLISHED BY THE LONDON COMMITTEE

ONE OF THE interesting developments of the war has been the method adopted by Americans abroad to help each other. Upon the outbreak of the war there were, in Europe, according to the best estimate, well on toward 80,000 Americans. Many of them were without funds; others were separated from relatives and friends at a time when intercommunication, even by mail, except with great delay, was impossible.

It will be recalled that the war between Austria and Serbia was declared on July 29, 1914, and that subsequent declarations followed in the course of a few days. The outbreak of the war was a signal for concentrated exodus. At the same time hotel accommodations were not readily obtainable in London. The most striking preliminary to the war was the termination of the value of paper money throughout Europe. By July 29 paper money was not accepted in Paris in payment of bills nor change given. Some silver was obtainable, but gold had entirely disappeared being absorbed either by individuals or by the great state banks which were securing it for reserves.

In London conditions were somewhat better, although not generally so. In England as in France, moratoriums had been decreed, which closed the banks and made it not only difficult, but practically impossible for American banking firms and companies like Cooks or the American Express to meet credits generally, at first. Their resources were limited to cash in hand prior to the moratorium. There was no basis for exchange of moneys of different states. In a word, the corner-stone of barter, as we moderns know it, had been swept away and the richest found themselves in the position of a modern Robinson Crusoe who, though he had a chest of money was unable to use it. Firms like J. P. Morgan & Co. and Brown Bros.,

That these men and women had the capacity to do so was no accident. They had sprung from a race of pioneers whose forefathers had made existence possible only by accomplishing the seemingly impossible.

"Their ability was the result of a life's upbuilding in force, self-control and kindness. They could act when all was chaos, because life with them had been a training school for high efficiency. Thus they met the situation in all its difficulties and realized the highest objective of mankind in service to their fellows in the broadest sense. In this work they had the assistance of scores who had made a vocation of public work. High on the roll of honor will stand those who gave their best with generosity and chivalry, full worthy of the ideals of our generation."

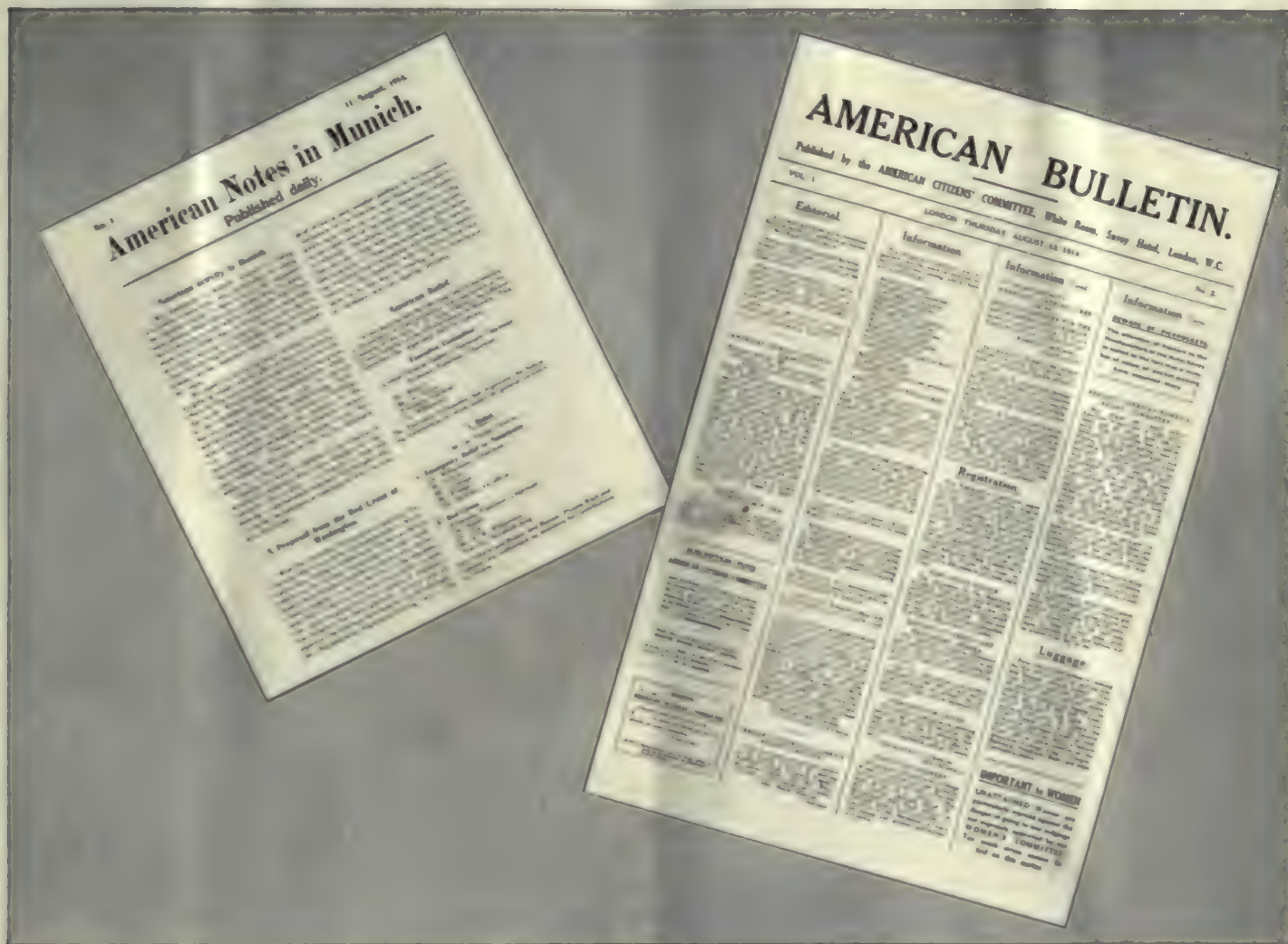
notwithstanding the fact that their supply of funds were cut off, managed to give their clients limited amounts, though wisely doing so only after judging their necessities.

Under these conditions, of course, an exodus from Continental Europe was natural and the objective was London, not only because of its language and nearness to home, but because of the consciousness of safety in being among those whom we regard as of the Mother Country. A spirit of panic was succeeded by one where American common sense prevailed. Local committees organized in different parts of Europe aided in this movement, but by August 1 the influx of Americans in London became so intense that hotels were filled and the great city was overcrowded with Americans striving to get home. Many were without funds and some were separated, not only from their families but also from their baggage, which the railroads generally had been unable to carry.

Instances of particular hardships were of families who had lost members of advanced or of tender age, with the result that there was a distress of soul, such as those absent from the scene can hardly conceive. To meet this situation Frederick I. Kent, vice president of the Bankers Trust Co. of New York, associated with William Porter of J. P. Morgan & Co., George D. Smith, J. P. Day, Thomas P. Shanley, James G. Cannon and many others in the first rank of American men of affairs, called a meeting at the Waldorf Hotel. At this meeting an executive committee was organized, and officers and sub-committees named.

The division of this committee into sub-committees indicates its activities. Oscar S. Straus gave of his broad experience in diplomatic affairs as an examiner, assuming the great burden of inter-communication with the American ambassador.

The immediate thought of every



PAPERS ISSUED TO GIVE INFORMATION TO STRANDED AMERICANS IN MUNICH AND LONDON

These newspapers were published daily by the American citizens' committees. In Munich an executive committee was organized consisting of the consul general, I. St. John Gaffney; Henry L. deForest, Professor Fullerton, Dr. Leslie D. Bissell, Dr. Williamson, and President Harry A. Garfield of Williams College.

Mr. deForest was made director of the relief committee, which was subdivided into a committee on emergency relief to Americans, with Dr. Williamson as chairman, and a Red Cross committee with Professor Fullerton as chairman. President Garfield was made director of the committee on information which was subdivided into committees on news, with Elbert F. Baldwin as chairman, on transportation, with Mr. Eilers as chairman; on letters, telegrams and registration, with Edward Roesler as chairman; and on banks and credits, with Mr. Wattriss as chairman.

Mrs. Dr. Nordhoff-Jung, chairman of one of the Red Cross committees at Washington, secured information as to government plans for the care of the large numbers of wounded expected to arrive in Munich. Subscription lists were opened among the Americans, and more than \$10,000 was raised.

American Citizens' Committee in London

Chairman, THEODORE HETZLER
Secretary, W. NORTH DUNAN
Treasurer, WILLIAM C. BIRD

COMMITTEES AND SUB-COMMITTEES

THEODORE HETZLER (Chairman)
 James G. Cannon
 Oscar S. Straus
 Joseph P. Day
 George D. Smith
 Thomas J. Stanley
 S. Stanwood Menken
 Nicholas F. Brady
 Robert W. de Forest
 B. A. Worthington
 Chandler P. Anderson
 Leo Arnstein
 Clarence Graff
 W. T. Potts

DIPLOMATIC COMMITTEE

Oscar S. Straus (Chairman)
 Walter L. Fisher James Hyde

FINANCE COMMITTEE

FREDERICK I. KENT (Chairman)
 Theodor Hertzog James G. Cannon

TRANSPORTATION COMMITTEE
 JOSEPH P. DAY (Chairman)

HOTEL COMMITTEE AND RELIEF COMMITTEE
 WILLIAM C. BIRD (Chairman)

MEN'S RELIEF COMMITTEE
 H. C. HOOVER (Chairman)

WOMEN'S RELIEF COMMITTEE
 MRS. H. C. HOOVER

ASSISTANTS TO SECRETARY
 W. W. Kent, Jr. David Margoshoff
 I. H. Somers T. W. Moore, M. D.

REGISTRATION COMMITTEE
 I. H. SOMERS (Chairman)

REFERENCE INDEX COMMITTEE
 I. H. SOMERS (Chairman)

BAGGAGE COMMITTEE
 W. T. FOSTER (Chairman)

POST OFFICE COMMITTEE
 DUDLEY F. LEWIS

COMMITTEE FOR EXCHANGE OF STEAMSHIP TICKETS

E. B. WYMAN (Chairman)

BULLETIN BOARD COMMITTEE
 F. J. Kingsbury C. L. Lloyd

COMMITTEE ON AMERICANS STRANDED ON CONTINENT
 A. SEYMOUR BULLOCK (Chairman)

RESIDENT AMERICAN WOMEN'S RELIEF COMMITTEE

Mrs. Walter Hines Page (Honorary President)
 Mrs. H. C. Hoover (Chairman)
 Mrs. J. W. Jenkins (Secretary and Treasurer)

EDITORIAL STAFF
 (American Bulletin)

Leo Arnstein,
 S. Stanwood Menken, Editors.

Edwin A. Denham, Managing Editor.

Samuel H. Schwarz,
 H. H. Pennock, Assistant Editors.

American on arriving in London was to get to the embassy. Our ambassador, ably assisted by First Secretary Laughlin and Assistant Bell and others, was simply overwhelmed. They had to deal with a vast quantity of diplomatic correspondence of greatest national moment and while they were filled with a consciousness of the great duty before them they were so thoroughly inundated that they welcomed the formation of this committee and upon its organization were enabled to turn over to it the usual type of cases requiring relief. From time to time Mr. Page who was exhausting himself in his work would attend the committee meetings in order that he might be more fully in touch with the situation.

Acting upon the suggestion of the writer, resolutions were adopted demanding that Austria and Germany guarantee the free passage of ships chartered by the ambassador and requesting that Washington take steps to procure such consent, provided that the ships going out under such conditions return free of cargo. As a result of Mr. Page's efforts this result was obtained. He was also successful in arranging to have funds forwarded by the United States government and to have army transfers sent should they be needed.

The financial question was handled under the direction of Mr. Kent, together with Mr. Hetzler and Mr. Cannon, bankers of experience. Mr. Hetzler, chairman of the general committee took these duties upon himself, in addition to the many others which he had assumed, and as a result devoted his entire time, night and day, to the work, as did several others.

Through this committee it was immediately arranged that the bank checks of the American Bankers Association should be paid. For several days these were the only checks on which coin was paid in London. To measure the extent of the relief from these payments would be impossible. Those who were fortunate enough to possess these checks shared the proceeds thereof with others, and through this source, life became livable to many who had not known where the next meal or carfare was to come from. Shortly afterward they also arranged that the American Express Company, which had an immense clientele, should make like payments to their customers and further relieved the situation in London by obtaining advance of large sums upon the guarantee of American bankers, which became immediately available, with the result that the financial situation soon was such that every worthy American could obtain funds. In this work the committee was greatly aided by an organization which had existed for some years in London, called the American Residents Committee, of which the chairman was H. C. Hoover,

the vice-chairman the American consul-general, the honorary secretary F. C. Van Duzer and the treasurer Clarence Graff. Its directorship was a strong one, containing among others the great merchant H. Gordon Selfridge. This committee had had broad experience in dealing with the American derelict and with a body of trained workers acting under their direction and aided particularly by Mrs. H. C. Hoover, did much that would otherwise have been impossible, particularly in helping the women who appealed to the committee. Mrs. Hoover had had a thorough training in charitable work, after the San Francisco earthquake and immediately gathered a corps of assistants for the relief committee of which she was a member.

The 30,000 pounds which the American Residents Committee raised probably did more to directly relieve actual suffering than anything else. This committee worked, not alone to insure the comfort of American woman-kind, but to guard them from attack of the unscrupulous. This latter matter became so serious that detectives were employed to prevent undesirable persons from frequenting the rooms when it was found that in some cases they were offering lodgings in houses of known bad reputation. The matter was regarded so seriously that Mrs. Hoover organized a corps of volunteers who met each train and who provided escorts to the women to lodgings which had been thoroughly investigated.

In all this work the committee was ably assisted by a squad of about thirty boy scouts, under the direction of an able captain. These boy scouts rendered voluntary service continually as messengers, custodians and otherwise to the committee.

All this work was done at the Hotel Savoy in great rooms on the embankment side, which the hotel donated for the use of the committee. The main room of the great floor was a ball-room seventy-five feet by sixty feet in depth. There was an upstairs room half that size while a number of other rooms of ample proportions were used for committee purposes. On entering the main committee room you would meet with signs indicating the locations of the different committees. On one side the Women's Relief Committee held forth. Next to it was a great bulletin board full of questions as to lost persons. Then there came the Transportation Bureau, under the direction of Joseph P. Day, the well known real estate man.

Owing to the demands of the admiralty there was a constant change in the sailings, and in addition the committee investigated the needs of persons who were anxious to get away, provided accommodation for those with the most pressing claims on a basis of merit, "merit" being lack of funds or ill

health, and provided for the transfer of tickets over the lines which would consent to such a course. The committee was really a medium for the transfer of the steamship tickets, and the whole procedure was so organized as to make actual conditions easier and send away those who should receive first consideration. The loss of friends and the location of those who had arrived in London was handled under the direction of L. H. Somers, who had from the first volunteered to give his whole time to the work of the committee.

A baggage committee was organized to handle loss of baggage and seek recovery of the same. At first this was under the direction of Mr. Gaston, and upon Mr. Gaston's going to the Continent, Mr. Potts, an official of the American Express Company, took charge of the matter. Then there was a committee to find Americans stranded on the Continent. This was in charge of the Rev. C. Seymour Bullock.

At the suggestion of Mrs. Hoover it was decided to publish a newspaper in order that information desired by our citizens should be readily secured. Each day this paper, which was issued to a number of 6,000, was distributed among all the hotels in London and was eagerly sought for each morning by the crowds of Americans who gathered in the committee room. This crowd on the average numbered 3,000 to 4,000.

The upper rooms of the committee were devoted to the cashing of checks, the exchange of money and the issuing of passports, the American ambassador having established, under the direction of one of the assistants, such a department. At first a charge of \$2 was made for passports, but later the ambassador secured a waiver of this charge.

The headquarters of the committee became a source of supply for information. It was a gathering place for Americans who made it their headquarters and was altogether the busiest conceivable place in London. To measure the work done by such men as Mr. Hetzler, Mr. Duane, Mr. Breed, Mr. Straus and Mr. Kent is impossible.

To measure the extent to which the common sense and sympathy and power of organization of the American Committee in London aided the distressed is impossible. We can only outline the method of meeting an extraordinary situation through the self sacrificing labor of over one hundred noble men and women.

Their work is not done; it is only beginning. Of course, many of those who initiated the labor had to leave for home, but in leaving they had a consciousness that Mr. Kent and Mr. Duane were remaining to continue the work in association with the American Residents' Committee and that matters had been so arranged that every stranded American would be helped.

INDUSTRY

UNEMPLOYMENT, CHARITY AND THE MINIMUM WAGE IN PROCESS—BY JOHN A. FITCH

INDUSTRIAL CONDITIONS in Oregon are closely similar to those in Washington. So it was natural that in the Portland hearings before the Industrial Relations Commission there should be much of the same sort of testimony as that brought out in the previous week's hearings in Seattle.

Lumber is the great Oregon industry. As in Washington, there are periodic shut-downs of lumber mills and logging camps, due to business depressions or other causes. The other industries are essentially seasonal, as salmon fishing, canning, the picking of fruit and hops. Oregon, therefore, has its problem of unemployment.

According to Father Edwin V. O'Hara, who has been co-operating in an investigation of the subject under the auspices of the American Association for Labor Legislation, there is employment in the summer months for 30,000 men in the various industries. In the winter, however, in normal times not over 23,000 can find employment. For the greater part of the resulting unemployment he blames the lumber industry, which, according to his figures employs 15,000 in summer and in winter lets 5,000 of the men go.

Father O'Hara recommended that the state and municipalities try so far as possible to have public work done in the winter. The public buildings, road building and so on, might just as well be done in the slack season. His second plan is to induce people who own logged-off land to have it cleared in the winter months.

The unemployment situation was discussed by several witnesses. A. E. Wood, professor of social sciences in Reed College, Portland, ascribe it in part to the seasonal industries of the Pacific coast, and in part to the immigration, from other sections of the country, of men who have falsely been led to believe that there are unusual opportunities in this section. Another witness declared that many men come expecting to go on the land. When they arrive they find the amount of capital that must be applied before the land can begin to be productive is so great as to place it utterly beyond their reach. These join the ranks of the wage earners.

It was the acute unemployment situation of last winter that led to the housing of the idle men in the Gypsy Smith tabernacle—as was described in THE SURVEY of March 28, 1914.

Dr. Wood told how these men were organized. Their methods were quite similar to those followed by the men at the "Hotel de Gink" in Seattle, though they did not join the Itinerant Workers' Union. The men at the tabernacle

Probing the Causes of Unrest

XII

The twelfth of a series of interpretations of the hearings, before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission, by a staff representative of The Survey.



were assigned to committees. There was a committee on "rustling for grub," another on kitchen, another on order and one on seeking employment. He testified to their orderly conduct. In spite of the great number of unemployed men in Portland there was much less crime last winter than usual.

Dr. Wood obtained detailed information from 447 of the men. Of these 214 claimed to be at least partially skilled. Out of 1,200 separate answers to the request for the reasons for leaving their last three jobs, 810 stated that they were laid off, either because of a depression, or unfavorable weather, or the finishing of the job. 102, out of 326 replying to this question claimed to belong to a union. Ed. Gilbert, a laborer and one of the leaders of last winter's unemployed, testified with some bitterness about their efforts to get work. A fine strong type of man told how he hated to accept charity.

"It was work we wanted," he said. "We went to the unions for help, and they were more horrified over the thought of what people would say if there were hordes of unemployed on the streets than they were over the fact that men were starving."

Neither the unions nor the churches nor the charitable institutions would help them find work, he declared. Once a man was on the point of letting a contract to them to clear a piece of logged-off land, Gilbert said this man's neighbors threatened that if he put those "vagrants" to work on his land they would drive both owner and men out of the country. So that fell through, and the organization, formed for the purpose of finding work, had to accept charity.

Asked what his solution of the problem would be Gilbert replied "Give us work."

As might be expected, there was considerable curiosity on the part of the commission about Oregon's minimum wage law.

Father O'Hara, chairman of the Industrial Welfare Commission; Armadee Smith, a member; and Caroline J. Gleason, secretary of the commission, testified regarding the operation of the law.

Father O'Hara said that in 1913 a law was passed prohibiting the employment of women and children for more than a reasonable number of hours a day or at less than an adequate wage. The same law created a commission to determine standards of reasonableness and adequacy.

In making its findings the commission has depended on committees representing employers, employees and the general public. These committees have made recommendations which the commission has power, after public hearings, to reject or approve. So far it has approved of all recommendations made. The standards that have been set are as follows:

In Portland in the mercantile business the minimum weekly wage is \$9.25 for experienced adult workers and the weekly hours of labor fifty, with prohibition of all work after 6 p. m. The same standard was fixed for office work, while the minimum for factories was placed at \$8.64 a week of fifty-four hours. It was the latter ruling that brought the law into the courts. It has been sustained in the Oregon Supreme Court and is now before the Supreme Court of the United States. For occupations outside of Portland the minimum is \$8.25, and night work is prohibited after 8:30 p. m.

Miss Gleason described conditions prior to the passage of the law as "not so bad as in the East," but bad enough. Women were found who did not have enough to eat. One girl was discovered who spent her last cent on Saturday and expected to fast until Monday, which would be pay day. The minimum wage law is supposed to put an end to such conditions.

No evidence has come to light either that any appreciable number of women have been discharged as incapable of earning the minimum or that the apprenticeship clause is being taken advantage of by employers. The latter contingency is safeguarded, according to Miss Gleason, by the fact that a woman who is paid less than the minimum can collect back pay by legal process. There is some danger, she said, that a woman might take advantage of an employer by representing herself as inexperienced and so get a job at a dollar a day as a learner and then, at the end of the year, prove herself experienced and collect back pay.



THE GYPSY SMITH TABERNACLE CONVERTED INTO A HOME FOR PORTLAND'S UNEMPLOYED LAST WINTER

Perhaps the most interesting witness was C. E. S. Wood, a Portland lawyer who confessed that he was an anarchist. He told the commission very courteously that they were seeking palliatives and would accomplish nothing. They will get nowhere, he told them, unless they get right down and try to understand what makes economic classes and class conflicts.

The greatest evil of all, he declared, is the holding of land for speculative purposes. Let every owner who does not make use of his land forfeit his ownership, and let it revert to some man who will use it. Here on the one hand are millions of acres of land in the West lying idle and unproductive, he told the commission, and on the other, thousands of men starving because they can't work it. If the "paper title" to land, inherited from feudalism, were taken away, unrest would largely cease.

Mr. Wood pointed out that the courts have distinguished between "superior" and "inferior" uses for water. The use that is prior to all others is for drinking purposes. After that need is supplied other rights may be recognized, but before this primary necessity all other rights become void. He would have the same distinction applied to land. The superior use of land is to provide food. Therefore any idle land capable of producing food should be turned over to someone who will use it for that purpose. Not all land is productive, however. This is often true of mineral land. The superior use of such land would be the production of those minerals. Mr. Wood suggests, therefore, permitting the coal companies to remain in possession of land where they are actually operating mines. Their title to the land would be their use of it. But he would not permit them to hold any land unused. All unworked coal lands should be thrown open to anyone who would stake out a claim and establish a title by mining coal.

If there is as much class feeling in Portland as in Seattle, the witnesses called did not give free expression to it. Only one real belligerent appeared. This

was an employer who classified society into "employers, employes, and the barnacle on the body public."

"There are these three classes," he declared, "and no others."

A VITALIZED MASSACHUSETTS LABOR BOARD AND ITS TASK

MASSACHUSETTS now has a real Board of Labor and Industries. There is now a probability that the labor laws of the Commonwealth will be enforced. Those who have followed the sad history of the former board will realize how great is the departure indicated by the two statements.

The last legislature of Massachusetts provided a Board of Labor and Industries to administer the statutes enacted to conserve the safety and life of the workers. The statute provided that one of the members of the board should be a physician or a sanitary engineer. The first board consisted of James A. Lowell, Channing Smith, William Acton, James W. Crook and Mrs. Mary H. Dewey, no one of whom was a physician or a sanitary engineer.

When this board had under consideration the appointment of its commissioner of labor, the executive officer of the board, it considered such men as R. G. Valentine, John Mitchell, Owen R. Lovejoy, John A. Fitch, Don D. Lescohier, L. W. Hatch, John Golden, Charles F. Gettemy. Robert N. Turner, a lawyer and politician, was urged for the place, and the objection that he knew nothing of actual factory or labor conditions was met at last by the suggestion that he be made deputy and acting commissioner until the board could agree upon a person to take full charge of the office. Mr. Turner so served as deputy for some months, until he was finally made commissioner, after some members of the board felt that he had been sufficiently educated by them to serve in that capacity.

When Mr. Turner was made commissioner, the labor interests felt that they were not properly protected, and they

Pressed for an explanation, he said that a barnacle is one who lives on the other classes without working, or who gets a following by persuading others that they are ill-treated and dissatisfied.

were, therefore, assured that they could name the deputy commissioner. Some fifty or more names were presented to the board, including those of Arthur M. Huddle, Emily G. Balch, Mabel Gillespie, Henry Sterling, Frank McCarthy, Edward J. Decourcy. Finally Cornelius J. Carmody, chairman of the State Labor Legislative Committee and a friend of Mr. Turner, was appointed.

Since by no construction could any member of the board be regarded as a physician or a sanitary engineer, it devolved upon the board to exercise particular care in the appointment of its second deputy who, under the statute, should be "especially qualified to supervise the enforcement of laws under the jurisdiction of the board which related to the health of persons employed in buildings used for industrial purposes, and shall be charged with that duty." No "medical deputy" was appointed during the early life of the board.

Constant complaint came before the board, either from the reports of inspectors or directly to the board itself, about serious injuries to the health of the operatives, particularly of women and children. There were many cases of spinal curvature, headaches, hemorrhages, anaemia, skin disease, eye trouble and a host of other ailments of occupational origin. All health questions presented to the board were met with the statement that they must be deferred until the medical deputy was appointed so that he could pass upon the complaints in conformity with the statute. When these complaints had accumulated to such an extent that action seemed imperative, the board met the demand by appointing a man who had no pretense to medical or sanitary

education and whose sole claim to the qualifications called for by the act were that he was employed by the Board of Health in draining Neponset swamp lands! Protest was made by people who felt that his ability to dig a ditch did not qualify him to pass upon curvature of the spine, on the delicate questions of eye strain and pelvic disorders. When the facts were presented to the governor and the council, they declined to confirm his appointment.

The attempted appointment of this deputy challenged the attention of the governor to the entire conduct of the board. As a result of his investigation, the governor was convinced that the board had been acting with disregard of its duty in many respects, and also that its composition was illegal because of the fact that there was no sanitary engineer or physician among its members. When neither Mr. Lowell nor Mr. Crook resigned at the governor's request that one of them should step out to make way for the sanitarian called for by the statute, the governor dismissed from office the entire board, including William Acton, the member supposed to represent labor, and Mrs. Mary H. Dewey, whose work on behalf of women and children workers had been distinctly useful.

The reasons assigned for the dismissal of the board were four in number: First, that the board was illegally constituted in that none of the members was a physician or a sanitary engineer; second, that the board had violated the regulations of the Civil Service Commission and had kept in its service an employe contrary to the rules of the commission; third, that the chairman of the board, either as an individual or as a member of the board, had sought to break down the civil service regulations of the commonwealth; fourth, that the members of the board were not working in harmony and the differences between them had impaired efficiency.

State-wide interest at once centered upon the personnel of the new board. The governor has constituted it as follows: Chairman, Alfred W. Donovan of Rockland; John Golden, Selskar M. Gunn, Alfred H. Quessy, and Mary H. Dewey. In reappointing Mrs. Dewey, Governor Walsh said that her attitude regarding reappointment was as clearly distinguished from that of some of her fellow members of the old board as was the value of her services, including, as it does, a thorough knowledge of the labor laws, an ability to do work among women, and an ability to assume their point of view.

It was believed by many people that the old board was organized in the interests of the proprietors of the great industries of Massachusetts. A glance at the qualifications of the four members of the new board makes it apparent, say the critics of the old board, that the new board is organized in the interest of all concerned—the public, the workers in these industries, and the proprietors.

Alfred W. Donovan of Rockland, chairman, is president of the E. T. W. Wright Shoe Company. He is a frequent speaker at meetings of boards of trade and similar bodies the state

over. His standard of ethics is shown in a recent remark. One of his associates rather sneeringly commented upon his apparent failure to make as much money in the shoe business as some of his wealthy friends. Mr. Donovan replied that he had not made as much money as he could have made, but he had made as much money as he ought to have made.

The textile industry employs more working people than any other industry in the state. It is not represented in the composition of the board, however, by a manufacturer but by John Golden, known the country over as a labor leader. He is a resident of Fall River; was born in England in 1862; came to this country in 1891, and worked as a mule spinner in Fall River. He is president of the United Textile Workers of America, a member of the American Federation of Labor, a member of the Mule Spinners' Local Union of Fall River, of the Commission on Minimum Wage, of the Executive Committee of the National Child Labor Committee, and fills many other important offices.

Selskar M. Gunn was graduated from the Massachusetts Institute of Technology in 1905, department of public health; he was biologist of the Boston Bio-Chemical Laboratory, 1906; biologist State Board of Health of Iowa, 1906-1908 and lecturer on state hygiene, at the State University of Iowa at the same time; health officer, Orange, N. J., 1908-1910, and as such had charge of health inspection in factories. He then studied the hatting industry with particular reference to the prevalence of tuberculosis. Since 1911 he has been assistant professor of public health at the Massachusetts Institute of Technology.

He was expert sanitarian of the bureau of economy and efficiency of Milwaukee; assistant secretary general of the Fifteenth International Congress of Hygiene and Demography. He has written many articles on public health and is editor of *American Journal of Public Health*; secretary of the Public Health Association; lecturer on hygiene at Tufts College Medical School, and assistant professor of biology at Simmons College.

Governor Walsh was of the opinion that Mr. Gunn might answer the requirements of the law which states that one member of the board should be either a physician or a sanitary engineer, but in order to be sure that he complied with the spirit and the letter of the law, the governor named Dr. Alfred H. Quessy as the fifth member. Dr. Quessy, who was born in Meriden, Conn., was educated in the public schools of Fitchburg, Mass., Laval University, Montreal, the Physicians and Surgeons University, Baltimore, and Johns Hopkins University, Baltimore. Not only is he qualified as a physician to carry out the spirit of the act but he will be of peculiar value to the commission because of his nationality, inasmuch as the people of French-Canadian extraction who work in the mills in Massachusetts outnumber those of any other race.

The critics of the former board point out its inactivity in the enforcement of

labor laws. They declare that while here a lunch counter proprietor or there a shirtwaist maker may have been convicted of having worked an employe overtime, the convicted employers all told probably do not employ as many as a hundred hands. In contrast to such petty prosecutions is cited, for example, the board's record (as to "suction shuttles," involving the health of thousands of workers. The law provides that "it shall be unlawful for any proprietor of a factory or any officer or agent or other person to require or permit the use of suction shuttles or any form of shuttle in the use of which any part of the shuttle or any thread is put in the mouth or touched by the lips of the operator. It shall be the duty of the State Board of Labor and Industries to enforce the provisions of this act." When the board was urged to enforce this act, it assigned a portion of its inspection force to counting the number of such shuttles in use in the state. When its attention was called to the fact that one of its own members was using such suction shuttles in violation of the law, it appeared to be satisfied with the answer of this member that he was not punishable because he had furnished each of his employes with a crochet hook with which the employe could, with a little patience, pull the thread through after he had thrust it carefully through the eye of the shuttle. The member was not prosecuted.

Part of the old board's activities were directed toward interpreting the law. The best way to enforce a law, urged a critic of the board, is to enforce it, leaving to the courts questions of doubtful interpretation. But the board, or its commissioner, made a number of rulings, some of which have been characterized as peculiar. For instance, it ruled that "A public bowling alley does not include alleys in private clubs or Y. M. C. A.'s or like places. The same applies to a pool or billiard room, and hence there is no restriction to the hours of labor during which a minor may be employed in such places." It is alleged that the Harvard Club, for instance, under this ruling works its pin boys up to twelve or one o'clock at night. Another interesting ruling was that a minor, employed upon a wagon or automobile used in connection with a mercantile or manufacturing establishment, must obtain and hold an educational certificate, *provided his work is in part within the building*. If he happens not actually to carry the bundles out, no one can legally question his education. Another ruling was that newsboys who purchase their own papers and sell independently are not limited as to their hours of labor. Many other such rulings might be cited.

The board spent much energy also on special reports. One of its inspectors made a most interesting study of the employment of minors upon the tobacco farms in Westfield, and another valuable treatise on the history of factory inspection in Massachusetts. In the meantime, cases where dummy dust hoods, looking like the real thing but *not connected with any suction device*, continued to flaunt defiance, while the operatives kept on dying from tuberculosis.

HEALTH

A N OLD INSTITUTION ON A NEW BASIS—BY HOWELL WRIGHT, SUPERINTENDENT OF CITY HOSPITAL, CLEVELAND, O.

A MUNICIPAL HOSPITAL is an institution of organized society provided by a city to care for the sick. It is but a medical means to a social end, and this end—public welfare—must never be forgotten. The modern hospital has outgrown the narrow field of boarding and treating sick people. The time has come when a city hospital can no longer passively receive the sick from the community without considering why they became sick, or use them chiefly as material, or discharge them without interest in their convalescence and rehabilitation in wholesome living and working conditions.

The Cleveland City Hospital has been slow in outgrowing the narrow field of boarding and treating sick people. While it is young in years as a hospital, it is old in years as an institution. It has slowly evolved itself from the old infirmary which was begun in 1850, completed in 1855 and designed "to accommodate both the insane of the city and the sick and infirm poor and furnish also facilities for clinical instruction to the physicians of the day."

The legitimate parent of both infirmary and hospital was the institution built on Clinton street in 1837-1838 "which finally degenerated into a simple almshouse." Over a thousand persons were boarded and treated from time to time in the infirmary, but until 1888, when a new hospital building was completed, the average daily number in the hospital

department did not exceed 86. The report of 1884 states that an increase in hospital capacity was accomplished "by using rooms of paupers not sick." The building and development of the infirmary indicated, therefore, for many years the interest of citizens in caring for "the legal charges upon the municipality." The community as a whole regarded it as a place to stay away from, and the unfortunate regarded it and still regard it as a "place of last resort." Not until 1909, when infirmary patients were transferred to Cooley Farms, was major emphasis placed upon the hospital and its development as such.

The development of professional work at the hospital is important. In 1872, a superintendent who also had charge of outdoor relief was placed in charge of the infirmary. He evidently was not a physician. The city physician visited the infirmary three times a week, prescribed medicine for the sick, and left it with a steward "who shall entrust it to such assistants and nurses as he may deem qualified and trustworthy." Until 1891, professional services for the sick poor were furnished by a single physician who resided at the infirmary or visited it at intervals. In 1891 there were under his care 260 insane, 137 paupers, and 83 in the hospital proper.

This same year the infirmary was placed under the control of the director of Charities and Correction. It was seen at once that some more satisfactory plan

of caring for the sick was needed, and accordingly with the assistance of the medical profession and the medical schools of the city, a new scheme of medical and surgical service was adopted. This move marks the beginning of a modern city hospital and the real beginning of the performance of another function, namely, the education of physicians. As the hospital facilities gradually developed, with the opening of the Training School for Nurses in 1897, the addition of the Children's Hospital, and the separation of the old infirmary, changes and modifications in the professional service were necessary from time to time, all leading up to the formal staff organization which has recently undergone many changes.

The old medical and surgical management, or visiting staff, was divided between two so-called schools of medicine, one homeopathic, one "regular," the former constituting but one-fourth of the entire staff. Each "school" had one or two sections representing a medical school and one section representing the profession at large. Each section had a short-term service at the hospital each year. The staff appointed itself and was practically a self-perpetuating body. Thus representatives of two so-called schools of medicine, having entirely different methods of treatment were placed on service together and there were certain results contrary to good order, discipline, and efficiency.

The plan of assigning patients in their regular order of admission, three to one service and one to the other, did not at

MAIN BUILDING, CITY HOSPITAL

Its capacity, 240 beds, including 36 beds in children's department, gives a large opportunity for the study of general cases.



all times work out to the best interests of patients and hospital. Again, because of limited operating-room space, there were frequent conflicts as to time, etc., with the attendant inconvenience to surgeons. The plan necessitated a double system of charts and records in different colored inks; also, two kinds of drugs and two laboratory systems. All this was unnecessary and expensive, and caused confusion in the training of nurses.

Again under the old system of medical and surgical management there were no chiefs of service,—that is, no one person responsible for the conduct of the service and the attendance of the visitant. It is recorded that "Dr. D. failed to see 6 cases in 48 hours." If a visitant for any reason could not attend to his duties a meeting of the executive committee was apparently necessary to obtain, when possible, a substitute.

There was no continuity of treatment. One visitant on a collegiate service might order spirits for a tuberculosis patient. The next visitant on a non-collegiate service might not wish to order spirits. One visitant might favor a liberal diet and no tub baths in typhoid fever, while the next directly following might not feed and might give all tub bath treatment.

No one person was responsible for making complete records; hence, house officers, nurses and attendants had to learn again and again as the services changed.

It must be remembered that when this scheme of medical and surgical management was worked out, it was probably the only system that could for a time satisfactorily meet existing conditions. Great and everlasting credit is due the originators of the plan and of the rules, who have served the hospital so well through years and years. Many of them have rendered devoted service, often bringing and using their own instruments, apparatus and supplies when the city failed to provide them, and some have at all times made the hospital their first interest in life.

But conditions changed. This problem confronted the authorities of the hospital in 1913, "Is the medical and surgical management, in consideration of the opportunities and conditions at hand, so selected, constituted and organized as to carry out efficiently and effectively the functions of a hospital and best promote the interests of patients, practitioners and the welfare of the community at large?" Many even of the old management believed that it was not, and thoroughly agreed that a new plan of management should at once be devised and put into operation.

According to the new plan of medical and surgical management adopted for Cleveland City Hospital, the administrative and executive head of the hospital is the city Director of Public Welfare. He corresponds to the board of trustees in a private or university hospital, and has final authority in all matters except those concerning professional treatment.

The superintendent is the general manager of the hospital. He is responsible for the administration of the affairs of

the hospital. This includes authority to appoint and remove all employees, including assistant superintendents, resident physicians, the head of the training school and all other heads of administrative departments and their subordinates, subject at all times to such civil service rules as apply, and with the approval of the department of public welfare. All officers and heads of departments are responsible to the superintendent. He and his assistants have control of all admissions to the hospital and the final discharges. The medical house officers are responsible to the visiting staff for the proper performance of their professional duties, but in all matters of personal conduct and administrative or general duties they are directly and wholly responsible to the superintendent.

The visiting staff has absolute authority to dictate the professional treatment of all patients admitted to the hospital. All the professional work of the hospital is grouped under two divisions, medical and surgical, each in charge of a division chief.

Under the medical division there are grouped the following departments, each in charge of a department head: General medical, neurological, dermatologi-

HOSPITAL RESEARCHES

"The spirit of the laboratory in its highest sense must permeate our words and the clinical atmosphere of the wards must unite with that of the laboratory. The educational function of the hospital must be evidenced in progressive, united and purposeful research."—AMERICAN JOURNAL OF SURGERY.

cal, children's contagious, tuberculosis. Under the surgical division there are grouped the following departments each in charge of a department head: general surgical, orthopedic, genito-urinary, nose, ear and throat, eye, obstetrical. There is a pathological department under the direction of a department head.

For the present there is no separate contagious department. All cases of such nature are assigned for the present to the general medical department, to the children's department, or to both. Nor is there an orthopedic department or genito-urinary department. Cases of such nature are assigned for the present to the general surgical department.

The chief of the medical division serves as head of the department of general medicine. The chief of the surgical division serves as head of the department of general surgery. The chief of each division is on duty the entire year and is at all times responsible for the working efficiency of his division and for the professional treatment of all patients assigned to his division. The head of each department is also on duty the entire year and is at all times under the direction of the division chief, to whom he is responsible for the working efficiency of his department and for the professional treatment of all patients assigned to his department.

Under each department head there is a sufficient additional number of visiting physicians and surgeons so that each patient is visited by the department head, the assistant department head, or by

one of such visiting physicians or surgeons each and every day. Visiting physicians and surgeons serve for not less than four months of each year.

Some advantages of this plan of organization are these:

1. It places definitely the responsibility for the professional care of patients.

2. It insures working efficiency and cooperation between departments.

3. "Continuous service" throughout the year affords the best opportunity for the study of disease, and for the carrying out of some definite policy or plan in the observation and treatment of individual cases and of group cases.

It makes possible uniform standing orders for House Officers; it necessitates keeping only one system of charts and records, one kind of drugs and only one laboratory system, and it insures uniformity in the training of nurses.

It is further believed that the functions of city hospital as mentioned above, can best be carried out and the interests of patients, practitioners and the community-at-large can best be promoted if the medical and surgical management of the institution is entirely under the control of Western Reserve Medical School and if all nominations to the visiting staff are made by the faculty of that school.

The training of students and practitioners is an important function of a hospital and is becoming more and more recognized as such. The future practitioner of medicine can receive his practical training only in the wards of a hospital, where for a requisite period of time he comes in intimate contact with diseases and has an opportunity of watching its natural history under the guidance of his teachers. A teacher of medicine, caring for patients that are being seen and examined by medical students, is stimulated to his best endeavors. He is constantly under criticism, as it were, and is being watched by a body of men before whom he naturally wishes to appear to best advantage.

It is to be emphasized that this plan will promote post graduate instruction as well, so that medical men may have an opportunity of adding to their knowledge and skill. The instruction that is afforded to students and practitioners redounds to the advantage of the community at large, which is thus provided with a more competent body of physicians. It is a recognized duty of the State to educate practitioners of medicine.

For several reasons it is likely that a hospital whose staff consists of a body of teaching men will do most in the way of research and in contributing to the advance of knowledge. The teachers are the picked men of the profession. They have the training, incentive and ability to promote investigation. Their professional advancement in every way would be favored by research. Having a good field to work in, their ambitions would be stimulated.

The outlook for the Nurses' Training School is, under the new system, very encouraging. The school has been hampered in the past by this, among other causes, that Ohio has not yet provided for registration of nurses. Until this is done, desirable candidates will seek their training in other states.

The beginning of social service work was in 1910, when William A. Kenney was appointed "to investigate admissions to the hospital." How this department has in this short time grown under Mr. Kenney's devoted care, is suggested by the following summary of his latest report:

New patients.....	612
Patients from previous year...	132
	744
Referred and sent by other social agencies	132
Investigation for financial conditions.....	114
Provided for family while patient was in Hospital.....	8
Secured admission to other hospitals.....	82
Cases deported.....	12
Homeless patients.....	41
Secured services of district nurse.....	52
Patients' follow-up treatment.....	9
Referred to other social agencies of city..	101
Secured appliances for patients—braces, etc.....	3
Secured special care in homes.....	14
Obtained admission to homes for aged....	6
" pensions for aged folk.....	2
Homes for woman with child.....	22
Obtained clothing for patients.....	34
Home investigations for placing aged, imbecile, defective, feeble minded, etc..	51
Secured change of surroundings.....	8
Aided friendless.....	4
Investigations to identify the unknown...	9
Secured legal aid.....	26
Returned to legal residence.....	14
	744

To perfect this social work, the hospital should have accommodations for convalescent patients—a few simple cottages with opportunities for recreation and light work. It should have, also, a dispensary or out-patient department.

Another need of City Hospital is increased laboratory facilities. Modern medicine does not admit of professional treatment of the sick based only upon a clinical diagnosis. A pathological or other laboratory diagnosis is absolutely essential as a basis for scientific treatment. It is proposed to establish this year in the main hospital building a central laboratory. This would be used not only for routine pathological, bacteriological and clinical laboratory work, but for scientific investigation and research. With the co-operation of the university it is hoped to provide at least working equipment.

It requires no great stroke of imagination to look ahead and see a completed University Hospital, affording great opportunities for the education of physicians and nurses; affording wonderful opportunities for scientific investigation and research, preventing disease as well as curing it; to see, first, pavilions for the sick poor, secondly, beds for people of moderate means, and, finally, private rooms which those of means may occupy and be treated by their own physicians; to see in the near future a more efficient social service department, closer co-operation with the district physicians and public health nurses; more effective co-operation with all community agencies;—in short, a great teaching hospital, serving Cleveland as a medical means to a social end.

STATE SUPERVISION OF TUBERCULOSIS SANATORIA

THE ERECTION of sanatoria all over the country bears witness to our increased knowledge of the curability of tuberculosis and also of the danger of leaving at large advanced cases of this disease to scatter infection.

There has been a generous response in a great many communities to the call for public funds for the establishment of tuberculosis hospitals, but there has also been a good deal of disappointment in the results obtained in these hospitals, which in some mysterious way seem to fail to justify the money expended on them. In a recent number of the "Modern Hospital," Dr. H. Longstreet Taylor tells why such failures occur and how they can be avoided.

Dr. Taylor is the president of the Advisory Commission of the Minnesota State Sanatorium. This body, it seems, does not concern itself only with the state sanatorium but assists with expert advice county bodies which are about to erect their own institutions, and supervises by monthly visits the conduct of all such institutions.

The commission helps select the site of a new hospital, and its plans and specifications. What is even more important, the selection of the superintendent is subject to its approval. Nor is it only an advisory body. As the state pays half the expense (up to \$5,000) of site, construction and equipment, and later pays \$5 a week for each charity case cared for, it is in a position to enforce its suggestions.

This central control makes possible a close co-ordination between county institutions, which care for the advanced cases, and the state hospital which takes only the incipient. Small county institutions are favored because the smaller the district served the easier it is for the patients' relatives to visit them, and especially this must be made as easy as possible with regard to advanced cases.

It is unnecessary to point out the advantages in efficiency and economy made possible by this system of supervision of all the sanatoria in a state by a committee of experts. In many of the smaller institutions it would be impossible to secure the services of an expert as superintendent but monthly visits by such a body as this would soon bring all the institutions up to one standard.

FOR NEGRO HEALTH

A unique pamphlet has been issued by the Tuskegee Institute. It is prepared by Monroe N. Work, editor of the Negro Year Book and relates to the conservation of negro health. Mr. Work does not overload his pages with many statistics and diamond type. Instead he has selected a few vital facts and pre-

sents them in terse form. Here is the reproduction of a page:

ARE WE CURING TUBERCULOSIS?

A searching study of the reasons for the comparative failure of our efforts to prevent and to cure tuberculosis is made by Dr. Pottenger, of Monrovia, Cal., and published in the medical journal of that state.

The solution Dr. Pottenger finds lies in the word "early." We must learn that tuberculosis is contracted early in life, from 70 to 90 per cent of the children being infected before their fifteenth year. We must learn that it is almost as vitally important to detect tuberculosis in its early stages as it is to detect cancer in the early stage. What we used to look on as an "early" tuberculosis, we now know to be "late," an extension into new tissues or a renewed activity in an old focus. We must learn that everything depends on a prompt recognition of the disease and an early treatment. Often a delay of two or three months means the difference between a hopeful case and a grave one.

Finally we must learn that the earlier the treatment is begun the shorter the time required for a cure. It is wrong however to let the victim and his family think that the time will certainly be short and that all he needs is rest, fresh air and good food. Many months may have to pass before he is safe and the care of a skilled doctor is absolutely essential.

Two important pamphlets have recently been issued by the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis. One, by Dr. Thomas Spees Carrington, discusses the construction of tuberculosis hospitals and sanatoria, and the other considers the effect upon surrounding property of tuberculosis institutions. This latter pamphlet reports earlier investigations of the effect of such institutions on the health of the neighborhood, "presents the results of a new questionnaire study and investigation of institutions in different localities, digests of typical laws governing sites of hospitals and gives opinions of boards of health and insurance companies on this matter as well as court decisions relating to the location of hospitals, dispensaries and so forth." The pamphlet emphasizes the fact that all evidence whether interested or disinterested, as in the case of court decisions, bears out the conclusion that a tuberculosis hospital is neither a menace to the health of a neighborhood nor a detriment to surrounding property.

The University of Minnesota will open this fall a school of public health under direction of the university medical department. The list of required courses already announced includes such subjects as public health laws; statistics; hygiene—personal, school and industrial; and town planning; housing; labor problems, etc. Elective courses are offered in laboratory methods, epidemiology, psychology, dairy chemistry and other subjects. The M. D. degree is to be a pre-requisite.

THE THREE GRACES OF HEALTH

PURE FOOD
PURE AIR
PURE WATER

A SUFFICIENCY OF
PURE FOOD, PURE AIR,
PURE WATER WOULD
ADD AT ONCE 10 YEARS
TO THE AVERAGE
OF NEGRO LIVES

CIVICS

THE DUBLIN CIVIC EXHIBITION—BY ANNA LOUISE STRONG

IN THE MIDST of wars and rumors of wars with almost every external handicap which circumstances could impose, the Civic Exhibition in Dublin was organized and carried to a successful conclusion. The date of opening, July 15, made it impossible to make preliminary arrangements for excursions from the north of Ireland, since no one knew what upheaval the famous 12th of July would bring.

The end of the first week of the exhibition saw a profit of \$2,500 above running expenses, with the prospect of doubling or tripling the amount for each successive week, when there came the Dublin riot, engaging the attention of all Ireland to the exclusion of everything else. Amusements of all sorts ceased, for a nation was in mourning. After a few days, the attendance at the exhibition again increased. Thousands of passengers were scheduled for almost daily excursions from all parts of Ireland. It was at this juncture that war was declared, troops mobilized, and all excursion arrangements cancelled by the railways. Even the buildings in which the exhibition was held, might, it was feared, be commandeered at a day's notice as a barracks.

In spite of this succession of discouragements, when I was hurried out of Ireland a week after the declaring of war, the exhibition was already beginning to make a daily profit. Conferences on the food-supply with authoritative representations by the Department of Agriculture were swiftly substituted for the originally planned conferences, Red Cross classes were carried on, and an enormous model of the war-area indicated the progress of the war.

It seems at present likely that the exhibition will pay for its running expenses and some of the expense of organization. The many contributors whose gifts covered the preliminary expenses of construction, will be able to point with pride to a permanent result in the reclaimed Linenhall Buildings. For years these buildings have been a dingy, unused heap of mouldering stones. Now they have been converted into an imposing combination of endless halls, rooms and corridors, which may be obtained at a nominal rent for an enormous civic museum and social center for the neighborhood, as well as an exhibition hall admirably arranged for future exhibitions.

The chief credit for the conception and execution of the exhibition must be given to the Countess of Aberdeen. She had many helpers from Ireland, Scotland, England and America, but she herself, working according to her custom from eighteen to twenty hours a day, furnished the driving force that insured success.

The Dublin Civic Exhibition presents a commingling of commercial and educational elements somewhat different from the usual exhibition in the United States. There were numerous money-making features, run in part directly and in part as concessions. These included dining-room, tea gardens, motion-picture and concert hall, American soda fountain, a ball room, and a merry-go-round.

There were also exhibits of Irish industries, brought in without apology, on the ground that industrial stimulation is the first thing needed in Ireland, before civic advance can proceed to any lengths.

The Civic Exhibition seemed to fall roughly into seven main divisions: Child welfare, town planning, Department of Agriculture and Technical Instruction, other government boards, exhibits from Irish cities, industrial exhibits, and amusements.

To these should be added a most striking food exhibit. Working-class budgets from all parts of Ireland were presented in this exhibit, red and white sticks being used to show the amount of nourishment and energy derived by those families in comparison with the amount needed for health. A most effective presentation of the food products of Ireland, covering imports, exports and home consumption, was made by means of large paste-board cubes. This exhibit proved most valuable after the declaring of war by showing the public their hopeful situation as to food production.

The child welfare exhibit was among the most popular sections, as its ideas were framed in simple language, with many living demonstrations, electrical devices and models. I went from the United States to organize it, as the Countess of Aberdeen wished to introduce the uniform size of background, the short crisp statement and the general intermingling of cartoons, models and aphorisms which have marked recent exhibit development in the United States.

The town planning section was the largest, most thorough and scholarly of all the sections. Professor Patrick Geddes of the University of Edinburgh was the organizer, not only of the town planning exhibit, but of a remarkable school of civics, which was largely attended and which dealt with the historic development of the city and its problems. The old Linenhall Buildings were also discovered by Professor Geddes on his explorations through the slums of Dublin, so that he has been, in large measure, the inspiration of the exhibition.

Plans for a "new Dublin" were hoped for as the outcome of a competition initiated by the Earl of Aberdeen, Lord Lieutenant of Ireland. He offered a prize of 500 pounds to the author of the best idea for replanning Dublin. In consequence of the war situation it has been decided to postpone the time for receiving these plans until April, 1915.

Other people imported to help with the exhibition were John Nolen of Cambridge, Mass., whom only the press of other engagements prevented from remaining as the director of the entire exhibition, and Benjamin Rastall of the Municipal Service Bureau, New York, who gave expert help in organization and administration, and was to arrange for an industrial conference to end in an industrial survey of Dublin. The war has, for the present, postponed these plans.

Especially interesting to Americans were the displays from the Land Commission and the Congested Districts Board, two government boards which have expended millions of pounds in buying up from land owners tracts of land occupied by peasant tenants, and then reselling them by instalments, often with the addition of other land to make an economic holding, to the peasant tenants.

The land question, in Ireland, with a stable agricultural population, of which generations of peasants have been at the mercy of generations of land owners, the problem has been acute. At present men who hope that in fifty annual instalments they may pay for their ten acres, so that their grandsons may own them in fee simple from the government, are stimulated to make improvements which were never made when they might lead to increased rent.



READY FOR THE KICK-OFF
Photograph by the Playground and Recreation Association of America.



FOLK DANCES
AROUND A HURDY-
GURDY IN THE
ROPED-OFF STREET
PLAY ZONE IN
FRONT OF THE
UNIVERSITY SET-
TLEMENT, NEW
YORK

PLAY ZONES IN NEW YORK STREETS—BY CARL BECK, UNIVERSITY SETTLEMENT, NEW YORK

THE RECENT ORDER of Police Commissioner Arthur Woods, closing to traffic from 3 to 6.30 p. m. one block in each of nineteen streets in congested sections of New York city in order that children may play in safety, gave joy to tens of thousands of children and relieved thousands of parents from anxiety. Moreover, it indicated a new social spirit in that department of public service which has been often criticized for lack of such spirit.

Other cities have made a success of such "play zones." The Playground Association of Chicago maintained several, securing the co-operation of the police department, providing equipment for volley ball, playground ball and other games, and placing a trained play leader in charge of each zone.

That the streets of New York are the real playgrounds for 600,000 children was brought out in a pamphlet *The City Where Crime Is Play* issued last spring by the People's Institute. The order of Commissioner Woods is a recognition of the part the police may take in crime prevention. It puts the police in the relation of "big brother" to the children in their play.

Social workers have volunteered to help administer and supervise the play zones. For the zone in front of the University Settlement, resident workers arranged an "opening day." The oldest resident, who recently served as park commissioner, provided a street organ for dancing. Another resident turned the crank. Others led the dancing and tried to supervise the crowd of children that collected.

The police commissioner's inspector of the traffic squad in charge of the street play zones was invited into conference at the settlement. It was a new kind of work for him, but he saw at once the importance of roping off an arena, and providing reliable supervision. The police department furnished six stanchions. The settlement agreed to furnish rope and supervisors. With a schedule for street-organ concerts three afternoons a week, a roped arena, and an extra policeman to help the volunteer supervisors, most of the original difficulties disappeared. While the girls danced, the

boys played basketball, goals being provided by the settlement.

When store-keepers complained about the inconveniences of closing the block to traffic, a letter from the police commissioner was shown them, appealing particularly for their co-operation. Out of twenty-eight store-keepers, twenty-five said it was a "fine thing!" Complaint came only from a junk dealer, a wagon works and a sales stable. The neighbors have organized a citizen's advisory committee, consisting of fourteen citizens, among them store-keepers, the head-nurse of the milk station and settlement workers.

In taking his progressive step, Commissioner Woods had the encouragement of the Park and Playground Association of New York city. In addition to the zone on Eldridge street, eighteen other zones are in operation, nine on the lower East Side, twelve altogether in Manhattan, two in the Bronx and five in Brooklyn. Each zone is under the voluntary supervision of a local settlement or organization of some kind.

In the case of the lower East Side, the East Side Neighborhood Association called a conference of all the managers of street play zones in that section with a view to devising practical plans for handling the children, providing play leaders and supervisors, and co-operat-

BASKETBALL IN A
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THE CITY FUR-
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ing with the Bureau of Recreation of the Department of Parks in a scheduled use among the ten play zones of the street organ which that department has loaned. Settlement residents feel that they are not equipped to assume continuous supervision of street play zones, and that eventually the responsibility of getting maximum play results from the street play zones should be that of the Bureau of Recreation of the Department of Parks.

THE BEAUFORT PLAN OF CITY MANAGEMENT

ONE OF THE oldest settlements in the South, in the conservative state of South Carolina, the town of Beaufort, believes that it has developed a scheme which may solve the problems of city government for towns of 5,000 population or less.

For large cities the commission form of government has proved successful, and for cities somewhat smaller the city manager plan is giving satisfaction. But Beaufort could not afford this plan and besides there was not need of an expert's entire time in the affairs of the city government.

So a plan was evolved of combining into one job the executive work of the municipality and the direction of the affairs of the Chamber of Commerce. The person who performs this two-fold function is to be called the city supervisor, giving half of his time to the city and half to the commercial body. His salary of \$2,400 will be paid half by the city and half by the Chamber of Commerce.

Beaufort has not, strictly speaking, a commission form of government, but its council of seven members is chosen by the people at large. The Mayor is also recorder or city magistrate and there is a city clerk, city marshal and a city health officer. The town owns its own water works and electric light plants, each under charge of a special commission.

The city supervisor will have charge of all city property and city business, subject to the advice and directions of the council. He will thus have supervision over city accounting, building and maintenance of streets, sewers and drains; planting and care of trees; disposal of garbage; building of sea-walls

and all structures; care of the guard house and public buildings and of the police, as well as other duties which the actual working out of the plan will determine. The office of mayor with a nominal salary will continue, that official presiding at meetings of the council and acting as city magistrate.

In the work of "boosting" the community, the city supervisor will be subject to the Board of Directors of the Chamber of Commerce. Among his first duties in this field will be the co-ordination of the work of the Civic League, the farm demonstration agent and the director of the tomato clubs with that of the Chamber of Commerce. He must direct his energies to include the interests of the farmers, the retail and wholesale merchants and boat owners and pilots. There will also be a traffic department to look after freight rates and transporta-

tion facilities, a publicity department to advertise the town and county and a department to place newcomers, all under the eye of the city supervisor.

The plan was first suggested by A. V. Snell, managing secretary of the Charleston Chamber of Commerce, who started the city manager plan in Sumter, S. C. He outlined it at a mass meeting arranged by the Beaufort Chamber of Commerce.

The advantages of this combining of offices are readily apparent. The city offices now become headquarters of the Chamber of Commerce, a rest room for farmers and their families while in town and an assembly room for the Chamber of Commerce. The city clerk becomes office manager for the Chamber of Commerce, and the City Hall becomes a center of more varied community activities.

NEW RECREATION CENTER

A new recreation center built by Neighborhood House of Santa Barbara, was dedicated August 11 with appropriate ceremonies and the singing of Anna Garlin Spencer's social hymn, Hail the Hero Workers of the Mighty Past, from THE SURVEY's social hymn number of January 3.

The center was built with a civic spirit which aroused the enthusiasm of the entire community. As one workman expressed it when he was lending a hand to clean up and put the chairs in place, "Working on this building wasn't like any feeling I ever had; it was like working on a home."

There were speeches by Mrs. Emmett G. Ord, secretary of Neighborhood House Association, Margaret Baylor, who has been in charge of Neighborhood House for four years, and others.

SUBMISSION

Submission? They have preached at that so long,

As though the head bowed down would right the wrong.

As though the folded hand, the coward heart

Were saintly signs of souls sublimely strong;

As though the man who acts the waiting part

And but submits, had little wings a-start.

But may I never reach that anguished plight

Where I at last grow weary of the fight.

Submission: "Wrong of course must ever be

Because it ever was. 'Tis not for me
To seek a change; to strike the maiden blow.

'Tis best to bow the head and not to see;
'Tis best to dream, that we need never know

The truth. To turn our eyes away
From woe."

Perhaps. But ah—I pray for keener sight
And may I not grow weary of the fight.

MAKING IT RIGHT

[Five hundred and seventy permits to work in stores or factories were given out by the new working paper department in the board of education building during the past week.]

Willie is little and spindle-legged and Mollie is wan and white.

And both are a little bit under age, but both are so clever and bright.

And it's foolish to send them to school, you know; the family's to feed and keep.

The prices on everything's awful high, and nothing at all is cheap.

It's hard on the working folk, you know, but the coppers have made it a crime.

If Willie and Mollie are sent to work before it is proper time.

Yes, Willie is little and spindle-legged, and Mollie is wan and white.

And both are a little bit under age, but both are so smart and bright.

And we'll take 'em to get a permit—see? And then it will be all right.

Sammie is thin and he limps a bit, and Rosie can't sleep at night,

For her cough, and they's both of them under age, but both are so clever and bright.

NEWSPAPER VERSE

By MIRIAM TEICHNER

The phrase "newspaper verse" has entered the language as a term of reproach. "Newspaper wit" is almost in the same class. Yet both may become weapons in the fight for a finer life. As writer of a column of verse and humor in the Detroit News, the author of the accompanying poems stirred many folk in that city to a clearer sense of the multiform relationships of their own lives. She is now reaching a daily audience in New York.—Ed.

And they're wild to go to the school and learn; they want to write and to read,
But it's foolish to let them waste the time when the family of nine are in need.

And if they work before their time, the coppers sure will get 'em.

But if they get a permit, why the city'll have to let 'em.

Sammie is thin and limps a bit, and Rosie can't sleep at night

For the cough, and they's both of them under age, but both are clever and bright.

So we'll take 'em to get a permit—see? And then it will be all right.

Frieda complains that her eyes are sore, and Hans says his breath feels tight.

And they's both of them little and under age, but both are so clever and bright.

And Hans wants to study the law, he says, and Frieda, she wants to teach.

But it's silly to let them waste the years, whatever their rich friends preach.

There is food to buy and clothes to buy, and the city says that it's wrong

To let them work while they're young, but the time before they'll be big is so long.

Yes, Frieda complains that her eyes are sore, and Hans says his breath is tight.

And they're both of them little and under age, but both are so clever and bright.

So we'll take 'em to get a permit—see? And then it will be all right.

Oh, pitiful Willie and Sammie and Hans, you're little and puny and white,

But all of you cost so much to keep, and you all are so clever and bright;

And there's much to buy and the price is high, and that is the only cost.

That matters much; it's a little thing if your short little youth is lost.

Oh, pitiful Mollie and Frieda and Rose, you must enter the awful mill

That will take you and break you, and quickly make you weaker and whiter still.

But all of you cost so much to keep, and you all are so clever and bright.

That all you need is the permit—see? And then it will all be right.

ROSE MAKERS

[From a liner ad in an exchange: "Work given home to good artificial rose makers."]

June—just look here!

You, who are coming so soon;

You will be jealous, I fear.

Rose-in-hand, June.

June, you, the rose-maker par excellence,
You, with rose-fingers of velvet-soft bliss,

You, in your rose-showered, rose-bowered haunts,

You, with your lips like a rose-petal kiss,

What do you think of a liner like this?

What do you think, as the spring world you roam,

Of weary young girls who take rose-making home?

"Working" at rose making? Petals of white,

Crimson and pink like the summer dawn's light;

See how their fingers are hurrying there; twining and twisting; their roses are fair,

And still—it is work. See—they finish a rose;

See how it nods there, and shimmers and glows,

Almost as fair as your own roses, June, Hundreds are finished from morning to noon.

Hundreds again, from the noon-tide till night,

Crimson and yellow and coral and white. Aye, but 'tis work. They are weary, you see.

June—you make roses with frolicking glee, June, you, the rose-maker par excellence.

You with rose-fingers of velvet-soft bliss, You in your rose-showered, rose-bowered haunts,

You with your lips like a rose-petal kiss, What do you think of a liner like this?

A LITTLE volume entitled 'Prentice Songs' by a Pittsburgher whose "prentice" social work has been in the district offices of the Associated Charities and the neighborhood around the Irene Kaufmann Settlement includes thirty-nine titles. Not a few of them are filled with healthy, boyish sentiment for college days, for the poet's mother, Latin professor etc.

It is curious how long it takes some social workers, especially the sensitive and cultured, to outgrow a kind of sentimentality in outlook; and, of course, the conventional phrase besets us all. Our critics tell us that we can not escape it by any such facile road as some imitators of Whitman travel. They find more promise in a writer like Mr. Baird, who has fed his spirit on fine things, and will in time "sing his own song instead of echoing chansons from other men's throats." Gibson and Masefield are pointing the way to sincere work which has learned all the past has to teach, and at the same time lays hold of the stirring motives in the common life.

There is a promise of social verse to come in the selections that are reproduced here, but as yet Mr. Baird shows lack of apprehension of the big motives that are stirring the Pittsburgh working life. He is at his best in the gossip of the scrub woman, but there is no Pittsburgh picture which compares for concreteness with the Bethlehem court-yard he describes in *Mused Mary in Old Age*:

"The court-yard in the flickering torch light, filled
With huddled travelers sleeping 'neath the sky,
The kneeling camels of a caravan,
The patient asses dozing by the wall,
A smell of roasting meat at little fires,
The shouts of mellow sellers, the low drone
Of reverend elders bending to their prayers,
Barking of street-dogs, porters' blasphemies,
The laughter of a girl, the mellow flute
Of some rapt lover, and the tinkling tune
Of sheep bells foldward moving through the dark."

Toils in the Dark

The morning hands have counted three,
and creep
Down the blurred dial's tarnished yellow glow,
The stars are journey-weary, and below,
The day-o'er-labored city glooms asleep.

O'er factory roof and tenements the darks
Have spread their kindly curtainings to veil
The ugly squalor, and beyond, the pale
Ghost hills are gemmed with amethystine sparks.

Only the tinnient clangor of a gong
Cleaves the thick silence, or belated feet
Re-echo on the pave, or in the street
A rumbling market wagon crawls along.

Life yields to death an hour's mastery,
Save in wealth's dim gray towers, pied with light,
Where patiently the women ply by night
Their lowly trade and unsung industry.

Verses from

'PRENTICE SONGS

By

George M. P. Baird



Gaunt, wistful women, widowed ones, old wives,
White ringless mothers, girls from oversea,
Slatterns and shrews, a span of poverty,
The nightly scavengers of human hives.

Back-breaking lot is theirs to scrub till day
In silent office cell and echoing hall,
Where their lax footsteps like a menace fall
And down the tomb-white galleries die away.

All through the dark, toil these who cannot find—
In life's stern struggle—bread beneath the sun,
From menial night a poor dole must be won
By these to whom the broad day is unkind.

Ignorant, cheerful, unhorizoned, brave
To strive for one close little room called home,
For child or sickman or old mother lone,
Or burial surance gainst a potter's grave.

Work brings its social joys, they meet at three—
Much as their wealth-born, leisure sisters do—
Open their meagre luncheon stores and brew,
Above the mop-room jet, their gossips' tea.

Their talk is commonplace, loquacious, crude,
With, "I said this," and, "She said that to me,"

Slang troped with picturesque redundancy,
The news and scandal of the neighborhood.

Sordid details of bargaining and debt,—
The rents grow higher, will they never stop?
This one has found a cheaper butcher's shop;
Young Aggie's fellow won a boxing bet.

Spring Alley had a wedding yesterday
And kept a party, 'twas a grand event:
Drunk Dugan cursed his dying sacrament
And blessed ground's forbidden to his clay.

How someone's mister's breaking work-house stone—
He left her just before their seventh came;
How next door Mary took her recent shame,
Refused Bill's name and gave the child her own.

Its rumored that two rival charities
Are planning Christmas baskets for the poor,
And—if one only knows the ropes—one's sure
To win a dole from both philanthropies.

Jim Shannon's home again, he's been away
Tramping the road since last year's panic came,
He has consumption, and the doctors claim
One lung's gone and he hasn't long to stay.

Thus on a hundred humble themes they play
While the half-hour lasts, then back, to work
Till the new light wans purple through the murk,
And the laborious night gives place to day.

Time by the lowest margin metes our age,
Not by our boasted wealth shall History judge,
But by the wrongs of such as these, who drudge
Birth-bound to want and hopeless heritage.

What though we rear proud towers with golden walls,
What though we rend the treasured earth for spoils
The just years will remember but the toils
And impotent bondage of our humble thralls.

A Prayer

O give us strength to face our day
With courage, as Thy sons of old,
To lift our voice in prophecies
Against the gods of stone and gold;
Give us to see and understand
The heart of man and to forgive,
Give us the faith to touch Thy hand,
Teach us, O gentle Lord, to live.

Amen.

Unconquered Sonnet

A brave song for the unfulfilled,
The hope undaunted striving on
Though youth and power and joy be gone,
The broken life that dares to build
Upon its ruins, the soul filled
With valiant discontent, the wan
Night-watcher faithful to the dawn
The heart no fate or fear hath stilled;

Where the black city's greed hath drawn
Its squalid cordon, Faith still sings
On Patmos still, some later John—
Sees visioned truths of higher things,
Still 'mid the toilers bravely on
March humble prophets, captains, kings.

To the Mother Land

I saw a gaunt grey woman—
When the weary sun was falling—
Yokefellow to an ox,
Dragging home the plow,
While her idle sons
Lolled in the dooryard calling
"Give us food and drink", and O
Mother, it was thou.

I saw a fisher's widow—
When the grey surf was breaking—
Beating in across the shoals
Where death tugged at the bow,
While her shore-safe sons
Paused in merry making,
Crying: "Share thy catch", and O
Mother, it was thou.

I saw a beggar wife—
Through the road dust toiling—
Sorrow in her tired eyes,
Pain upon her brow,
While her sluggard sons at home,
Eager for the spoiling,
Whined: "Part us thine alms", and O
Mother, it was thou.

Communications

The latch-string of the Communications Department is out to all readers of THE SURVEY. Lively debate and good cheer are to be had within. But the space available for the department makes necessary the following house rules:

1. Communications of 250 words or less, criticising, protesting against, or developing something published in THE SURVEY, will be published, so far as possible, in the first issue after receipt.
2. All other accepted communications will be published in the order received, if space remains after the letters described in paragraph 1 have been used.
3. The maximum length of communications is 500 words, except in cases where the writer convinces the Editor that more is needed. The extreme limit is 1,000 words.
4. Contributing Editors and authors of signed articles will be given an opportunity for rejoinder in the same issue in which letters of criticism are published.
5. In discussions back and forth between readers, each succeeding letter is limited to half the length of the previous one from the same contributor.
6. The Editor reserves the right to reject letters which he regards as libelous, letters of spite, letters on subjects outside the field of THE SURVEY; and for other good and sufficient reasons which he would be prepared to defend.

NEGRO BOYS MAKE GOOD

TO THE EDITOR: Five years ago T. C. Walker, a Negro lawyer of Virginia, induced a judge to suspend sentence on a Negro boy about to be sent to prison, and to give the lawyer charge of him. The judge warned the lawyer that the prisoner was "a tough case." But treated with kindness and given the first real chance of his life, the boy made good.

The lawyer, who had accumulated an independence, decided to give part of his time and means to the reformation of other such boys. The first year he spent \$150 in traveling expenses, beside caring for the boys in his own home until he could get them adopted in families of the right type.

He interested Dr. Mastin, state superintendent of charities and correction; and Dr. Mastin interested Governor Mann. The legislature gave Dr. Mastin authority to take from prison all Negro boys of fifteen years or under; and he has been turning them over to this lawyer ever since. In three years, Dr. Mastin tells me, 150 boys have been placed out, and 143 of them are making good. The lawyer's traveling expenses are now paid by the state, but he gives his time and services. He tells me he has more good homes open than he has boys to put in them—a fact which witnesses strongly to the social vision of the better class of Negroes in Virginia.

The Negro club women of the same state have recently paid \$5,000 cash for a farm for delinquent Negro girls. The state has appropriated \$6,000 for the first building, a dormitory for 20 inmates; and two white women of Vir-

ginia have given each \$1,000 toward it. The institution is to be on the cottage plan, and is to be managed by the club women.

Kentucky has for some years appropriated three or four thousand dollars a year for placing Negro waifs and delinquents in good Negro homes, and for supervising their care. The work was begun by Negroes, but now state aid is regularly given under a board of white trustees.

The remarkable reformatory work done among young Negroes by Sam Davis, an Alabama Negro, was noticed at length in the Birmingham number of THE SURVEY. No state aid has ever been given this enterprise, which I am told reforms 95 per cent of its boys.

In Augusta, Ga., a Negro, Paul Moss, sold his home and his shop six years ago, and bought a few acres on the edge of town, where he has taken and cared for, at his own charges, about 180 waifs and delinquents. 160 of these have been placed out, and 150 of them are making good. So far he has been unable to get them adopted. Most of them are taken by white people, who support and clothe them, and send them to school, in return for chores. Most of Paul's help comes from his own two hands; and just now his house having burned and the insurance money having disappeared in a bank failure, he and his twenty boys are in a bitter case.

But this unaided work, Sam Davis's in Alabama, and the two cases cited of enlightened state co-operation with Negro effort, show conclusively that good citizens may be made of budding Negro criminals by just those methods which accomplish that result among whites.

Do these facts indicate racial criminality, or the common human result, in any and all races, of neglected childhood? And are prisons and courts as desirable, or as cheap, for us of the South, or for any people, as wholesome conditions and development for the children of the poor whether white or black?

L. H. HAMMOND.

Augusta, Ga.

POLISH SOCIAL WORKERS

TO THE EDITOR: The Polish Social Workers' Club was organized last November. Since then it has grown in membership as well as in the scope of its work.

The aims of the club are: To acquaint itself with the various phases of social work; to assist each other whenever possible, to win the confidence, moral support, and co-operation of the Polish people in social work and to correct mistaken views and clear away misunderstandings concerning social work among the Poles. To accomplish this the club has used the Polish language at its meetings which have been held successively at the various Polish institutions; it has invited prominent social workers to address its members; it has published the proceedings of its meetings as well as special articles on social work in the Polish daily newspapers and it has co-operated with the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute and other organizations in their work in Polish neighborhoods.

The club has a committee for the distribution of Polish books and magazines among the inmates of charitable institutions where there are no books for the use of those unable to read English. The club also plans to arouse a greater interest in social conditions among the Poles by providing speakers on the different phases of social betterment at the patriotic celebrations held periodically to commemorate different events of Polish history.

We are anxious to get in touch with Polish social workers in other cities.

THADDEUS SLESZYNSKI.

[Polish Social Workers' Club, 2026 Haddon ave.]

Chicago.

SEX HYGIENE

TO THE EDITOR: A writer from Boston writing in your magazine some time ago upon the sacredness of sex hygiene [January 10], stated: "The evil is upon us; it flourisheth like a bay tree; religion and the churches have done nothing for us, what shall we do? It is sadly true that the churches and religions of today cannot refute this charge." Without a doubt this is to a certain extent true, but yet it is too sweeping to say that the churches have done nothing, for who could or dare imagine the state of affairs if the influence of the church were entirely eliminated?

The churches must admit, however, that they are not doing what should be done, and that they are yet helplessly gazing on, endeavoring, as do those outside the church, to place the blame at the threshold of others.

To deal with this problem and to better conditions, the churches would have to do exactly what any other guiding influence must do to be effective—recognize the extreme folly of silence and prudery, and endeavor by education and admonition to remove the results of ignorance and perverted ideas in regard to sex.

To do this the churches have two problems to solve, the greater of which is that of trying to get hold of and keep the boys of adolescent and pre-adolescent years. And it is at this most impressionable and crucial time in their lives that the influence and teaching of high ideals of the church and home should be applied and felt in their lives. But such is not the case under the present conditions.

The churches, too, must face the storm of opposition against instruction in regard to sex as do the medical profession, the press, school officials and individuals who have realized the tragedy of silence. In spite of their convictions in the matter, the churches have not dared even as much as these to give such instruction within their portals in the face of an age-long prejudice.

The writer also stated that such blame could not be laid to the churches of earlier times. In view of what I have just said with reference to the churches' position in the matter, I think this can be plainly shown to be due largely to the changed environment and home life in which the lad of today finds himself. The modern conveniences and rush of our twentieth century home life, have separated the heretofore indispensable boy from his domestic duties. No longer does the boy need to stay near his mother to cut and carry wood, or to run errands. Today, the boy—a bundle of possibilities for good or for evil—must get his enjoyment, his pastimes, his counsel and his youthful impressions on the street, in the playground or the school yard.

Such remarks as: "If I had only known," "Why is it wrong?" which I have heard, and the results that I have seen have awakened me to the enormous value of prevention over cure in this matter and also of the seriousness of shifting responsibility in the administration of the preventative education. What better place to begin than in the school, where the danger of playing with fire can be taught before a lasting scar is received?

L. RAY OGDEN.

Oakland, California.

SAID OF THE SURVEY

TO THE EDITOR: I herewith enclose my check for the renewal of my subscription to THE SURVEY which has become almost as much a necessity for me as food and shelter. It has always been good, I think, but is greatly improved of late. Personally I owe a great deal to THE SURVEY as a factor in bringing about a gradual but complete change of attitude on my part toward all that pertains to the "common welfare."

VIDA F. MOORE.

[Women's League for Good Government.]

Elmira, N. Y.

JOTTINGS

TAKE-IT-BACK DAY

Recognizing a shortcoming common to all humanity, the little town of Carmen, Okla., has assumed some responsibility for the frailty of its citizens. A "Take-it-back Day" has been inaugurated, the worthy purpose of which is the return of every article borrowed during the past year—umbrellas not excepted. It is reported from Carmen that a number of persons who harbored grudges took advantage of the good feeling prevalent on "Take-it-back Day," and "made up."

FOR DELINQUENT BOYS

The Brooklyn Disiplinary Training School, the only city institution which provides for delinquent children, all the others being private, has been discontinued. The reason for this action is that since its beginning the school has been inadequately housed in a building far from modern and has always been hampered in its work for lack of facilities. It is planned to have the State Training School at Yorktown Heights (not yet in operation) take some of the boys and the rest will fall to private institutions.

The many friends of the Brooklyn School, however, insist that there is need of such a school to fill the gap between probation and long-term institutions. The matter is now before the Social Welfare Committee of the Board of Estimate and Apportionment.

THE PRISON COUNCIL

The National Committee on Prisons and Prison Labor indicates the broader activities which the National Committee on Prison Labor has assumed along with its new name. At the third annual meeting, held in June at Ardsley, N. Y., an executive committee was formed from experienced representatives in every state, to determine the policies of the committee and its course of action in the different states. Sub-committees were elected to cover special fields, the whole forming a council of management with Adolph Lewisohn, chairman, and E. Stagg Whitin, secretary.

The committees are:

The Committee on Federal Prisons, George Gordon Battle, chairman; Legal Committee, Prof. George W. Kirchwey, chairman; Committee on Social Hygiene, James Bronson Reynolds, chairman; Committee on Organized Labor, Collis Lovely, chairman; Committee on Honor Men, Charles Henry Davis, chairman; Educational Committee, Mrs. John H. Flagler, chairman; and Jail Committee, Hastings H. Hart, chairman.

The executive offices of the committee are at Columbia University, through the courtesy of the president and officers of the university, and are under the direction of Julia K. Jaffray and Joseph D. Sears.



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Classified Advertisements

HELP WANTED

WANTED—October 1, young college woman as resident in a settlement house in large eastern city. Some experience preferred, but not required. Address 2010, SURVEY.

SOCIAL Service Nurse with experience in Mental Hygiene and Psychopathic Work. Address Free Synagogue, 36 West 68th Street, New York City.

SITUATIONS WANTED

YOUNG MAN experienced in Boy Work wants to find place where he can invest his life in a work for the boys of an orphan's home where character-building is the supreme thing. Address 1299, SURVEY.

JEWISH social worker, 5 years' experience in settlement, day nursery and orphanage work, desires change. References. Address 2009, SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED housekeeper wishes position in hotel or institution. References. Address 2011, SURVEY.

EXPERIENCED matron desires position in Children's Home. State particulars. Address 2012, SURVEY.

THE NEW YORK CHRISTIAN HOME for Intemperate Men—"Chester Crest" Mount Vernon, has accommodations for rich and poor men. More than ten thousand have been welcomed. Tel. 248, George S. Avery, Mgr.

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THE SAILING OF THE "RED CROSS"

The United States sends to the warring nations of Europe its first ship fitted for Red Cross service



THE THREE YEAR TRUCE for COLORADO

Walter E. Weyl compares President Wilson's proposal with Roosevelt's anthracite coal strike intervention

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New York

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WESTERN OFFICE

116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 25

Contents

September 19, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

AMERICA'S RELIEF SHIP TO EUROPE	605
ENGLISH TOWN PLANNING EXPERT FOR CANADA	606
PROGRESS OF THE FEDERAL CHILD LABOR BILL	606
THE PAGEANT OF CAPE COD	607
THREE YEARS' TRUCE FOR THE COLORADO COAL STRIKE, By Walter E. Weyl	608

TO THE RED CROSS RELIEF SHIP, a Poem, Anna P. L. Field, in the New York Evening Post	605
---	-----

INDUSTRY

OLD AND NEW LABOR PROBLEMS IN CALIFORNIA	John A. Fitch	609
TWO LETTERS EXCHANGED BETWEEN A WOMAN INVESTOR AND THE PRESIDENT OF A PUBLIC SERVICE CORPORATION		611
THE PASSING OF THE PROTÉGÉ	Nina Bull	613

EDUCATION

THE UNIVERSITIES AND TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE	Edward A. Fitzpatrick	614
--	---------------------------------	-----

SOCIAL AGENCIES

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS FOR THE POOR IN PEKING	Ernest T. Shaw	616
CHELSEA AT WORK ON ITS OWN CIVIC PROBLEMS		618
READ-AS-YOU-RUN ADVERTISING FOR SOCIAL AGENCIES	Carl Beck	618
TRAINING FOR MEDICAL SOCIAL SERVICE		619
THE STUDY OF MENTAL DEFICIENTS IN NEW YORK STATE		619

COMMUNICATIONS		620
--------------------------	--	-----

JOTTINGS		621
--------------------	--	-----

CALENDAR OF CONFERENCES		622
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Price

Single copies of this issue ten cents. Co-operating subscriptions \$10 a year. Regular subscriptions \$3 a year. Foreign postage \$1 extra. Canadian 75 cents.

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ENTERED AT THE POST OFFICE, NEW YORK, AS SECOND CLASS MATTER

A LAST CHANCE OFFER

Our readers, believing with us that THE SURVEY is more than just another magazine, have always been partners in this co-operative, non-commercial, educational venture.

Because THE SURVEY is an aggressive warrior in the fight for the common welfare, our subscribers have helped mightily to increase our circulation and influence.

During the balance of September, in order to close our fiscal year with a rush, we offer to our readers a still better chance to introduce THE SURVEY to the greatest number of their friends at a modest cost.

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The GIST of IT—

PRESIDENT WILSON'S proposed three years' truce for the Colorado coal strike grants no recognition to the union, nor does it grant the claim of the operators "to run their own business." Walter E. Weyl compares it with Roosevelt's intervention in the Pennsylvania anthracite coal strike of 1902 and says: "What was then a bold, almost a revolutionary, step now seems a reasonable proposal, shocking to no one and approved even by conservatives." Page 608.

THE war caused the postponement of the Canadian Conference of Charities and Correction which was to have been held this week in Toronto.

WITH experience ranging from Dr. Grenfell's Labrador work to the tenements of America's great cities, 125 Red Cross nurses, with 30 surgeons and a cargo of hospital supplies, sailed for war stricken Europe on the "Red Cross." Page 605.

HOW employers "put the screws" on a California editor whom they considered too favorable to labor unions was told in the editor's testimony before the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations. Unfair boycotts and other "tyrannies" by the unions were charged. Testimony was also heard concerning the Wheatland riot and subsequent developments. Page 609.

UNIVERSITY students gain practical experience in geological surveys and at agricultural experiment stations—why not also in the affairs of government as a training for public service? Page 614.

THE Massachusetts Peace Society, 31 Beacon St., Boston, and the Massachusetts Women Progressives, 287 Washington St., Boston, are selling "peace petition post cards"—25 cents a hundred, the money to go to the Red Cross. They are the latest development from the suggestions of Mrs. Elizabeth Tilton, reported in THE SURVEY for last week, urging a publicity campaign against militarism. The post cards are addressed to President Wilson and on the back is a petition protesting against war and calling upon the government "to work with all governments for world-wide disarmament and arbitration," with a place for signature underneath.

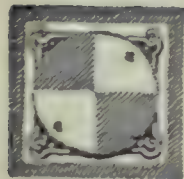
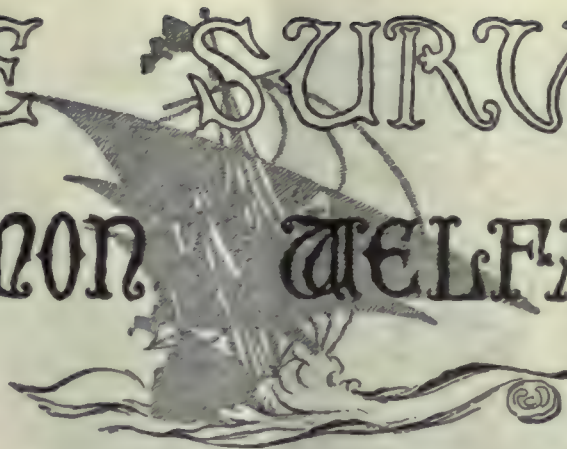
A ten day survey of public institutions in Peking disclosed miserable poor-houses, but good orphanages and the beginnings of a scientific hospital system. Page 616.

FAVORABLE report by unanimous action of the committee on labor has pushed the federal child labor bill a step further on its way toward passage in the House. A supplementary report urging the constitutionality and necessity of the bill is to be made by the chairman of the committee. Page 606.

A woman investor, who came to feel that dividends were the unpaid wages of other women's sons and daughters, wrote to the president of a corporation. Her letter and his reply discuss the ethics of the matter. Page 611.

THE SURVEY

COMMON WELFARE



AMERICA'S RELIEF SHIP TO EUROPE

WITH A GREAT red cross on each funnel and a broad band of red around her glistening white hull, the good ship Red Cross swung clear of her dock in East River on Labor Day. Saluted by every steamer along her route, she steamed up the Hudson and anchored off Riverside Drive. Viewed by thousands and identified at night to shore watchers by a brilliant electric lighted red cross, she deferred her departure for war-stricken Europe only long enough to secure a crew made up wholly of Americans, just as she had already taken on hospital units composed exclusively of American-born doctors and nurses.

This is the first ship ever sent from the United States on a Red Cross mission. On board are thirty physicians and 125 nurses. At their head is Major Patterson, U. S. Army Medical Corps. Of the doctors themselves, seven came from the surgical staff of Johns Hopkins Hospital; New York hospitals furnished four; three came from teaching and medical directorships, and the others from practice in eleven different states: Tennessee, Maryland, New York, District of Columbia, New Jersey, Ohio, Pennsylvania, Indiana, Maine, Missouri, Massachusetts. One of them, Dr. Ryan, has just returned from a Red Cross mission in Mexico.

Three doctors will be in each "hospital unit," with twelve nurses. There will be ten such units. Five extra nurses are being taken to fill vacancies caused by accident or sickness, remaining in reserve until needed. The present plans are that "a double unit will be landed at Falmouth, England, for use by the English medical au-

thorities, and the double unit assigned to Russia will also land at Falmouth and proceed to their destination by way of Copenhagen. A third double unit will be landed at Havre for the French; and double units for service with the German and Austrian armies will be landed at Rotterdam, in Holland."

The nurses are all graduates of training schools. Their superintendent is Helen Scott Hay and her assistants are Misses Hertsler and Bowman.

In the selection of these women preference was given when possible to those who had special operating-room experience or experience as public health nurses. The personnel includes superintendents of nurses in large and well-known institutions; heads of visiting nurses' associations; chiefs of operating-rooms; instructors in nurses training schools; anaesthetists; hospital social service workers, and members of the Army Nurse Corps. Miss Gladwin, who will supervise the group sailing on another vessel for Serbia, served as Red Cross nurse during the Spanish-American war, both in hospitals and on transports; during the Russo-Japanese war, she was stationed at the Hiroshima Base Hospital; and she was in full charge of

the nursing work during the Ohio floods.

Another nurse, Miss Bentley, sails under leave of absence from the Cleveland Hardware Company, of whose social service department she has for some time had charge. Miss Keil, formerly of St. Luke's Hospital, New York, was for several years with Dr. Grenfell in his work in Labrador.

Nor is the spirit of readiness among nurses alone. The families who have the harder task of staying behind are showing the same high-spirited devotion. "I shall miss her, of course," said one mother who came to see her daughter off. "But she has grown up in the idea of service; her father was a physician; I am proud to have her go."

The Red Cross expedition will fully exercise the best skill of every surgical nurse. And doubtless there will be plenty of use for the resourcefulness of those with experience in public health work. The knack of turning ironing-boards into operating tables and dish-pans into sterilizing bowls in the clutter of city tenements will prove valuable when it comes to making farm houses serve as field hospitals, changing railroad stations into operating rooms and devising equipment out of whatever happens to be at hand.

According to official statements, the hold of the ship contains eight complete surgical equipments, each consisting of at least eight cases of surgical instruments and appliances. Also "between 300,000 and 400,000 pounds of absorbent and non-absorbent cotton, more than 200,000 metres of gauze, more than 50,000 metres of starched gauze for splints, 15,000 pounds of bandages, 30 gallons of iodine, 2,000 cans of ether, 2,000 cans of chloroform, 48 dozen pairs of rubber gloves, and thousands of liga-

To the Red Cross Relief Ship

ANNE P. L. FIELD, in the New York Evening Post

O SHIP of Solace putting out to sea
With the compassion of a nation's heart
Thy precious freight! Bound for that distant part
Of this strange warring world, whose destiny
God alone knows! Thy lot it is to be
Our healing messenger, tracing thy chart
With the calm courage born of perfect art—
O Ship of Solace, we have faith in thee!

Go thou from these serene blue-girdled shores
And plunge thy cleansing prow in bloody tides!
Sweep onward through the blackness—through the roars
Of belching cannon! Go where'er grief guides!
Long as a plank shall last, pursue thy way—
For Love shall be crowned conqueror some day!



AMERICAN DOCTORS AND NURSES ON THE "RED CROSS"

The doctors all wear khaki and army hats. The nurses embarked in full Red Cross uniform. A number had above their Red Cross badges the gold bar which indicates previous experience in "fire and flood and tornado."

tures. These supplies were repacked in a warehouse before they were placed aboard, in order that they may be apportioned properly to the countries to which they are to be distributed."

Calls for assistance have come from practically every country.

"The Greeks asked for nurses and surgeons, and said they would pay for them," writes Miss Boardman. "We answered that we would pay all we could send. Turkey wants 100 cots, in addition to nurses and surgeons. We shall endeavor to meet all demands upon us as rapidly as possible. So you see there is going to be plenty of work in the way of organizing relief forces for us who stay in this country. As matters stand, we are embarrassed with volunteers. There is no difficulty about finding people ready to go."

One example of this readiness is that of the two nurses of the Boston group who were in Canada for a vacation when the call came for volunteers. They telegraphed their applications and returned at once. Another nurse, also on vacation, had to drive seventeen miles for her examination and twenty more to the train. Two in Seattle came as far as Chicago at their own expense, taking the chance of passing the examination, and being accepted.

At the last moment it was discovered that there were members of the crew who had as yet only their first naturalization papers, and thus could not be considered as American citizens and therefore could not sail on the ship because of the neutrality laws. The British and French consuls protested against the presence of Germans in the crew. The ship is loaned to the Red Cross by the Hamburg-American Line.

The Seamen's Church Institute and the Seamen's Christian Association helped to secure a crew not only American in nationality but experienced in sea-

faring, so that conditions of safety as well as neutrality may be observed.

The Red Cross officials mention gratefully the special co-operation of the New York Board of Health. Dr. Goldwater arranged for the physical examinations of those going from New York city, and for their immunity treatment for typhoid and small-pox. The five nurses who go from positions on the Board of Health have been assured of reinstatement on their return.

ENGLISH TOWN PLANNING EXPERT FOR CANADA

IMPORTANT NEWS has just reached American housing workers and city planners. Thomas Adams of the English Local Government Board has resigned his position in England to accept that of town planning adviser to the Canadian Commission of Conservation.

Mr. Adams has had direct charge of the practical work done under the provisions of the British housing and town planning act of 1909, and has guided such developments as that of Ruislip, which greatly impressed the members of the National Housing Association who visited it last July. This work has shown that the dreams of the reformers can be realized not only in occasional garden cities and suburbs, but throughout the country.

His success in England has given Mr. Adams an international reputation that led to his being twice called to America to address meetings of the National City Planning Conference. The first visit was in 1911 as a guest of the City Planning Conference in Philadelphia. Last spring he returned to take part in the conference at Toronto. While in Canada he gave the authorities his assistance in drafting housing and city planning legislation, and it is probably in recognition of this assistance that he has been called to Canada.

PROGRESS OF THE FEDERAL CHILD LABOR BILL

IN THE MIDST of the distractions of the European war, the unanimously favorable report of the Palmer child labor bill by the Committee on Labor of the U. S. House of Representatives was made almost without notice. A supplementary report, arguing for the constitutionality of the bill as well as for its necessity, if child labor is to be abolished in America, will be made at an early date by Representative David Lewis, of Maryland, chairman of the committee.

The House committee retained the standards which had been suggested by the National Child Labor Committee: namely, a sixteen-year age limit for the employment of children in mines, a fourteen-year age limit in factories, and a sixteen-year age limit for the employment of children at night or for more than eight hours a day. The committee redrafted the bill to make it conform to the principles of the convict labor bill which has already passed the House and has been favorably reported on by the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce.

Instead of prohibiting any mine or manufacturing establishment, employing children in violation of these age standards, from shipping in interstate commerce any articles mined or manufactured, the first section of the redrafted bill prohibits the shipping or offering for shipment in interstate commerce of the products of any mine or factory in whose production or manufacture, in whole or in part, the labor of children is involved. It was believed by members of the committee that this would render the bill less open to constitutional objection, though perhaps making it a little more difficult of enforcement.

The phrase, "in whole or in part," is a comprehensive one, and makes the bill practically "air-tight," as the expression goes at the Capitol. For instance, a trapper boy in a mine, whose work is merely opening and shutting a door, would nevertheless be contributing to the production of coal; so would a sweeper boy or doffer boy in a cotton mill.

The friendly attitude of representatives from all parts of the country augurs the passage of the bill by a large majority whenever the measure is taken up on the floor, although this will probably not be until the December session of Congress.

The list of the men who already have announced themselves in favor of the bill includes Democrats, Progressives and Republicans. It is the plan of those interested in the bill to have a hearing before the Senate Committee on Interstate Commerce early in the December session. The action of this committee in reporting favorably the convict labor bill is regarded as an indication that it will similarly favor the Palmer-Owen child labor measure.



THE FORMATION OF THE CAPE

This dance symbolized the rise of the cape from the ocean. One large group swept forward, representing the waves of the ocean; another group came from the opposite direction, representing the waves of the bay. In tidal motion these surged toward each other repeatedly. Each time as they receded there were left behind groups representing the sand, gradually stretching out in the shape of Cape Cod. The color scheme of the costumes helped to give the effect of blue waves and sand.



The Pageant of Cape Cod

THE PAGEANT OF CAPE COD



On the Banks of the Canal
August 15-17-18-19 at 3 P.M.

THE completion of the Cape Cod canal was the occasion of a pageant designed to promote a united community spirit among the towns and villages of the cape. The four performances on August 15, 17, 18 and 19 were held on the banks of the canal at Bourne, the people taking part coming from towns fifty miles in one direction and thirty miles in the other. Harwich, Hyannis, Sandwich, Sagamore, Sagamore Beach, Bourne, Falmouth, Buzzards Bay, Wareham and Fairhaven were among the towns which took part.

William Chauncey Langdon was master of the pageant. Special co-operation came from the Massachusetts Agricultural College and Professors E. L. Morgan and R. H. Ferguson assisted by lecturing and conducting conferences in the cape towns on community planning and co-operative marketing.

The music was composed by Daniel Gregory Mason and the orchestra conducted by Brookes C. Peters. In the costuming, effects expressive of the elemental factors of cape life were attained by Marion Langdon through the use of double and triple overlays of textiles with special reference to their motion in sunlight.

For the dances or symbolic scenes with large rhythmic motion by masses of young people and children, Paula A. Matzner conducted rehearsals in five towns, and at the end brought together more than two hundred participants.

There was also a "director of co-operation," Lotta A. Clark of Boston, whose work was to arouse enthusiasm in the different towns and to guide the co-ordination of the various neighborhood talents into a comprehensive whole.



THE SPIRIT OF THE OCEAN

Posed by Paula A. Matzner who organized the dances for the Pageant of Cape Cod

The Provincetown sea captain who posed for the poster of the Pageant of Cape Cod has a record of having saved seven lives from a wrecked vessel in one November storm.

Thus not only was art recognized as a civic force but in turn civic and social co-operation was recognized as an art with the drama, music, and the dance.

The episodes of the pageant began with the formation of the cape shown by a symbolic dance; the arrival of Bartholomew Gosnold, 1602, the Pilgrims on the Cape, 1620, and later the early Quakers, 1657; Strangers and Pirates in the Offing, 1717, the Barnstable County Court, 1774; the Bombardment of Falmouth, 1814; the Commerce of the Seas, 1847; the War of the North and South, 1864, and the Contented Life, 1890-1900. Then came an episode of prophecy: The New Cape, 1914-1920, followed by a final scene symbolic of America's glory.

There was underlying truth in the pageant, based upon the part the ocean played in making the cape in early geological times and later its part in molding the character of the people.

The unfolding of the story set forth the development of the cape's land activities—the newer agriculture and business out of the older water occupations, fishing and commerce.

The new Cape Cod Board of Trade took the initiative in organizing the pageant and it is felt that much was accomplished to bring the cape towns into closer co-operation.

President Wilson's Plan for Peace in Colorado

Whereas, the industrial conflict in the coal mining fields of Colorado has disrupted the peace of those sections of the state to the extent that a state of war has practically existed for some time, and

Whereas, a temporary peace is maintained by the presence of the federal troops:

Therefore, there should be established a three-year truce subject to:

1. The enforcement of mining and labor laws of the state;
 2. That all striking miners who have not been found guilty of violation of the law shall be given employment by the employer they formerly worked for, and where the place of the employee has been filled he shall be given employment as a miner at the same or other mines of the company.
 3. Intimidation of union or non-union men strictly prohibited.
 4. Current scale of wages, rules and regulations for each mine to be printed and posted.
 5. Each mine to have a grievance committee to be selected by majority ballot at a meeting called for the purpose, in which all employees (except officials of the company) have the right to participate. Members of said committee must be employed at least six months at the individual mine before being eligible. Married men to be in the majority on each committee.
- Grievances to be first taken up individually with the proper officer of the company. Failing adjustment, they can refer to the local grievance committee for further consideration with the mine officials. Still failing adjustment the matter shall be submitted to a commission composed of three men, to be appointed by the President of the United States, and which shall be representative of each side, with the third member to act as umpire whenever necessary. This commission shall, during the three

years of truce, serve as adjusters or referees in all disputes (whether individual or collective) affecting wages, working and social conditions. Said commission shall devote primarily all the necessary time to the consideration and adjustment of such disputes.

6. It is understood as a condition of the creation of said commission that during the life of the truce

(a) The claim for contractual relations is to be waived, but this shall not prevent the voluntary agreement between any employer and their employees during the life of this truce.

(b) No mine guards to be employed, but this does not preclude the employment of necessary watchmen.

(c) In the establishment of the truce the presence of the federal or state troops should become unnecessary.

(d) There shall be no picketing, parading, colonizing or mass campaigning by representatives of labor organizations of miners that are parties to this truce which will interfere with the working operations of any mine during the said period of three years.

(e) During said truce the decisions of the commission in cases submitted shall be final and binding on employers and employees.

(f) There shall be no suspension of work pending the investigation and reaching a decision on any dispute.

(g) The suspension of a mine over six consecutive days by the company may be authorized for cause satisfactory to the commission, but not pending any dispute.

(h) Willful violations of any of these conditions will be subject to such penalties as may be imposed by the commission.

On account of the mutual benefits derived from the truce the employers and employees should each pay one-half of the expenses of the commission.

THREE YEARS' TRUCE FOR THE COLORADO COAL STRIKE—BY WALTER E. WEYL

THE PROPOSAL by President Wilson of a three years' truce in the tangled Colorado strike situation inevitably suggests comparison with the intervention by President Roosevelt in the anthracite coal strike of 1902. In both cases the conflict was held to be of supreme public interest, involving issues far wider than those immediately raised by the strike. In both cases the solution or attempted solution came from the national, not from the state government. In both cases a direct recognition of the union was withheld, and the supreme decision in labor disputes was vested in an impartial tribunal, controlled in final analysis by representatives of the federal government.

The contrast between the two solutions is equally obvious, the difference arising out of a difference in conditions. Since 1902 much water has run under the bridge. What was then a bold, almost a revolutionary, step now seems a reasonable proposal, shocking no one and approved even by conservatives. Then no state of real war existed and no federal troops stood on guard at the mines, protecting mine workers from armed strikers and strikers from armed mine-guards and militia.

The overwhelming interest of the public in 1902 arose from fear of a coal famine; the intervention of 1914 was seemingly motivated by the necessity for preserving peace during a period of trouble at home and calamity abroad.

"This is a time," so runs the President's grave message, "when everything should be done that it is possible for men to do to see that all untoward and threatening circumstances of every sort are taken out of the life of the people of the United States."

It is difficult, if not impossible, to judge in advance of the workings of the "tentative" scheme proposed by the President. Everything depends upon the spirit in which the agreement is interpreted. Everything depends upon the character and motives of the men to whom will be entrusted the supreme government of this great industry. No one can read the adjustment plan without realizing how wide is the discretion vested in the President's commission.

The union is not granted recognition; "the claim for contractual relations is to be waived"; there is to be no strike, "no picketing, parading, colonizing or mass campaigns . . . during the said period of three years." The surrender of the union's right to regulate conditions could go no further.

On the other hand, the claim of the great coal operators "to run their own business" is equally disregarded. They must obey the laws of the state; they must reinstate striking miners not actually found guilty of a violation of the law; they must meet grievance committees, must refrain from raising irregular levies of mine-guards, and must under "such penalties as may be

imposed by the commission" abide by the commission's decisions in all cases regularly submitted.

The employers are forbidden to "intimidate" union men, by which doubtless all manner of discrimination is intended, and they are equally forbidden to suspend work in their mines over a period of more than six days without showing cause and being duly authorized by the commission.

The admirable intent of the President reveals itself in every line of this memorable document, and the nation hopes that he may succeed in his efforts to end the tragedy of Colorado and bring lasting peace with justice. Whether he will succeed, however, once the proposal is accepted (if it ever is accepted) will depend, as we have said before, upon whether the compact is interpreted by sociologists steeped in the spirit of our modern times and versed in the history of collective bargaining or by beclouded though doubtless well-meaning jurists and lawyer-politicians.

In the first place, the tentative agreement, though it contains many dubious clauses, may mean an education of operators and men and the laying of foundations for an eventual trade agreement between parties respecting each other. In the second case it will mean a gradual undermining of the power of the union, a nibbling of the advantages slowly gained, a reversion eventually to the individual bargain (which is no bargain at all), and a sacrifice of industrial liberty and industrial representation to

[Continued on page 621.]

INDUSTRY

OLD AND NEW LABOR PROBLEMS IN CALIFORNIA— By JOHN A. FITCH

TWO STORIES were told before the Federal Commission on Industrial Relations meeting in San Francisco the week of August 24, and together they came close to summing up the labor problem in California. One was an old story, so far as the setting goes, the story of a struggle for supremacy between the skilled craft unions in a closed shop town and a determined, fighting Merchants, Manufacturers and Employers' Association.

The other story had to do with the events growing out of the Wheatland riot in the hop fields on the Durst ranch. That story was new, and prophetic. It revealed a class of labor hitherto forgotten and neglected, struggling together in a crude first attempt at self-expression. It brought to the fore a problem formerly kept in the background that now bids fair to be the greatest problem that California—or the Pacific coast, for that matter—has to solve.

The first two days of the hearings were given over to testimony regarding the fight for the open shop in Stockton, a town of 30,000 to 40,000 inhabitants about ninety miles east of San Francisco. For years Stockton has been a closed shop town, with all the crafts well organized. Some months ago, however, the employers organized the Merchants, Manufacturers and Employers' Association, commonly referred to as the "M. M. & E." Having enrolled in their membership 95 per cent. of the employers of the town, they announced on July 8 of this year that they would refuse thereafter to have any dealings with any union. The association had previously adopted a declaration of principles favoring the open shop, condemning tactics of coercion on the part of the unions, and setting forth their determination to sign no further agreements with organized labor.

The reasons for this action were explained in some detail by John P. Irish, secretary of the Chamber of Commerce, and C. G. Bird, president of the M. M. & E. Irish cited a number of cases of alleged improper and tyrannical acts on the part of the unions. He said that the carpenters had asked for an impossible wage scale, that the electrical workers had demanded higher wages after a contract had been taken based on the former scale, that unfit workers, discharged for good cause were forced upon the employers, and that unfair boycotts had been imposed.

He told also of a case where lumber that had been delivered on the third floor of a building was found to be without the union stamp. The owner of the building had offered to pay for the time of the shop steward, Irish stated, to

Probing the Causes of Unrest

XIII

The thirteenth of a series of interpretations of the hearings, before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission, by a staff representative of The Survey.



come from the planing mill and affix the stamp. This was not permitted, however. The lumber had to be carried down to the street, loaded on wagons, taken to the planing mill and stamped and then returned in the same way to the third floor of the building.

Another objection to dealing with unions was the necessity of making contracts, not with the workmen in the shops, but with "irresponsible outsiders." At this point Counsel W. O. Thompson inquired whether the M. M. & E. has any connection with any outside body, such as the National Association of Manufacturers.

"That is a matter that does not concern you," replied Irish. "The tendency of your question is in an unfair direction." Walter Drew, who is attending all the hearings before the commission as counsel for the National Association of Manufacturers, the Erectors' Association, and other employers' bodies, then requested that the witness answer the question, and Irish stated that the M. M. & E. has no agreements with any other organization of employers.

The open shop announcement was followed by strikes and lockouts in most of the organized trades. Anton Johansen, organizer of the carpenters' union, who is in charge of the union forces in the conflict, testified mostly in rebuttal of Irish's statements. He either denied the charges or pointed out that the aggressions complained of were contrary to union rules, and intimated that matters would have been adjusted differently if called to the attention of the higher officials of the unions. He stated that while the employers were complaining of the boycotting of one hotel, they were themselves boycotting another, by refusing to buy goods handled by the commercial travelers who stop at the same hotel

patronized by the union organizers.

The underlying truth in a situation of this sort cannot be grasped in a moment, especially ninety miles away from the scene of action. The tangle of charge and counter charge is too difficult to be unravelled in a public hearing. Much that is interesting can be told, however, and nothing was more interesting in this inquiry than the testimony of F. L. Kincaid, a land dealer of Stockton, and Irving Martin, publisher of the *Stockton Daily Record*.

Kincaid stated that he was asked one day to step into the First National Bank of Stockton. He was taken to the office of the president, who asked him if he were not interested in the *Stockton Daily Record*. He replied that he was not. The president then told him that the attitude of that paper was distasteful to the business men of Stockton. He suggested that Kincaid see the publisher, Irving Martin, who was a personal friend of Kincaid's, and induce him to change his policy. The witness said that the banker asked him to tell Martin that if he did not adopt a different policy the members of the M. M. & E. would withdraw their advertising, and to warn him further that he had better look out for his financial interests, adding that he would himself "put the screws" to Martin if he had the power.

Kincaid said that the banker told him also of a laundryman in the city named Eaves, who had refused to join the M. M. & E. The bank held an overdue note of Eaves' and had demanded immediate payment.

A few days later, Kincaid said, Eaves came to his office and told him he was in trouble. He said that he could pay the note at the First National Bank, but he had further obligations, and his creditors were pressing him. He needed to borrow some money to meet these claims. Kincaid thought then of another banker who had asked him to help him get accounts, and in whose bank Kincaid himself had a deposit. So he took Eaves to this bank, and asked for a loan for him. The banker told him that the unions were withdrawing their funds and the banks had entered into an agreement not to accommodate friends of the unions. A few days later Eaves told Kincaid that he had joined the M. M. & E. and that he had then been able to get money from the First National Bank, a statement that Kincaid verified later by conversation with the president of that bank.

Irving Martin, proprietor and publisher of the *Stockton Record*, then took the stand. He said that he had built a large addition to his plant a year or two ago, and is still heavily in debt as a result. He stated that the policy of his paper in the present controversy has been to print the news with impartiality,

and with a view to injuring no one. The method followed has been to verify every story originating with either side. It has been easier to get the union news, however, because the union men have always been willing to talk to the reporters, while at the headquarters of the M. M. & E., he said, the reporters had been treated with scant courtesy.

Some time ago, at a picnic, Martin said that a business man, a friend of his, had called him aside and told him that in this fight the employers were out to win, and would win at any cost. He said that they could not see why they should support anyone who did not help them, and thought that advertising should be withdrawn from papers not supporting the M. M. & E. He told Martin further that pressure would be brought to bear on all having financial obligations.

After that, in various ways, Martin was kept reminded of the pressure that could be brought to bear upon him. Individually and in committees, members of the M. M. & E. would wait on Martin, and object to his manner of handling the news and talk with him about his necessary dependence on advertising. They protested, he said, because his paper reported a union meeting where a boycott was agreed upon. They told him that he ought not to print news of meetings opposed to their interests.

One Sunday afternoon, Martin said, he was called up and asked if he would come to a meeting of the Typographical Union that evening. They insisted that the business was too important to wait until the next day, so he went. He was told by the men that they had heard that members of the M. M. & E. intended to withdraw their advertising from his paper. If that were done, they said, they would work without pay as long as that situation might last, and would look to the international union for strike benefits.

As committees continued to come to see Martin he tried to make them understand his position. "I told them," he testified, "that a publisher has two functions. He is a business man and an employer, but he is also a purveyor of news. An editor is a sort of a receptacle for what goes on in the community—the crime and the aspirations and hopes of the people. The good and bad both come before him. It is the duty of the editor to print the news, and he must do that even if it is contrary to his personal interests as a business man to do so." He told them he must follow this policy, even if they considered him "a traitor to his class." The committee then said that they "hadn't known before that he was a Socialist."

Martin said that as yet no financial pressure has been exerted, and while some advertising has been withdrawn there has been no concerted action. In taking the position that he has in this matter Martin has alienated from himself friends that he has known from boyhood. In business, socially and every other way his associates are the men who are now carrying on the fight for the M. M. & E. "I would do anything in the world to keep my associations with these men," said Martin, "but I must and will continue to publish my paper in accordance with my views of what is right."

The second two days of the hearings were devoted to a consideration of what followed after the Wheatland riot, described fully in THE SURVEY of March 21, 1914, by Carleton H. Parker, executive secretary of the California Commission on Housing and Immigration. Four men were killed in that riot—the district attorney and the sheriff and two hop pickers. For the murder of the first two—officers—two men, Ford and Suhr, have been convicted and sentenced to prison for life. No one has yet been prosecuted for the murder of the two hop pickers.

George L. Bell, attorney for the California Commission on Immigration and Housing, testified that after the tragedy a "drag net" was thrown out and suspects arrested on all sides and held without any charge against them. He told of a man named Brady who was able to prove that he had been in Wyoming at the time of the riot who was arrested, subjected to third degree methods in an endeavor to get him to confess some knowledge of the affair, and finally released after having been held seventy-five days in jail with no charge preferred against him and never having been in court.

Bell said that such arrests after a crime are customary. He declared that a man without money or friends, and without visible means of support is liable to be arrested at any time as a vagrant and can be sent to jail for fifteen to thirty days. He said he had talked with many men who had had this experience—their only crime being that they had no money. After a few such experiences a man becomes embittered, loses his respect for himself and for the law. The extreme importance of this practice is realized when it is understood that most of the labor in California is seasonal in character, and that few of the men make enough money to last through the year. At some time in the year therefore the great part of California's labor force may be subjected to this treatment. Bell advocated the creation of the office of public defender.

The attorneys for Ford and Suhr told of difficulties they experienced in handling the case. They were prevented repeatedly from seeing prisoners, on the ground that the men had not asked for them. Men were under arrest, they said, who had no money and knew the names of no attorneys, and who therefore could not ask to have any particular attorney sent to them.

Burns detectives were employed in the case, and, according to R. M. Royce, attorney for the defense, they "arrested men incontinently." It was charged that they subjected them to great abuse in an endeavor to get them to confess to having been implicated in the crime. W. A. Mundell, manager of the Burns Agency at the time of the riot, testified that he placed a dictograph in the cell where Suhr was confined and put a man in with him to talk with him.

It was stated by the prosecuting attorney that Suhr made a confession. Suhr repudiated this confession at the trial, however, and Royce testified that it was obtained only after Suhr had been worn out by being kept awake by having the bed clothes pulled off from him when

he lay down, and by being poked with sticks. He told Royce that he could not remember afterwards what the statement was that he had been induced to make.

Royce told also of a boy, wanted by the defense at the trial as a witness, who was, he alleged, hidden away by Burns detectives. For weeks the relatives with whom the boy lived did not know his whereabouts. Finally his uncle found him and had the Burns men arrested on a charge of kidnapping. On the way home, however, Royce said, the boy was taken away from his uncle by a San Francisco police detective, who took him to headquarters where he was turned over to the district attorney prosecuting the case. He was not again seen, Royce testified, until after the trial.

Ford and Suhr were convicted at the trial and sentenced. It is stated, however, that no evidence was presented clearly implicating either in the shooting. It is conceded by all, in fact, that Ford did not shoot. But he was the leader of the movement to get improved conditions. It is openly charged that both men were convicted, not for murder, but for "agitation." The case has been appealed.

The importance of this testimony was revealed at the last day's hearings devoted to unemployment. The men who revolted on the Durst ranch were typical migratory laborers of California. So were many of the "suspects" arrested without warrants and held without trial. There is a migratory class of labor in California because there must be. Without them the industries on which California's fame depends could not exist. The workers are migratory because the jobs are seasonal and short. When one crop is gathered they must move on to the next. If they work in the canneries, under the best possible conditions the season of employment will last only from June to December, leaving six months in which other work must be found.

But in December the rainy season begins, and work is hard to get. Hence the migratory laborers begin to gather in the large cities. Their wages when they have work is from \$2.00 to \$2.50 a day. Their earnings are gone before spring, partly through improvidence and partly through drink, but largely because of their inadequacy. It was testified that the unemployment situation is steadily growing worse.

A number of remedies were proposed. George E. Hyde, a fruit grower and packer, urged greater thrift. Wylie Giffen, another fruit grower, testified, however, that it is impossible now for a young man, however ambitious, to go out single handed and with empty pockets and acquire a fruit orchard of his own. He advocated organization on the part of the workers, and diversified farming, to lengthen the season. Other suggestions were state employment bureaus, colonizing men on the land and unemployment insurance.

The scenes are changing in California. We shall still hear of open shop fights, of closed shop unionism, of high wages in the skilled crafts. But we shall hear more and more of the unskilled, underpaid, disorganized seasonal workers. They will themselves see to it that we hear.

TWO LETTERS

EXCHANGED *between a WOMAN*
INVESTOR *and the* PRESIDENT *of a*
PUBLIC SERVICE CORPORATION

The Inquiry

Mr. Alex. Dow,
President and General Manager,
The Detroit Edison Co.

MY DEAR MR. DOW:

I have been thinking all summer about the visit I had with you. In writing this letter I am speaking with reference to that. I do not take up the subject of land and rents, and the relation that exists between land values and the high cost of living. This has to do with dividends and wages.

You told the story of the building up of that wonderful plant. It was a great work. As a plant to serve the interests of the public it was well done.

In considering the human beings involved, both as stockholders and as operators and constructionists, you made these two remarks: You said I need not laugh at the mention of widows and orphans—that it is literally true that many of the stockholders are widows and orphans. You said that you owed it to these people to so run the business as to render to them the dividends upon which they are dependent. It is a duty and a trust on your part. You consider yourself responsible to them. This is perfectly clear to me. According to the way business is now managed you are the business manager for the stockholders. That is the way nearly every concern is run. I, myself, live in such a way that I am dependent upon dividends I receive from a similar plant.

In the second place you said that, in order to carry on the business, you buy coal as cheap as you can, you buy iron as cheap as you can, and you buy labor as cheap as you can.

Labor is a commodity like iron and coal—with this difference: Iron and coal don't care how cheap they are bought, but labor does. Labor is in fact, the human race. It's the people who demanded Magna Charta from John. It's the people who attended the Boston Tea Party. It's folks.

Now, I worked it out this way: I imagine myself to be a widow with four children. My husband left me \$10,000—perhaps in life insurance. I ask you to invest it for me and you do so. I get 5 per cent., or \$500, a year in dividends. I can't live and bring up four children on \$500 a year, but I take roomers or boarders and earn what I can. The \$500 is a great help to me.

I, myself, do not earn the \$500, but I'm mighty glad to get it wherever it does come from. Never having studied business, I don't even stop to think where it does come from. It just comes, that's all. It was left to me by my husband.

I manage the best I can, and I try hard to keep my oldest boy in school till he is sixteen. The others, too, as they grow up, I keep in school as long as I can.

As they reach the age when they must go out and get a job they strike the snag! Each one must sell himself in the market where labor is bought as cheap as it can be got.

And why?

Because—I must get my dividends. So all the time my dividends were other women's sons' and daughters' wages!

Wages or dividends, then—which shall it be?

I didn't know when my children were little. I didn't think. I thought my husband left me my dividends. But I think now, when I see my sons asking for jobs,—asking, after sleepless nights trying to work it out and to screw up their courage—for a raise.

My boys must ask the manager for a raise. And the manager must make dividends, because I must get 5 per cent.

I see it now.

I see that dividends are blind. I see that dividends are irresponsible. I see that labor is my boys and girls.

And my boys and girls—how are they going to get clothes and food and shelter and culture and a home for the next generation?

If I had a vote I'd say: "Never mind the 5 per cent., but give my boys a raise.

Recognize their right to think.

Recognize their right to speak.

Recognize their right to organize to demand the dividends they create."

I'm willing to work for my part! But, O God, for a chance to live and to laugh and to be glad! For a chance to walk anywhere and not see girls who sell their souls for bread and a little joy! For a chance to see men with hope shining in their eyes!

My boys and girls.

We are all thinking. We must be coming to something. Wages are too low and rents are too high. These are

facts—however we are going to manage it.

Yours sincerely,

AGNES INGLIS.

The Response

Miss Agnes Inglis,
Ann Arbor, Mich.

DEAR MISS INGLIS:

I have read your letter of October 1 three times. Your line of reasoning (as I follow it) leads you inevitably to your stated conclusion as to dividends and wages; that whatever is added to the one must be taken from the other. This conclusion is wrong, and, since your reasoning certainly leads to it, there must be something wrong with your premises. And on later readings of your letter I see a lot of mistakes in the premises, one of which is bigger than all the others. The big mistake is the assumption that a manager or operator or manufacturer has a duty to stockholders or has accepted a trust from them which debars him from doing his duty to his own employes and to humanity as a whole.

I have met managers whose narrow conception caused them to overrate their duty to their immediate employers and to underrate their duties to the rest of creation. But the great majority, though they may lack expression, try to do all their duty to mankind. And it is nowadays distinctly unpopular and unprofitable to be a Gradgrind. When I took the Edison properties, seventeen years ago, George Peck (now dead), who was president of the then very small Edison Illuminating Company, laid down to me, in the presence of the board of directors, a rule of management which was, briefly, as follows:

First, Maintain the value of the plant. If it is not maintained there will some day be no plant to serve the public nor to give employment to labor nor to earn dividends to stockholders.

Second, come *two* things of *equal* importance, neither being subordinate to the other, namely: Pay such a dividend as will make stockholders content to have their money in the business and put in more as required. Simultaneously pay such wages, always a little better than the market, as will enable you to keep capable and satisfied employes.

Third, and finally, When the prior conditions have been satisfied, reduce the selling price to the public.

I got those instructions in '96. They were exactly in accordance with my own ideas and they have been lived up to since then. And I do not know why these instructions, modified for minor differences, should not express the ruling policy of every manager or trader in the country, excepting only those unfortunate employers, or employing corporations, who find themselves between the upper and the nether mill

stones of a fixed price for their product and a rising price for their labor. The conditions of the last ten years have destroyed the dividend-earning capacity of many such employers. Many of the railroad companies in the country (their rates being fixed by law) are in this condition. Some industries are, as a whole, in this condition—that is to say, although their selling price is not fixed by law it is fixed by competition, either domestic or foreign, while their labor cost can not be reduced by improved machinery or superior organization. And there is always one firm or another which has been forced or has blundered into it.

My company might easily have now been so situated. But I have refused consistently to make long time contracts or agreements fixing rates and, while I have reduced rates, I have been able to increase the payment to labor *per unit of time* because I was simultaneously reducing the cost of labor *per unit of production*. Whereas, if my industry had already been highly developed and systematized when I took charge of it, so that no economics of organization or machinery were possible, I should have been unable thus to increase the day's pay of the men, unless I had been permitted to raise the selling price of my product to consumers. That I would have been able to do so is inconceivable. Even though I might have had legal right and governmental consent, any material rise in price would have made my product unmarketable. (In this connection I would suggest that you read in the September *Atlantic Monthly* an article on the minimum wage). In all these years I have held that the duty lay upon me to protect not only the interests of my stockholders but those of my employes, and to so manage my relations with the public which purchases my product that while the public was well served and got relatively low prices, it nevertheless paid enough to let me distribute a fair return to stockholders and a satisfactory wage to employes. To do this with fair dealing between the three parties—Capital, Labor and Public Service—has been not only my first duty but my whole duty. Because all the other duties merge into this.

Now if you will add to your premises, that people who receive dividends are folks just the same as people who receive wages, and that managers are persons and not impersonalities, and being persons are required to do (and usually try to do) their duty to all humanity and not to part of it only, then you will be able to arrive at the correct conclusion.

Let us, for argument, assume that your first conclusion is correct and that dividends ought to be abolished. Who in that case is going to furnish the capital which is necessary for productive

industry or for merchandising? It is inconceivable that any person who has a money surplus will allow it to be used or will use it himself to provide the means for the employment of labor without receiving some return upon his investment. Do you remember the Parable of the Talents, and particularly the denunciation of the unprofitable servant? The final reproach upon him was that even if he were unwilling to take the risk of putting to use the talent committed to his care he should at least have loaned it out so that when the Master returned He would receive His own with usury. Your plan of denying the return to capital, or requiring capital to be so self denying, would result in all capital being wrapped in a napkin and buried in the ground as was the talent intrusted to the unprofitable servant.

A thing that I said to you seems to have fastened itself on your memory, namely, that I consider it my business to buy coal as cheap as I can, and iron as cheap as I can, and labor as cheap as I can. I also said, or should have said, that I consider it my duty to buy capital as cheap as I can. But I should have made it clear to you that to buy labor or capital or iron or coal cheaply does not mean to buy any of these *at the lowest possible cash price*. Cheap labor, cheap in that sense is not cheap labor in my sense. And cheap capital does not mean the capital which earns the lowest rate of interest. Labor which is not earning enough to live comfortably and to enjoy some of the good things of life is never cheap labor. And capital which stays in business because it can't get out, or which is forced into that business to try to save an existing bad investment, is not cheap capital. I have had in my day, not of my own choice, to work with underpaid labor and with underpaid capital, and it has been my happiness in the last seventeen years that I have not had to work with either of them. Your labor that is always looking for another job and "has it in for the boss" because it is underpaid or overdriven is never worth the little it gets in money. And the man who tries to operate his plant with such labor is a great many kinds of a damn fool. Moreover, he is denying his fellowmen, and his Master—if he professes to have a Master.

Likewise the stockholders who are anxious to sell their stock at a sacrifice because they can't live on the dividends it earns, or because they are afraid of a reduction of the dividend, or of an assessment, are a mighty bad asset to the corporation. They spoil its credit and when it needs money they will neither give it nor will they pledge their holdings so that some usurer can lend it. A corporation with such capital is on the way to bankruptcy. Willing capital is just as necessary as willing labor.

Let us now consider a minute your problem of the widow. What difference does it make to the widow whether the money comes to her as dividends or as wages earned by her children? For this discussion it makes no difference, because you assume that what is lost to capital is gained by labor. In actual practice I think the widow is likely to have more consideration from the children if she has a small income than if she is entirely dependent upon their contributions. Your illustration does not illustrate your case. The person to whom you really want to deny the dividends is not your widow but is the wife or daughter—or it may be the widow—of some man who receives or has left so much money that his women folks are living in extravagant idleness. When you come right down to it the only person whose dividend you can stop, without increasing the total of injustice in the world, is the idle rich person who does nothing for humanity. And the way to reach the idle rich person is to impress upon him or upon her the duty of living in a reasonable way; and of investing surplus dividends in useful enterprise which will make work for people who need work and will earn more dividends to be wisely invested. After all, your idle rich person only gets out of it what he or she eats and wears. It is not having an excess over personal needs *but it is failing to use productively that excess that is the crime against society*. And let me say right here that the woman whose dividends keep her above the necessity of manual labor and set her free to study the needs of her fellow mortals and to help them by word and act is *not* living in idleness.

The true conclusion, when you take all the premises into the account, is that dividends and wages are alike the result of productive processes which are impossible if either capital or labor be lacking. The division between the two must be equitable or society cannot endure. That it is at times inequitable is true but it is not proven that the lack of equity is always in the direction that would favor capital. The individual workman who does not give a fair day's work, and has no intention of giving a fair day's work, is an exceedingly numerous person. And the workmen's organizations which attempt to limit productive effort of their members, and equally to prevent other people doing the work, are common enough to be a troublesome factor in equating concrete facts with abstract justice. Then the fool labor leader who has only half learned his business is just as common, pro rata, as the fool employer who thinks he can make money for himself by starving his help. Take the speech of W. D. Mahon, reported Wednesday, as made before the arbitrators now considering the pay of D. U. R. em-

ployee. Mahon in the one sentence declared that dividends sent to the stockholders were paid out of the labor fund. In the next sentence he demanded that the property should not be maintained out of earnings but that the stockholders should put in new capital for maintenance or betterments. I wonder how long he imagines any business would continue, if all the profits were to go to labor and the stockholders were not only to be refused any returns but were to be assessed to make good the depreciation of equipment? And yet Mahon is a better man than the average labor leader.

You recognize that my doctrine is individualism. I hold the individual responsible. And according to my reading of history, and study of life, society in the long run always has held the individual responsible. I say *in the long run*, advisedly, because, like David the Psalmist, I have seen the wicked for a time flourish like a green bay tree. But I have also seen that each generation has a higher standard than that which preceded it; that commercial morality

has stepped up to a much higher standard in my own lifetime; and I must believe that the advance will continue. It is not a progress by rank and file. It is a succession of surges. Once in a while the surge is destructive. But no progress is progress which is not of, and within, and by, the individual.

Just by way of plaguing you, will you let me say that I am not so sure that the PEOPLE demanded Magna Charta from John. History says it was the Barons—who were not the people, not by quite a whole lot. And one of the old Norman reproaches against John was that he made much of the serfs and yeomen. And I know where John is buried between two Saxon saints, who were the saints of the common people. And I also recall that Magna Charta did not help the common people very much, not for a great many generations. It was until some time in the 18th century the charter of the classes and not of the masses.

Yours sincerely,

ALEX. DOW.

WE HAVE MOST of us known the pleasure of having a protégé. It may have come in the guise of a poor family, pupil, wife, offspring, struggling committee or pet dog—but whatever its form, the pleasure we received from it, as a protégé, was the same in every case. This pleasure may be briefly summed up as follows: we knew the joy of giving out power; we found ourselves beloved, indispensable. And there is surely nothing wrong in enjoying such a situation. Anybody would.

Now for the sequel. Our protégé, having leaned full weight upon us and taken all that we had to give, began to outgrow the need of us—acquired a surprising ability to stand alone. And did we rejoice that our care had been so successful as to be no longer necessary? In most cases, it must be confessed, we did not. We were hurt, angry,—talked about ingratitude—and our dog, who alone out of the list could not develop rapidly enough to outgrow his need of us, remains in our minds the symbol of faithfulness.

I believe there are very few persons who have not had some experience of this kind; but I also believe that a great many people realize to some extent the pettiness of wishing to retain an escaping protégé—and have the grace to be ashamed of themselves. At least this is true of personal relationships.

When it comes to the large class relations it is by no means so easy to recognize the same sort of pettiness and the attendant need for shame. The protégé I am thinking of now is the proletariat—and the other party is, generally speaking, the church, the state, or the benevolent well-to-do. These all feel that the poor are an especial charge, to be helped, educated, inspired,—and efforts at reform meet with their unquali-

fied approval.

But something has evidently been happening since the old feudal days when the protective relationship struck its roots deep into the social order. The protégé has been learning things from books of his own choosing; growing up; becoming class-conscious—and a new situation is upon us.

Of course there are still plenty of the old type, who take our charity and like to play the faithful retainer, but we have got to reckon with a rapidly increasing army of working men and women who refuse to be protégés in any sense of the word. They want neither our charity nor our advice, having quite definite ideas of their own on all matters pertaining to their own welfare and development.

And we of the privileged class? For the most part we simply can't bear it, even the nicest of us. "See all that is

being done!" we cry (meaning of course, "See all that *we* are doing!") and we point with pride to Consumers' League, social center, tenement house legislation, babies' milk dispensary and a host of other agencies for bettering the condition of the poor. And having put Tanenbaum, Bouck White and others safely into jail and branded them as "agitators," we breathe more freely again.

But this kind of thing won't do much longer. There is a great labor movement here in our midst, manifesting itself in various ways—not the movement in behalf of labor, initiated by the privileged class, but a movement on the part of labor itself: *the working people taking their own problems into their own hands*, as every healthy protégé ought to do as soon as possible.

It is easy enough to sympathize with the ignorant suffering poor whose pathetic appeal is to our emotions,—but supremely difficult when it comes to these reading, thinking, rebellious poor, who call primarily to our sense of justice and intellectual understanding,—the more so as their activities are constantly put before us in the most unfavorable light by the daily press and certain well-known publications professing to have the interests of the working class at heart.

Hence it is absolutely necessary to get our knowledge first-hand and not trust to casual reports, if we wish to form any intelligent conception of the scope and trend of the labor movement. Here are men who have a different set of values from ours; in some respects a different code of ethics. Even where their morality agrees ostensibly with ours, as on the precept "thou shalt not steal," they have their own ideas as to who is the stealer and who the stolen-from. Their respect for our courts of justice is very slight; for our professed Christianity, even slighter. And yet they would die for their own ideal of justice, and they claim Jesus of Nazareth as one of their comrades. They place the happiness of a single child in the slums ahead of the success of the vastest business enterprise, and the life of a common soldier ahead of the honor of the greatest nation.

They demand for their class, rights which the most ardent reformers sadly relegate to the realms of Utopia, and they are reaching out to secure those rights by methods of their own choosing—not ours.

To understand these men and women of the advance guard of the working class, and to appreciate the quality of their thinking, we must go to their literary output (which is enormous) and, better yet, to themselves, for until we do this, and do it sympathetically, our best intentioned efforts on behalf of the masses are going to miss fire.

And so high are the ideals of Thinking Labor for itself and for the world, that as we come to understand them, it shall happen that many of us privileged folk will gladly discard our old hopes and plans as too small and unsatisfying—ready to leave all and follow this glorious conception of the new democracy which is the gift of the workers to the world.

The Passing of the Protégé

By Nina Bull

With the United States Commission on Industrial Relations spending \$300,000 primarily in the search for the underlying causes of industrial unrest and their remedies, the point of view presented in this article is to be reckoned with as voicing the feeling of a woman born into what she would now call the "privileged class," who has since cast her lot with the Socialist Party.—Ed.

EDUCATION

THE UNIVERSITIES AND TRAINING FOR PUBLIC SERVICE—By EDWARD A. FITZPATRICK EXECUTIVE SECRETARY COMMITTEE ON PRACTICAL TRAINING, AMERICAN POLITICAL SCIENCE ASSOCIATION

THE PROBLEM of training for public service is thus admirably stated by President Lowell of Harvard:

"We no longer believe in America that a man who has shown himself fairly clever at something else, is thereby qualified to manage a railroad, a factory, or a bank. Are we better justified in assuming that an election by popular vote, or an appointment by a chief magistrate, confers, without apprenticeship, an immediate capacity to construct the roads and bridges, direct the education, manage the finances, purify the water supply, or dispose of the sewage of a large city; and this when it is almost certain that the person selected will not remain in office long enough to learn thoroughly a business of which he knows little or nothing at the outset?"

The question can be asked pertinently only of public service. Both industry and commerce in their own organizations and in the higher institutions of learning are training their leaders. Where is there a university school of public service to rank with the Harvard School of Business and Administration or with the Dartmouth, Pennsylvania or New York University schools? Why have not state universities established such schools and given such training? This would seem to be their obvious first duty. Where are there within government the facilities for training that are found in the National Cash Register Company or the Pennsylvania Railroad Company?

It is true that in public service we do have some such training but it is in the military and not in the civil side of public service. In education we have long trained the teachers of elementary schools, but high school and university teachers have not been trained. Nor have the supervisors and administrators of public education been adequately trained. The movement now well under way to train the higher grades of teachers and administrators has developed outside government and publicly supported institutions.

And yet just as in education there is advance, there are signs that the whole public service will become a vast educational instrumentality for persons who have entered it and the institutions of learning will give preparatory work looking forward to it.

A number of things have been developing in universities upon which a constructive movement could build. The

first thing we note is the recognition in connection with individual courses that recitation on certain pages of general texts is not the best method of teaching. So we have courses on Iowa problems, Nebraska problems, and California problems—a recognition that education as well as charity might very properly begin at home. Men engaged in the solution of community problems are called into the university class-rooms to tell of their experiences. Students are brought into "frequent contact with the men, organizations and activities that are studied," by inspection and investigative tours. In one field at least—legislative drafting—we pass from the investigating of the thing to actually doing it.

Students are now sent on geological surveys. Students of agriculture frequently spend their summers at experimental stations. The university is coming to recognize more and more that that there is no particular educational value in its class-rooms or laboratories. John R. Commons, as a member of the Wisconsin Industrial Commission, in Room 217 of the Capitol, is at least as effective a teacher as Professor Commons in Room 217 of the university. The sending of college professors and graduate students on traveling fellowships and the large increase of such fellowships are hopeful signs for the future.

This connection of university and government is probably best symbolized in the amazing number of college professors who are serving government. The facts for one college—Columbia—are given in a recent number of the *Columbia University Quarterly*, extending over fifteen pages. In the *Columbia University Quarterly* for September, 1912, there were given thirteen pages of Columbia alumni who were then serving in the various governmental agencies at Washington.

In spite of all these tendencies and facts, the universities of the country are not training men definitely and consciously for public service, except as they believe that the best training for public service is a generally trained man—whatever that is. College professors themselves have recognized this. The many college professors in the American Political Science Association thought

there was need for more definite and more practical training, and consequently there was appointed the Committee on Practical Training for Public Service of the American Political Science Association. This committee is "to examine and make a list of places where laboratory work for graduate students in political science can be done; to recommend to the various college and university faculties that due graduate credit be given to such places; to use its best endeavors to obtain scholarships for this laboratory work, and to secure an endowment for the building up of a trained body of public servants; and to make, if possible, a system of card records and efficiency standards for graduates doing practical work in political science."

This same committee has proposed to the universities of the country a plan by which candidates for the doctor's degree would spend one year (preferably the second) in agencies where they could receive practical training under adequate supervision. The essence of this plan is given in the following proposed standard regulation for the Ph.D.:

"Candidates for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy must pursue their studies in residence for a minimum period of three years, provided, however, that the period of residence may be proportionately extended to students from institutions in which the course of study is not regarded as equivalent to that in _____ College. In rare cases, students may, with the approval of the proper administrative authority, satisfy the residence requirement in two years."

The requirements of time for the degree of Doctor of Philosophy are wholly secondary. This degree does not rest on any computation of time, nor on any enumeration of courses, although no student can become a candidate for it until he has fulfilled the requirements of residence and study for the prescribed periods.

Candidates for the doctor's degree in political science or political economy, conforming to all the other regulations for such persons, may fulfill the resident requirements of three years' graduate study as follows: (1) Two years' resident graduate study in some recognized institution of learning, at least one of which must be spent at this university; (2) Practical work for at least eleven months in a governmental department, bureau or commission, a legislative reference library, a bureau of municipal research or similar organizations under the following conditions:

Weekly Time Report of R. C. Journey for week ending Oct. 19, 1913.

Assignment.	Mon.	Tues.	Wed.	Thur.	Fri.	Sat.	Sun.	Total Hours.
Efficiency survey of state government under Board of Public Affairs.								
(a) Banking Department	10:40	11:00	10:50	11:00	11:10			54:00
(b) Public Utilities Commission						11:30	9	20:30
Total	10:40	11:00	10:50	11:00	11:10	11:30	9	74:30

(a) that a statement of facts regarding opportunities for practical work, nature and extent of supervision of student's work and related facts be submitted to the department by the Committee on Practical Training for Public Service of the American Political Science Association or by a member of the department and accepted by the department concerned as satisfactory;

(b) that weekly or bi-weekly reports of time spent and work done be kept on the forms suggested by the Committee on Practical Training for Public Service or similar forms, and submitted to the professor in charge of the major subject of the student currently;

(c) that the institution where student is working, be visited by a representative of the department or of the Committee on Practical Training at such intervals as the department may think necessary.

Professor Loeb, of the University of Missouri, was very much interested in the plan and asked to have Rockwell C. Journey, fellow in political science at Missouri, placed in the Wisconsin Legislative Reference Library under the plan. Mr. Journey was accepted. He arrived on June twentieth and was handed this assignment:

"From now until the end of the legislative session you will be expected to attend each session of the Legislature and as many of the committee meetings as is possible. Please be present a little while before each session opens and watch the lobby both before, during and immediately after the close of the sessions. You will please watch legislation in which the Board of Public Affairs is interested, e. g., education, co-operation, northern lands, and mortgage land banks. When the Legislature is not in session observe the reference and drafting departments of the Legislative Reference Library. After each evening session you will have abundant opportunity to get in direct touch with the legislators in the post-session conferences of Dr. McCarthy and the legislators."

And so Mr. Journey saw our Legislature at work. Instead of the simple process of the text-books he saw the many "invisible" processes of law-making. He saw a lobby at work daily. He saw evidence that looked as if the various elements in a lobby united to "kill" or to have passed legislative bills. He saw how effective legislative opinion is created. He visited the rendezvous of legislators in hotels, cafeterias, etc. He saw men deliver speeches that were handed to them. He talked to legislators

who did not know that in ten minutes they had to vote on great fundamental bills. He saw, too, "soldiers of the common good" persistently fight the good fight; he saw devotion to the state that is unparalleled in the battle field.

Mr. Journey was next assigned to study the relations of a great investigative body to legislation. He was given this assignment:

"Will you make a study of the State Board of Public Affairs in its relation to the administration of state government in Wisconsin? Chapter 583 of the laws of 1911 is the statute creating the Board of Public Affairs. This probably would be a good starting point. This statute is to be changed by senate bill No. 426, which you will please follow in its course through the legislature. See assembly bill No. 1098 and watch that."

"The Board of Public Affairs is two main divisions, an accounting division and a social-economic division. The principal work of the social-economic division has been:

(1) a study of the rural schools of the state;

(2) a study of principles underlying a state budget;

(3) studies in co-operation and marketing;

(4) co-operative credit.

"The principal work of the accounting division has been:

(1) a system of accounts for all state departments and state institutions;

(2) an audit of the university, board of control and normal schools;

(3) preparation of a complete budget for the state which is the basis for all appropriation bills introduced in the legislature."

He was then taken over by the Board of Public Affairs to help in one of its investigations. He was assigned as follows:

"The Board of Public Affairs is authorized under sub-section 5 of section 990-56 of the statutes to continue its investigation into the efficiency and economy of public bodies. Under this general authorization you are hereby assigned under Mr. Campbell of the Board of Public Affairs to make a study of the actual services being rendered by the various departments of government and to set this service over against the expenditure for the various purposes of the department."

"The disbursements for the departments have been worked out for a period of ten years, 1902-12 inclusive.

The fiscal statistics for the year 1913 will be compiled by the employees of the state tax commission. The work which you will be especially assigned to has been done in a very general way. It is necessary to get more specific information and to find out more definitely what is being done. For this purpose you will have to visit departments under Mr. Campbell's direction."

In addition to this, Mr. Journey made practical studies of civil service, of state fire insurance, and of agricultural organization. He thus had a rather complete view of state government, of legislation, of investigation of administration. A typical time sheet, reproduced above, shows the distribution of his time for a week.

There remains a final problem. There is an indubitable demand for trained men for public service. The universities are responding to this demand as far as possible without disturbing too much present arrangements. Contents of courses are undergoing considerable changes in many places. Now organizations are being attached to universities rather than being made organic parts of them. A plan has been proposed and has the backing of large numbers of university professors all over the country. There is nothing especially dramatic about the plan. There are no outraged victims that have melodramatic appeal. There are none of the usual appeals to the wealthy and public-spirited men of the country, and yet there is need for money to carry on the work.

There are outraged victims of our present misgovernment in every community in the country—you and I are the victims. The proposals of this program promise no revolutionary change. It is no panacea. But it does promise on a national scale a constructive effort which will slowly accomplish revolution in our attitude and our results.

NEW COURSE FOR SOCIAL WORKERS

Dr. Lightner Witmer, professor of psychology at the University of Pennsylvania, announces a new course for social workers and teachers of abnormal children. The course will offer instruction in the principles of applied psychology with practical work in the psychological clinic and the dispensaries of the university hospital. All the resources of the university are to be made available for this work. To complete the course, student will be required to attend either four summer sessions or one summer session and one full academic year.

B. L. T. in the *Chicago Tribune* quotes the following letterhead from the Canton, Ill., public schools:

"Our High School's Aim: A democratized program of studies for each student pursued amid a socialized environment with content of each subject vitalized with vocational functioning."

SOCIAL AGENCIES

PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS FOR THE POOR IN PEKING— BY ERNEST T. SHAW, TUNGCHOU, PEKING

THE CRUCIBLE of foreign influence in China that has been gathering heat from foreign invasion since 1895 boiled over in 1900 and again in 1911. Today the age-old ideas that formerly prevailed have been brought to a state of flux and as they cool down, crystallize into a new form free from the dross of past ages. Although a true social spirit in a land of such size and with such diverse customs will be one of the last to come out of the melting pot, one can already see its embryo.

In order to hasten its growth, the committee in charge of the summer conference for the students of North China resolved to make the general topic: Social Service and the Christian Message. As a part of the preparation for this, a group of students representing three of the colleges in and near Peking spent ten days in the metropolis studying its social institutions of a public nature, and at the conference they made reports upon all the institutions visited, which included poorhouses, orphanages, hospitals, free schools, public lecture halls, prisons, a Door of Hope and one insane asylum.

The first place visited was an orphanage connected with a Buddhist temple, located on large grounds and having buildings which were light and airy, with the dormitories separated from the work rooms. It sheltered 217 boys, some of whom had only one parent, but most of whom were orphans. They were not kept as clean as foreigners like to see children, but their condition was considerably above that of the urchin on the street. Besides teaching from books for three hours a day, they are taught spinning, weaving, lithography, shoemaking, tailoring or glass blowing. The shops appeared to be well conducted, and when the boys leave the institution,

Readers of THE SURVEY will be interested in this account of the beginnings of institutional work in China where a few people are bravely struggling against prejudice and ignorance. Their tremendous task is to graft on to China's sixteenth-century life the institutions of the twentieth century.—ED.

they are probably better prepared to fill places in the ranks of industry than the average Chinese youth trained as an apprentice.

The other two orphanages visited were a product of Christianity although foreigners were not directly concerned in their conduct. One received only boys and the other only girls. It was really a refreshing sight to look at the little girls, for while their clothes were poor, they were spotlessly clean, as were their surroundings, and one could not ask to see a brighter and more eager looking lot of children. The boys were not cared for quite so well, but, as in the Buddhist orphanage, they were much better cared for than the average boy on the street.

If the orphanages were exemplary for their condition, the poorhouses visited were quite the opposite as examples of what public institutions ought not to be. In these two, conditions were nauseating. The men and boys were clothed in beggars' rags. Their bodies were filthy. They were crowded into rooms in which the air was so foul that most of the students refused to go in. Seemingly no attention was paid to sickness or wretched sores, and no regular work was provided. They were not allowed to go out and beg, but occasionally a few

of them did go out to pull rickshaws or sell odds and ends. There were a few old men and some who were maimed so that they were incapacitated for remunerative employment, but there were a very large number of men in the prime of life who ought to have been taking their places in the ranks of self-supporting laborers.

The most pathetic sight of all, however, was the row of thirty-six boys sitting on the edge of the large brick bed on which they all slept, from morning to night doing nothing but waiting until death should set their spirits free or the insane asylum open its doors to receive them into worse than death. All but one of them said that they had homes, but these were of such a temporary nature that when they had become lost on the streets of Peking, they had not been able to find them again, and the police had sent them to this place. In spite of these conditions, which seemed unbearable, they said that they were glad to get even such care as was given them. The attendants in charge of the institution were illiterate, incapable of appreciating the possibilities in that group of youths.

The third poorhouse visited made the poorhouse problem more hopeful. Originally the buildings had been used for a prison, but upon the completion of the new prison in another part of the city, this plant had been converted into a poorhouse accommodating 300 men. Everything was clean and sanitary, and adequate provision was made for the activity of the men. Different kinds of industry, including tailoring, spinning, weaving and common labor, were carried on and each man was appointed to one task or another according to his ability.

After he has learned a trade sufficiently well, if the inmate can find a shopkeeper to go surety for him, he may leave the institution and try to support himself, but the superintendent said that it was so difficult to find responsible people who were willing to run the risks involved in helping these men that only a few were allowed to go out each year. Even more hopeful than the condition of the institution was the character of the superintendent himself; he was not only working for the improvement of his own institution, but at the same time he had a grasp of the larger problems involved in relief work.

In a land where sickness has been considered the visitation of evil spirits, it is encouraging to see the beginning of a scientific hospital system. So far, the plants are not very extensive and really amount to little more than dispensaries, but the idea of hospitals managed for the benefit of the public has taken root and will grow as the number of native doctors of medicine increases.



ONE OF THE PUBLIC INSTITUTIONS WHICH HOUSE THE UNFORTUNATE OF PEKING



GROUP OF CHINESE POOR—OLD, MAIMED AND SICK—INMATES OF AN ALMSHOUSE

Only two were of any size at all, and in one case the party arrived about noon and found that all the attendants had gone out so that there was no opportunity to inquire about their work. The other had beds for twenty in-patients and furnished treatment for about five hundred out-patients. The institution was under the direction of a man trained in a mission hospital, and although there were departments for both Chinese and foreign medicine, by far the larger number of patrons preferred the foreign medicine. Very poor in-patients were treated free, but those who were able to pay were required to bear the cost of their food, from fifteen to sixty cents a day. Even surgical work was performed, but the operating room would scarcely be called aseptic.

Learning has been so respected in China that it was not surprising to find a large number of free schools, and they need no special comment. The free lecture halls scattered over the city under the direction of the board of education are novel institutions. All sorts of places have been adapted to this use, shops, schools, old temples and specially constructed buildings. On an average they seat about a hundred people, but besides their use every afternoon or evening as audience halls, they are used as libraries and in some cases as schools. On the walls hang educational pictures, maps and charts, and on the tables are kept a good collection of newspapers.

One picturesque place of this kind was located in the temple of the God of Fire; another one mixed its furniture with the apparatus of a volunteer fire company, while still a third was comfortably housed in a specially constructed building furnished with foreign seats. In all of them lectures are given every afternoon by speakers invited by the board of education. The topics seem to be left to the discretion of the speakers, but one attendant gave a characteristic answer to the question as to the purpose served by these institutions when he said that

they were intended to help the change from the old to the new.

Some of the regulations are very interesting; visitors must not smoke in the rooms or expectorate on the floors; they must be properly dressed, cannot talk during the progress of a lecture, criticize the speaker nor bring in bird-cages!

Two of the last institutions visited filled one with hope for the capacity of the Chinese to recognize their social responsibilities and their ability to bear them—the Door of Hope and the new industrial prison.

The superintendent of the former institution was evidently of the greatest refinement and delicacy, certainly necessary qualifications for one who undertakes this kind of work which often only aggravates the evil it is intended to mitigate. Admission to the institution is gained through the police, and both slave girls and unfortunate public girls are received. Everything within the institution was clean, and the girls, some not more than eight years old, not only have the advantage of this environment, but are also taught various kinds of needlework and are paid for their product. The money thus earned may be spent to buy things for their personal use or saved and used as a dowry when they leave.

The common way of discharging them is by finding husbands. The pictures of all above the age of sixteen are placed in a frame on the front of the building and middlemen searching for wives may choose one of the girls from this catalog, a procedure that sounds worse than it really is when the reader remembers that according to Chinese custom the bride never sees her husband until after the ceremony. If the girl is mistreated, she may return to the institution, but not many cases of abuse or non-support are known to the superintendent.

The institution showing the greatest development of a really scientific solution of a social problem was the industrial prison completed about a year and a half ago. The superintendent traveled

all through Europe and Japan studying prison construction and discipline, and upon his return to Peking planned the present structure himself and has determined its mode of conduct. The structure shows the result of careful planning and the entire system of management is based upon the best of the world's experience. One cannot get away from the impression that the men inside its walls are vastly better off than the majority of the Chinese outside.

Good behavior may reduce the term of a prisoner as much as one-half the sentence. All brutal forms of punishment have been abolished, and in their place is a system of rewards and punishments. For instance, each man is normally paid six cents a day wages, but good behavior increases this up to a maximum of twelve cents while breaches of discipline result in the forfeiture of part of it. Other rewards are greater freedom in seeing and writing letters to friends and relatives, extra food, extra clothes and furniture, and, for juvenile offenders, a badge of honor. The fines take the form of loss of all rewards, or of seeing friends and relatives for three months, forfeiture of reading privileges, lessening of food allowance, isolation, the dark room, and finally, expulsion from the prison, which means a return to the wretched conditions of prisons built and conducted on the old style.

There is segregation of juvenile and confirmed offenders. For the former a school is conducted under a special teacher half the day.

Various kinds of industrial work are carried on by the prisoners—weaving, woodworking, bookbinding, printing, metal work, agriculture and common labor. Each man is given the kind of work that seems best suited to his ability and the food allowance is according to the nature of his work. Their product is sold in the open market without any compunctions as to its competing with free labor, although the printing is largely used by the government.

This is the Life!



A CLASS IN EMBROIDERY



'PUT 'ER OVER, THERE!'



AN IMPROMPTU SHOWER BATH

Groups of 200 children at a time are enjoying ten-day outings at the Children's Fresh Air Camp, 11007 Buckeye Road, on the heights above the city. Dense shade, a well-equipped playground, a swimming pool, and a garden where the youngsters can dig and weed to their hearts' content, supply pleasures which most of the children never have known before. Kindly young women conduct classes in sewing and basketry and tell fascinating stories. The children sleep in permanent tents, eat practically out-of-doors in a great open dining-room, and play in open air the whole day through. Thus they get a new start in life.

The Children's Fresh Air Camp will have cared for 1,500 children in this way when it closes in September; and sent close to 1,000 other children to farms in the country, through its outing department.

The Epworth Fresh Air Camp, near Painesville, and the Salvation Army Fresh Air Camp, at Mentor, doing work similar to that of the Children's Fresh Air Camp, will raise to a total of 3,500, the number of Cleveland children carried back to Nature this summer.

THE SOCIAL NEWS BUREAU

Of the Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy

BULLETIN No. 3

THE WESTERN RESERVE PRESS, CLEVELAND

Posters setting forth in picture and caption the social work of the city will catch the eye just as well as the current events posters which many retail store windows exhibit as a means of attracting attention for the wares displayed—this is the belief of the Cleveland Federation for Charity and Philanthropy. Numbers of store keepers are co-operating by putting in their windows posters like that here shown.

Sanitary conditions are of a high standard. The rooms are light and airy and the prisoners required to wash their hands and faces twice each day and bathe twice each week, a training which would benefit the whole nation, could it be passed on to them.

The prisoners have the privilege of spending part of their wages for luxuries to use during their confinement, but the officials keep back the rest of it against the day of their release. When the doors swing open and the prisoner is given his freedom, he receives this small sum and a new suit of clothes in addition to anything he may have had when he came to the prison.

The life of the institution has been so short that it is hard to predict its value, but it certainly looks promising at the beginning.

The Yellow Dragon has existed with his parts connected not by the strong ligaments of common interest, but only the superficial bonds of yellow skin and strings of cash. The establishment of public institutions by the people themselves, designed not merely to defend themselves from foreign enemies, but to uplift their own people is a prophecy of the power and influence that will come to the nation when the spirit that is behind them fully controls the people.

CHELSEA AT WORK ON ITS OWN CIVIC PROBLEMS

NEW YORK city's first "cent-a-glass" milk station to be supported by the people of a neighborhood and not by a single person's philanthropy opened recently on a Sunday, and before noon 1,021 glasses had been bought by grown-ups and children and the station had to close for the day for lack of milk.

It was opened in old Chelsea, at Ninth avenue and Twenty-seventh street.

Chelsea's citizens are proud of this enterprise which they regard as the fruit of their self-reliance.

Eighteen milk stations in the city are supported by Nathan Straus, and serve an average of 25,000 glasses a day. But until the Chelsea Park milk booth opened there was no station to supply the 180,000 men, women and children who live between Fourteenth and Forty-second streets, west of Fifth avenue, the Chelsea district.

The Men's Club of the Hudson Guild and the Chelsea Neighborhood Association have led in this effort to help the people to help themselves. A campaign by letter raised nearly \$300, and a house to house canvass has been undertaken. Not only the funds for the station came from Chelsea but a Chelsea carpenter constructed the booth, a Chelsea plumber made the water connections, and two Chelsea widows have been given employment, selling the milk.

The Chelsea Neighborhood Association has also initiated a campaign recently against what it calls contagious social diseases. Chelsea supervising school authorities have been supplied by the association with a list of all known disorderly places in the district in the hope that this knowledge may prove useful in protecting the children who live on disorderly premises. It is estimated that one in every 250 children attending school is exposed to moral contamination from evil surroundings, that ratio representing the youngsters who actually live on tenement premises where the social evil flourishes.

"This new method of attacking the problem is logical and should undoubt-

edly bear fruit," says Edward H. Pfeiffer, executive secretary of the association. "Principals may be able, with this information at hand, to give special attention to the conduct of children living on disorderly premises, and may check indications of moral weakness before it has reached advanced stages of perversion or degeneracy."

READ-AS-YOU-RUN ADVERTISING FOR SOCIAL AGENCIES—By Carl Beck

EDUCATIONAL PUBLICITY is an important factor in every business, every campaign, every social and civic work which in order to be successful, must influence, in a large way, the human mind. Methods of publicity, therefore, are all important. Catching, convenient, economical methods are in demand. Such a method is the poster-stamp that has been for over a year a craze in Germany, has now seized Austria, Denmark, Switzerland, Holland, France and Italy and is beginning to appear in America.

The poster-stamp, like the poster itself, is a read-as-you-run method of getting attention. It is a striking combination of color or design, or both, stamp in form, gummed and perforated in sheets, and easily torn apart. Your mail some morning may have an envelope with a brilliant little paper gummed on it that catches your eye. Or the stamp may be stuck on the letter-head inside. At any rate, its charm and intrusiveness will not let you escape. The message is branded on your memory.

The poster stamp is not unlike the American Red Cross Stamps at Christmas time, or the American exposition stamps that we see from time to time.

But the Germans have carried the use much farther than that. There commercial houses, societies, clubs and municipalities have issued poster-stamps, and the children collect them like postage stamps. According to the American consul in Nuremberg there is hardly a child in that city who cannot show a collection of one or two thousand poster stamps.

Used in Germany first by commercial bodies and then appropriated by propagandist and altruistic organizations, the poster stamp is undergoing the same evolution here. The North German Lloyd Steamship Company, the New York Edison Company, the Publishers Printing Company and the Lehigh Valley Railroad are among the American business concerns that have used it. Recently *Harper's Weekly* offered a prize for the best idea of a poster stamp fitting the character of that magazine.

Last spring the People's Institute of New York city, in its educational campaign for the greater use of New York's five hundred schools as social centers, used a trial poster-stamp with effect. The design carries a simple school house of an average sized city going full blast at night as a People's Club House. Three colors help to attract attention. The message has been so worded that the stamp could be used throughout the country. Whether the object of a local campaign be to popularize a newly opened center or to stimulate contributions for its support, the stamp gives special "punch" to any written appeal to which it may be attached.

The social worker in thousands of cities in this country would in all probability welcome the poster stamp as a catching, convenient, practical means of educating the public on general social reforms and remedies in his or her local field. Here is an opportunity for national social, civic, and religious agencies to supply to local agencies, free or at bare cost, small quantities of poster-stamps, which can be got out in large numbers to reduce the cost. Thereby many a social message would ride on other messages into the minds of busy people whose over-worked attention must be broken into by "catch-as-catch can" methods.

TRAINING FOR MEDICAL SOCIAL SERVICE

To MEET the pressing demand for educated women who have a practical working knowledge of disease and of nursing and medical procedure, together with training also for social work, the New York School of Philanthropy, in co-operation with the Bellevue Hospital Training School for Nurses, announces a combined course in medical social service.

The full course of three years leads to a diploma from both schools. It consists of two years in the Training School for Nurses, during which time students are kept in touch with social work through occasional lectures and conferences provided by the School of Philanthropy, and a third year in the School of Philanthropy, during which students are kept in touch with medical and sani-



POSTER STAMP DESIGN, USED WITH SUCCESS BY THE PEOPLE'S INSTITUTE, NEW YORK CITY

tary service through lectures, conferences, and practical field work in the social service department of a hospital or dispensary, or in connection with the Department of Health.

The full student course at Bellevue is two years and nine months. In view, however, of the advanced preliminary education required for admission to this combined course, tested by the entrance examination and other evidences, students in the combined course are allowed to substitute the year in the School of Philanthropy—extending through the regular academic year from October to June—for the final nine months of the training course. The diploma in nursing is granted to these special students only on the completion of this third year in the School of Philanthropy.

The theoretical and practical courses in the School of Nursing have been condensed and rearranged with a view to meeting the requirements of women who expect to engage in social work. The diploma awarded upon graduation, however, qualifies all such students for registration under the Board of Regents.

The School of Philanthropy, on its part, accepts the two years of nurse's training, when taken under the conditions above described, as a substitute for one-half of its regular two years' course, and confers its diploma upon such students after the further year of resident study in the School of Philanthropy, during which period special attention is given to medical or sanitary field work.

A shorter course, consisting of one year in the Training School for Nurses and one year in the School of Philanthropy, is also offered. This course, however, does not entitle the student to the diploma of either school, nor to registration for the practice of nursing in the state of New York. It will prepare specifically for certain kinds of social work in which familiarity with nursing procedure is desirable.

Candidates for admission to either course must satisfy the entrance requirements of both schools. While in the hospital, students in these courses are entitled to the same living privileges as other pupil nurses, and are also subject to the same rules and regulations and authority. Students may enter the Training School on September 1, Decem-

ber 15, or March 15. The year in the School of Philanthropy begins on September 29.

For women who have already completed a course of training in a recognized school for nurses, and who are otherwise properly qualified, the School of Philanthropy offers its regular two-year course of training in medical social service. During the first year of the regular course such students will have an opportunity for field work in connection with some of the medical social service of the city. At the close of the first year they will receive a certificate from the school, and upon the completion of the second year's work under the supervision of the staff of the school they will be entitled to its full diploma. The second year may consist, in some cases, of work in a salaried position, under approved conditions, with the addition of a seminar at hours which will not interfere with the work of the position.

THE STUDY OF MENTAL DEFICIENCIES IN NEW YORK STATE

THE RECENTLY appointed New York state commission to investigate public care, custody, treatment and training of the mentally deficient hopes to present to the next Legislature a comprehensive long range program for the elimination of these defectives from society. The commission has just outlined its work.

It plans to study the number of feeble-minded in the state, the present provision for them and the methods here and elsewhere of determining and treating those who are so handicapped. It hopes further to make as thorough a study of the causes as the time and money at its command permit; also to make a special social survey of various types of communities, to determine the relationship between degeneracy and social stagnation, poverty and immorality as well as the effect of mental deficiency on both dependency and delinquency.

The commission hopes further to take up for definite consideration the responsibility of the state—

To provide for more and better institutions for permanent care.

To prevent by sterilization and segregation the propagation of degeneracy.

To provide a more scientific method of determining and treating the mentally deficient.

To more intelligently adapt the public school system to the special need of the "border-line" child.

To institute a stricter social control of marriage.

To provide for a permanent and continued census of and special supervision over all defectives.

To develop more effective birth and health registration.

To develop a sound and sane system of universal education in sex hygiene and social sanitation.

To inaugurate an adequate method of protecting all children under wholesome environment and normal home life.

Communications

DUTY OF NEUTRALS

TO THE EDITOR: We stand as a nation passively neutral. As individuals we are stirred to the depths of our lives by an intense desire to act—to use the strength of mercy and of love's true power to save humanity from destruction. How shall we turn the smiling hate of selfish souls, the blindness of greed into a will to serve?

Let us in council with the wisest and best men of the world, energetically concentrate our thought and action upon finding some way to hold aloft the standard of friends, and all that true friendship implies. Let us grasp, unite, deepen all the good will, genuine feeling and untiring activity of our day, help it to express itself in a devotion of strength, thoughts and treasure to the opportunity to truly serve the whole of humanity.

This great task is ours, the greatest task and greatest privilege which has ever presented itself to a democracy in the history of the world in its strength towards love and freedom.

ADELAIDE EARLE.

Montclair, N. J.

THE FUTURE

TO THE EDITOR: May I offer you this as my interpretation of the end of your efforts? And may I express my appreciation of the noble work being done by you?

THE SURVEY:—

I labor for the coming of a happy day to the human race.

I see children, joyous and free, their souls no longer stifled by want, their little bodies no longer ground into dividends.

I see woman liberated from the thrall-dom of sex, purified and ennobled by a chaste and voluntary motherhood.

I see man, emancipated from his industrial bondage, grow to the power and dignity of a God.

I see a human race, released from its economic servitude, develop spiritually and intellectually, beyond the dream of the most hopeful idealist.

I see a world, freed from the sordid misery that brings endless mourning to thousands, become a place of peace and happiness.

A world of brothers in which the labor of one is the labor of all—the sorrow of one the sorrow of all—the joy of one, the joy of all;

A world in which homelessness, want, hunger and cold no longer stalk, like the figures of a hideous nightmare, through our lives;

A world without potentates and titles, without war and destruction, without degradation and abasement;

A world wherein love has supplanted hate, tenderness has displaced greed, and light has dissipated darkness.

A world in which all may realize a full and abundant life, in which all may share on full and equal terms;

A world wherein joy, comfort and plenty shall be the reward of toil, and wherein human blood and human tears shall not be the price of life.

HAROLD EVERHART.

Oakland, Cal.

TRAINING CHILD NURSES

TO THE EDITOR: Society is complacent over the accomplishment of statesmanship in the pensioning of needy mothers to enable them to remain at home and give mother-care to young children. There is no apparent indication of equal concern over the neglected children of well-to-do mothers who fail in the performance of a like duty to their children, but who would resent the suggestion that they are delinquent mothers.

The practice of turning the care of young children over to immature nurse girls, who themselves are often imposed upon by the assignment to such duties, for which they are manifestly unfit, is fraught with more harm to social welfare than the half care which working mothers can afford to give with their aching heads and tired bodies.

Time was when careful mothers hesitated to give over the care of their children to others, even for a necessary rest; but now, the number of presumably careful mothers who surrender the most important duties of motherhood to immature and incapable nurse maids has grown to an appalling total.

Indeed, it would not be strange if some of the delinquent mothers who thus neglect their own children should be found among other public-spirited citizens who give time and influence to secure legislation which dedicates public funds to the employment of needy mothers to remain at home and perform their maternal duties.

We are duly and truly indignant over the exploitation of children of immature age in factories, stores, and workshops, and the deprivation of such children from school advantages secured to them by compulsory education laws; but we are not equally concerned over the more harmful practice of employing children as nurse maids.

It will not do to say too much on this subject, but it bristles with invitations to study, to all who are concerned, and especially to those who are inclined to make neglectful fathers the family scapegoats.

If it be true that the nurse-maid problem has become an important subject in social economy, it must be deserving of the offices of the social surveyors who study the conditions of poor environment and bad housing because of their injurious effects upon the lives and prospects of the children.

If it so be that children must be regularly employed to have the care of children, let there be a minimum age at which such employment may be undertaken, and some preliminary training to the young nurses who are dedicated to such service. We train nurses to care for the insane. Why not for the children?

C. E. FAULKNER.

Minneapolis, Minn.

AGAIN THE "LUNGER"

TO THE EDITOR: The itinerant consumptive of the Southwest has received some mention in THE SURVEY from time to time. His tribe apparently does not decrease, and every one of these health-gypsies has a story. Here is one:

William J—— and his wife and a one-eyed girl child of twelve appeared in San Antonio recently. They were not of the usual type of charity society visitors, the wife being a good seamstress and anxious to get work. The husband was undeniably a "lunger," and his wife apparently consumptive, although she refused to be examined for fear of learning the truth. The child, *Quien sabe?* She slept with her parents when they could not afford two beds.

The J——s claimed residence nowhere. The man claimed that he was born in Texas; the woman was born in New Jersey. They had married and lived in Pennsylvania in various towns, J——'s occupation as a railway man causing him to move frequently. Later they went to St. Louis and lived there at various times in boarding houses and furnished rooms. There the wife contracted pneumonia "and on the advice of a physician, they went to Albuquerque, N. M."

The husband went into Mexico to take a railroad position several years ago. About twenty months ago he was arrested with other Americans and lay in jail in Mexico City for seven months. His country did not protect him from the charge of being an "Americano."

In the small "dobe" house where he was confined was a consumptive Mexican. How many consumptives were released from the jail is not known.

The husband and wife were reunited at La Junta, Col. There the good-hearted railway men made up a purse and got transportation for them to Tucson, Ariz., where they arrived with \$24 cash.

From Tucson they drifted to Los Angeles, where they stayed only a short time because of the inability of the wife to get work. Thence they went to San Bernardino for three months. The wife worked at sewing and dressmaking, but did not earn enough to keep them. They gradually sold everything of value and finally "went broke." According to their statement they were practically driven out of San Bernardino by the authorities, to whom appeals had been made in their behalf, and they were shipped to Douglas, Ariz. They landed in Douglas, where they were allowed to stay nine days and were then shipped, by the mayor they claim, to San Antonio, Tex., with the free advice to get a tent and live out in the country near town.

San Antonio, therefore, now has them. The United Charities placed them in a furnished room and gave them food and

offered to place them, temporarily, in a hospital, and to place the child in an orphanage. This would give them relief until the United Charities could plan some permanent help for them. They refused to go to the hospital, and refused to be separated from their child. They threatened to go to the City Hall and sit on the steps and die or to start walking somewhere and to continue to walk until they died. Foolish, of course, but consider their state of mind.

This is one of hundreds of similar cases. Consumptives come to the West and Southwest; many of them have little or nothing to live on after their arrival and "starve or accept meager charity."

Who is responsible for the care and support of the J— family? Is the county in Texas where J— claimed he was born? Is the county in New Jersey where the woman was born? Is the county in Pennsylvania where the child was born? Are the various cities or towns in Pennsylvania, New Jersey or Missouri, where they lived for a long or short period responsible? Are the states of Pennsylvania, New Jersey, New Mexico, Arizona, California or Texas responsible? Is the Mexican government responsible? Who will fix the responsibility? Who will collect from the responsible government or unit of government?

Will *THE SURVEY* readers tell us what to do with this case? Will they tell us what to do with the hundreds of similar cases in every city and town in the Southwest? Will any national, state or local charity society send us means to care for these cases? Will the American Red Cross take care of them? No, for they have refused to do so. Will the Salvation Army, or any church of Christ help them? Will any fraternal lodge or labor union supply the funds? Will any multi-millionaire do it? Judging the future by the past, we know that appeals to any of these agencies bring us sympathy—but no cash.

The bill now pending in Congress for the establishment and maintenance of government hospitals for the indigent stranger consumptive in the Southwest is the only feasible solution of the problem. There are now available for this purpose, military and other reservations where, at small expense for repair and reconstruction, many hundreds can be cared for.

ROBERT J. NEWTON.

[Exec. Sec. Texas Public Health Ass'n.]
Austin, Texas.

JOTTINGS

"SOME INFORMATION FOR MOTHER"

Some Information for Mother has now been published in pamphlet form. This article by John Palmer Gavit, managing editor of the *New York Evening Post*, showing how one man answered the questions of a child about reproduction, first appeared in *THE SURVEY* for March 7, 1914. The pamphlet may be obtained from *THE SURVEY*; price 15 cents per copy, 10 cents each for lots of 25 or more, postage prepaid.

THE WHITE FOUNDATION

With \$30,000 to start its good work the White Foundation, by the will of the late Thomas H. White, millionaire

of Cleveland, will strive for "the moral and physical benefit of the inhabitants of the city of Cleveland regardless of race, color or creed."

F. H. Goff, president of the Cleveland Trust Company, trustee of the White estate, organized the foundation. Ultimately the entire estate will be devoted to public welfare.

RODENT SURVEY OF NEW ORLEANS

The Federal Public Health Service report of July 31 announces the necessity of a rodent survey of New Orleans. Human cases of the plague come from a circumscribed area, but infection among rats seems to be widely disseminated. No infected rats were discovered in the Canal Zone, Hawaii, or Porto Rico.

RECENT PAMPHLETS

Some impressions of the first six months' working of compulsory insurance against unemployment in England. By W. A. Bailward, London.

Fiat, Pax. By George Allan England. American Association for International Conciliation, New York. (Published before war was declared or expected).

"Monseigneur, a Petition"; a story of the reign of terror in the U. S. Postal Service. By John Albert Whalen. Published by the author, Des Moines, Iowa.

How the Children of a Great City Get their Books; being an account of the work with children in the St. Louis Public Library. By Effie L. Powell, supervisor.

The Social Problem as seen from the viewpoint of trade unionism, capital and Socialism. National Civic Federation, New York.

Preliminary Report on Efficiency in the Administration of Justice. By Charles W. Eliot, Moorfield Storey, Louis D. Brandeis, Adolph J. Rodenbeck and Roscoe Pound. National Economic League, Boston.

Foremen and Accident Prevention. Travelers Insurance Company, Hartford, Conn.

The Employee and Accident Prevention. Travelers Insurance Company, Hartford, Conn.

Administration of Labor Laws. Factory Inspection in Certain European Countries. By George M. Price, M.D., U. S. Department of Labor, Washington.

A Study of Rapid Transit in Seven Cities. Prepared under the direction of Theodore K. Long. Bulletin No. 3, Municipal Reference Library, Chicago.

Supplementary Report on the Disposal of New York's Sewage. Metropolitan Sewerage Commission, New York city.

Rural School Buildings. By R. E. Lee. Prepared for the State Department of Agriculture by Clemson Agricultural College, Clemson College, S. C.

THE COLORADO TRUCE

[Continued from page 608.]

the desire for an immediate peace.

With the tentative plan of settlement the President sent the following letter to the president of the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company, the chairman of the Victor-American Fuel Company, the president of the Rocky Mountain Fuel Company, and the officers of the United Mine Workers:

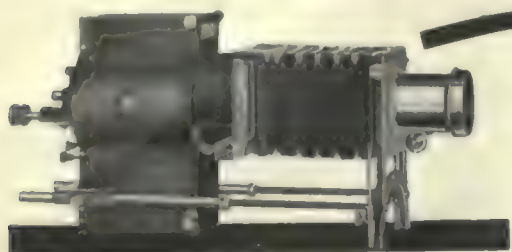
"My Dear Sir: I feel justified in addressing you with regard to the present strike situation in Colorado, because it has lasted so long, has gone through so many stages, and is fraught with so many possibilities that it has become of national importance.

"As you know," federal troops have been in the state for the purpose of maintaining order now for a long time. I have been hoping every day during that time that some light would come out of the perplexities of the situation, some indication that the mine operators and the miners who are now on strike were willing to consider proposals of accommodation and settlement, but no such indication has reached me, and I am now obliged to determine whether I am justified in using the army of the United States indefinitely for police purposes.

"Many things may come out of this situation if it is not handled with public spirit and with a sincere desire to safeguard the public, as well as all others concerned; perhaps the most serious of them all the feeling which is being generated and the impression of the public that no one is willing to act, no one willing to yield anything, no one willing even to consider terms of accommodation.

"As you know, two representatives of the government of the United States have been actively engaged in investigating the whole situation and in trying to reach a dispassionate conclusion as to what it is possible to do in justice to both sides not only, but also in the interest of the public. The result of their investigations and of their very thoughtful consideration in the matter has been the drafting of the inclosed 'tentative basis for the adjustment' of the strike. I recommend it to you for your most serious consideration. I hope that you will consider it as if you were acting for the whole country, and I beg that you will regard it as urged upon your acceptance by myself with very deep earnestness. This is a time, I am sure you will feel, when everything should be done that it is possible for men to do, to see that all untoward and threatening circumstances of every sort are taken out of the life of the people of the United States. Sincerely yours," WOODROW WILSON.

President Wilson's plan for a three years' truce in the Colorado coal fields has received the hearty support of Representative Edward Keating, who introduced in the House the resolution which authorized the Congressional investigation of industrial conditions in



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the coal fields of his own state of Colorado. In speaking to the Washington correspondent of *THE SURVEY* about the President's plan, the Colorado representative said:

"It is hard to believe that the man who saved the country from a war with Mexico and who may soon be called upon to act as arbiter for war-plagued Europe, will not succeed in his effort to restore industrial peace in Colorado. President Wilson's appeal to the miners and mine-owners of the Centennial State provides a broad foundation for an honorable compromise and if accepted will almost certainly result in an enduring understanding.

"The mine owners have told us that the principal issue involved in the strike was the 'recognition of the union' and they have insisted that they would never yield on that point. The leaders of the United Mine Workers of America, while contending that 'recognition' was only one of the many demands, have not sought to minimize the importance of that phase of the struggle. President Wilson, with the rare genius which enables him to reach the heart of the subject he is considering, has submitted a plan which waives this question of the recognition of the union and at the same time safeguards the material interests of the toilers.

"I like the President's suggestion for a permanent tribunal to pass on the differences between miner and mine-owner. In the right hands, it can be worked out to the satisfaction of all of the parties

in interest. Why should not we have a court of industrial relations in every state in the Union?

"It must be apparent to right-thinking men that the time has passed when workmen may be denied the right to organize for the purpose of securing the benefits which result from collective bargaining. It will also be conceded that

the bomb and the gattling-gun are very unsatisfactory weapons for the adjustment of industrial controversies. Surely American statesmen may be depended upon to devise a Twentieth-century substitute.

"President Wilson has indicated the way, and he should receive the earnest support of both capital and labor."

Calendar of Conferences

SEPTEMBER AND OCTOBER CONFERENCE

CATHOLIC CHARITIES, National Conference of. Washington, D. C., September 20-23. Sec'y, Rev. Dr. William J. Kerby, Catholic University, Washington, D. C.

CATHOLIC FRATERNAL INSURANCE SOCIETIES, Conference of. Held in conjunction with American Federation of Catholic Societies.

CATHOLIC SOCIAL REFORM MOVEMENT, Conference of. Held in conjunction with American Federation of Catholic Societies.

CATHOLIC SOCIETIES, American Federation of. Baltimore, Md., September 27-30. Sec'y, Peter E. Dietz, 443 University Bldg., Milwaukee, Wis.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Indiana State Conference of. Madison, Ind., October 17-20. Sec'y, A. W. Butler, 93 State House, Indianapolis, Ind.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Maine State Conference of. Eighth Annual Meeting. Bangor, Me., October 20-21. Sec'y, James F. Bagley, Augusta, Me.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Minnesota State Conference of. Bemidji, Minn., September 26-29. Sec'y, Otto W. Davis, Civic & Commerce Ass'n, Minneapolis, Minn.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTIONS, Oklahoma State Conference of. Oklahoma City, Okla., October 12-14. Gen. Sec'y, R. C. Meloy, State House, Oklahoma, Okla.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Wisconsin State Conference of. Racine, Wis., September 29-October 2. Sec'y, J. L. Gillin, Madison, Wis.

CRIMINAL LAW AND CRIMINOLOGY, American Institute of. Washington, D. C., October 20-22. Sec'y, Henry Winthrop Ballantine, University of Wisconsin, Madison, Wis.

DISEASES OF OCCUPATION, Third International Congress on. Vienna, September

- 21-26. Sec'y, Dr. Alice Hamilton, Hull House, Chicago.
- HOUSING ASSOCIATION, National. Minneapolis, Minn., October 21-23. Sec'y, Lawrence Veiller, 105 East 22nd Street, New York.
- HUMANE ASSOCIATION, American, Atlantic City, N. J., October 5-8. Sec'y, Nathaniel J. Walker, Albany, N. Y.
- INDUSTRIAL SAFETY, National Council for. Chicago, October 13-15. Sec'y, W. H. Cameron, c/o Continental and Commercial National Bank, Chicago.
- MUNICIPAL IMPROVEMENT, American Society of. Boston, Mass., October 6-9. Sec'y, Charles C. Brown, Wulsin Building, Indianapolis, Ind.
- PRISON ASSOCIATION, American. St. Paul, Minn., October 3-8. Sec'y, Joseph P. Byers, Trenton, N. J.
- PUBLIC EMPLOYMENT OFFICES, American Association of. Indianapolis, Ind., Sept. 24-25. Sec'y, William M. Leiserson, 17-18 Fairchild Block, Madison, Wis.
- SCHOOL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION, American. Philadelphia, September 22-29. Sec'y, Dr. Thomas A. Storey, College of the City of New York, N. Y.
- SOCIAL HYGIENE ASSOCIATION, American. Held in connection with the Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis. Assembly Hall of the Metropolitan Life Building, New York, October 9-10. Sec'y, Dr. Donald R. Hooker, Baltimore, Md.

LATER MEETINGS

INTERNATIONAL

- CHILDREN'S WELFARE, International Congress for. Amsterdam, Netherlands, 1914. President, Dr. Treub, Huygenstratt 106, Amsterdam, Holland.
- CHRISTIAN CITIZENSHIP CONFERENCE, Third World's. First week in July, 1916. Sec'y, Rev. T. D. Edgar, Wilkinsburg, Pa.
- HYGIENICS CONGRESS, International. New York City. About September 20, 1915.
- PRISON CONGRESS, Quinquennial. London, England, July 26, 1915. Sec'y, F. Simon Van der Aa, Groningen, Holland.

NATIONAL

- CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, National Conference of. Forty-second annual meeting. Baltimore, Md., Spring, 1915. Gen. Sec'y, William T. Cross, 315 Plymouth Court, Chicago.
- CONSUMERS' LEAGUE, National. Fifteenth Annual Meeting. Washington, D. C., December 10-11. Gen. Sec'y, Mrs. Florence Kelley, 106 E. 19th Street, New York.
- INDUSTRIAL EDUCATION, National Society for the Promotion of. Richmond, Va., week beginning December 7, 1914. Sec'y, C. A. Prosser, 140 West 43rd Street, New York.
- INFANT MORTALITY, American Association for Study and Prevention of. Fifth Annual Meeting. Boston, Mass., November 12-14. Exec. Sec'y, Miss Gertrude B. Knipp, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore, Md.
- JEWISH WOMEN, Council of. Seventh Triennial. New Orleans, La., December, 1914. Exec. Sec'y, Miss Sadie American, 448 Central Park West, New York.
- MUNICIPAL LEAGUE, National. Baltimore, Md., November 17-21. Sec'y, Clinton Rogers Woodruff, North American Bldg., Philadelphia, Pa.
- PUBLIC HEALTH ASSOCIATION, American. Jacksonville, Fla., November 30 to December 5. Sec'y, Prof. S. M. Gunn, 755 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.
- STUDENT PROHIBITION CONVENTION, National. Topeka, Kansas. December 20, 1914, to January 1, 1915. Exec. Sec'y, Harry S. Warner, 156 W. Washington St., Chicago.
- WORKERS FOR THE BLIND, American Association of. San Francisco, Cal., 1915.

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STATE AND LOCAL

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Iowa State Conference of. Fort Dodge, Ia., November 15-17. Sec'y, P. S. Peirce, State University, Iowa City, Ia.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Kansas State Conference of. Lawrence, Kan., November 19-21. Sec'y, E. W. Burgess, Lawrence, Kansas.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Maryland State Conference of. Easton, Md., November, 1914. Sec'y, Wm. H. Davenport, 514 Garrett Bldg., Baltimore, Md.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Missouri State Conference of. Springfield, Mo., November 1-3. Sec'y, Oscar Leonard, 901 Carr Street, St. Louis, Mo.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, New York State Conference of. Utica, N. Y., November 17-19. Sec'y, R. W. Wallace, Box 17, The Capitol, Albany, N. Y.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Ohio State Conference of. 24th Annual Conference. Columbus, O., November 11-13. Sec'y, H. H. Shiner, 1010 Hartman Building, Columbus, O.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Pennsylvania State Conference of. Harrisburg, Pa., November 17-19. Sec'y, James Struthers Heberling, Redington, Pa.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Texas State Conference of. San Antonio, Texas, November 15-17. Sec'y, R. J. Newton, State Capitol, Austin, Texas.

CHARITIES AND CORRECTION, Virginia State Conference of. Bristol, Va., Fall of 1914. Sec'y, Joseph T. Mastin, State Board of Charities and Corrections, Richmond, Va.

CHARITIES, Massachusetts State Conference of. Boston, Mass., November 10-12. Sec'y, Parker B. Field, 279 Tremont Street, Boston, Mass.

PROBATION OFFICERS, New York State Conference of. Seventh annual meeting. Hotel Utica, Utica, N. Y., November 15-17. Further information may be secured by addressing Charles L. Chute, Sec'y, State Probation Commission, Albany, N. Y.

EXHIBITIONS

INTERNATIONAL

GERMAN ARTISANS' EXPOSITION. Cologne, May-October, 1914.

HYGIENE, Exposition of. Stuttgart, Germany. Middle of May to end of October, 1914.

PANAMA-PACIFIC EXPOSITION. San Francisco, Cal., February 20-December 4, 1915. Social Economy Department—Alvin E. Pope, San Francisco, Cal.

PANAMA-CALIFORNIA EXPOSITION. San Diego, Cal., January 1-December 31, 1915. Director of Exhibits, E. L. Hewett, San Diego, Cal.

SAFETY AND SANITATION. Second International Exposition of. Grand Central Palace, December 12-19. Under direction of the American Museum of Safety, 29 West 39th St., New York.

URBAN EXPOSITION, International. Lyons, France. May 1-November 1, 1914. General Director, Dr. Jules Courmont, Hotel de Ville, Lyons, France.

NATIONAL

SOUTHERN HEALTH EXHIBITION, with American Public Health Association convention, Jacksonville, Fla., November 27 to December 7.

STATE AND LOCAL

COMMERCIAL AND INDUSTRIAL EXPOSITION, Grand Central Palace, New York, September 5-20. Information may be secured by addressing F. J. Oppenheimer, 500 Fifth Avenue, New York.

SOCIAL SURVEY EXHIBIT, Lawrence, Kansas. In conjunction with meeting of Kansas League of Municipalities, October 6-8. F. W. Blackmar, director

INFORMATION DESK

The following national bodies will gladly and freely supply information and advise reading on the subjects named by each and on related subjects. Members are kept closely in touch with the work which each organizes is doing, but membership is not required of those seeking information. Correspondence is invited. Always enclose postage for reply.

Children

CHILD LABOR—National Child Labor Committee, 105 East 22d St., New York. Owen R. Lovejoy, Sec'y. 25 State Branches. Where does your state stand? How can you help? List of pamphlets and reports free. Membership fee nominal.

CHILD HELPING—Department of Child-Helping, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22d St., New York. Correspondence, printed matter and counsel relative to institutions for children, child placing, infant mortality care of crippled children, Juvenile Courts, etc.

CHILD WELFARE EXHIBITS—National Child Welfare Exhibition Committee, 200 Fifth Ave., New York, Charles F. Powlison, Gen. Sec'y, Anna Louise Strong, Director of Exhibits. Bulletins covering Results, Organization, Cost, Construction, etc., of Child Welfare Exhibits. Will assist cities in organization and direction. Exhibit material to loan.

CONSERVATION OF INFANT LIFE—American Assoc. for Study and Prevention of Infant Mortality, 1211 Cathedral St., Baltimore. Gertrude B. Knipp, Exec. Sec'y. Literature on request. Traveling Exhibit. Urges prenatal instruction; adequate obstetrical care; birth registration; maternal nursing; infant welfare consultations.

Health

SCHOOL HYGIENE—American School Hygiene Association. Pres., Dr. Henry M. Bracken, Chairman State Board of Health, St. Paul, Minn. Sec'y, Thomas A. Storey, M.D., College of the City of New York, New York. Yearly congresses and proceedings.

MENTAL HYGIENE—National Committee for Mental Hygiene, 50 Union Square, New York City, Clifford W. Beers, Sec'y. Write for pamphlets on mental hygiene, prevention of insanity, care of insane, social service in mental hygiene, State Societies for Mental Hygiene.

PUBLIC HEALTH—American Public Health Association, Pres., Wm. C. Woodward, Washington; Sec'y, S. M. Gunn, Boston. Founded for the purpose of advancing the cause of public health and prevention of disease. Five sections: Laboratory, Vital Statistics, Municipal Health Officers, Sanitary Engineering and Sociological. Official organ American Journal of Public Health, \$3.00 a year published monthly. 3 months' subscription, 50 cents. Address 755 Boylston St., Boston, Mass.

SEX HYGIENE—Society of Sanitary and Moral Prophylaxis, 105 West 40th St., New York City. Edward L. Keyes, Jr., President. Six educational pamphlets, 10c each. Quarterly Journal, devoted to sex education, \$1.00 per year. Dues—Active, \$2.00; Contributing, \$5.00; Sustaining, \$10.00. Membership includes current and subsequent literature. Maintains lecture bureau.

NATIONAL ORGANIZATION FOR PUBLIC HEALTH NURSING—Object: to stimulate the extension of public health nursing; to develop standards of technique; to maintain a central bureau of information. Publications: Pub. Health Nursing Quarterly, \$1.00 per year, and bulletins. Address Ella Phillips Crandall, B. N. Exec. Sec., 54 East 34th St., New York City.

LIFE EXTENSION INSTITUTE, Inc., E. E. Rittenhouse, Pres. Gives life extension service to subscribers. Service No. 1 \$3.00 a year; Service No. 2 \$5.00 a year. Consists of periodic health examinations, inspection service, and health bulletins on disease prevention. Head office 25 West 43th St., New York City. Phone—Bryant 1997—1998.

NATIONAL HEALTH—Committee of One Hundred on National Health. E. F. Robbins, Exec. Sec., Room 51, 105 East 22d St., New York. To unite all government health agencies into a National Department of Health to inform the people how to prevent disease.

TUBERCULOSIS—National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, 105 East 22d St., New York. Charles J. Hatfield, M.D., Exec. Sec'y. Reports, pamphlets, etc., sent upon request. Annual transactions and other publications free to members.

SOCIAL HYGIENE—The American Social Hygiene Association (Inc.), 105 W. 40th St., New York. Div. Offices: Chicago, McCormick Bldg.; San Francisco, Phelan Bldg. Full information on request. Individual and society membership. The Association is organized to promote sound sex education, the reduction of venereal diseases, and the suppression of commercialized vice. President, Charles W. Eliot, Executives, James B. Reynolds, Counsel; William F. Snow, M.D., Gen'l Sec'y.

CANCER—American Society for the Control of Cancer, 289 Fourth Ave., New York City. Curtis E. Lakeman, Exec. Sec'y. To disseminate knowledge concerning symptoms, diagnosis, treatment and prevention. Publications free on request. Annual membership dues \$5.

Employment Exchange

SOCIAL WORKERS' EMPLOYMENT EXCHANGE—The Department for Social Workers of the Intercollegiate Bureau of Occupations registers properly qualified men and women for positions in social, religious and civic work. The needs of organizations seeking workers are given careful and prompt attention. Emma P. Hirth, Manager, 130 East 22d Street, New York City.

Libraries

AMERICAN LIBRARY ASSOCIATION—Furnishes information about organizing libraries, planning library buildings, training librarians, cataloging libraries, etc. A. L. A. Booklist, a monthly annotated magazine on book selection, is a valuable guide to the best new books. List of publications on request. George B. Utley, Executive Secretary, 78 E. Washington St., Chicago.

Aid for Travelers

AID FOR TRAVELERS—The Travelers' Aid Society provides advice, guidance and protection to travelers, especially women and girls, who need assistance. It is non-sectarian and its services are free irrespective of race, creed, class or sex. For literature address Orin C. Baker, Gen. Sec'y, 238 East 48th Street, New York City.

Remedial Loans

REMEDIAL LOANS—National Federation of Remedial Loan Associations, 130 E. 22nd St., N. Y. Arthur H. Ham. Reports, pamphlets, and forms for societies free. Information regarding organization of remedial loan societies gladly given.

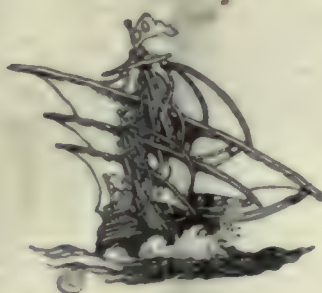
Recreation

SOURCES OF INFORMATION ON RECREATION—A classified list of significant publications on recreation giving publisher, price, and printed description. Cities issuing reports on recreation administration are also included. Price 10 cents. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22nd Street, New York City.

RECREATION—Playground and Recreation Association of America, 1 Madison Ave., New York City. Howard S. Braucher, Sec'y. Play, playgrounds, public recreation. Monthly magazine, *The Playground*, \$2 a year.

21.0

THE SURVEY



WAR AND THE SOCIAL MOVEMENT

By John Haynes Holmes

ECLIPSE OF RELIGION UNDER THE SHADOW OF WAR

By Graham Taylor

THE WAY OF THE TRANSGRESSOR IN A CLOSED-SHOP CITY

By John A. Fitch

SURVEY ASSOCIATES

INCORPORATED

PUBLICATION OFFICE
105 East 22d Street
New York

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Arthur P. Kellogg, Secretary Frank Tucker, Treasurer

WESTERN OFFICE
116 South Michigan Ave.
Chicago

Vol. XXXII, No. 26

Contents

September 26, 1914

THE COMMON WELFARE

COLORADO MINERS ACCEPT PRESIDENT'S TRUCE PLAN	625
GERMANY'S PROMPT MEASURES FOR WAR RELIEF	625
MUNICIPAL EMPLOYEES ASK FOR LOWER SALARIES	626
SCHOLARSHIP FUNDS AND COMPULSORY EDUCATION	626
THE BOY SCOUTS AND THE BILL BOARDS	627
HONOLULU'S COMPLICATED VICE PROBLEM	627
THE CHILD WORKER IN THE CENSUS REPORT OF 1910, E. N. Clopper	628
WAR AND THE SOCIAL MOVEMENT, John Haynes Holmes	629
ECLIPSE OF RELIGION UNDER THE SHADOW OF WAR, Graham Taylor	630

"THE HOUSE OF BONDAGE," a poem	Ether Morton Smith	631
--	--------------------	-----

INDUSTRY

THE WAY OF THE TRANSGRESSOR IN A CLOSED-SHOP CITY	John A. Fitch	632
---	---------------	-----

HEALTH

HOSPITALS FOR ADVANCED CASES OF TUBERCULOSIS	Theodore B. Sachs, M.D.	634
THE PRACTICAL PROBLEMS OF BOVINE TUBERCULOSIS		635
RACIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND NEGRO PROGRESS		635

BOOK REVIEWS		637
------------------------	--	-----

COMMUNICATIONS		643
--------------------------	--	-----

JOTTINGS		644
--------------------	--	-----

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THE SURVEY

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The GIST of IT—

THE Colorado miners have accepted President Wilson's peace plan without reservation. The employers have asked and been granted a hearing this week at the White House. Page 625.

WHO cares a fig about the social movement in war times? War is bitter fruit for those who have been patient in waiting for advance and must now bide their time through the reconstruction period. It should make a peace fanatic of the social worker, argues Dr. Holmes. Page 629.

CHURCH societies have passed resolutions and prayed for peace while, in the name of God, the nations of Europe have rushed to war, blessed by their priests. Individual religious convictions have been shown to be inconsequential, writes Professor Taylor. Religious forces must learn to mobilize, to think in collectivist terms. Page 630.

WIVES of German soldiers have been given their husbands' jobs and wages as street car conductors. Special pension funds have been started, food prices regulated, business credits entrenched. Germany is systematically looking after its own in war times. Page 625.

EMPLOYEES of the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare asked that their salaries be cut 25 per cent to help the board over a tight financial year. Page 626.

CHILD labor statistics from the Census of 1910, just issued—special extra, four years late—show substantial gains. The total number of workers under sixteen years of age remains at almost two million, and there has been an increase in agricultural pursuits. But in non-agricultural pursuits, where the child labor movement has centered, there is an actual falling off of 129,000—three army corps. Page 628.

THE Boy Scouts are "doing a good turn daily" on 10,000 bill boards in the face of gods and men and anti-bill board reformers. Page 627.

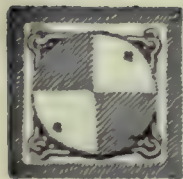
POLYNESIAN and Japanese women and 8,000 troops in garrison complicate the vice problem in Honolulu, recently surveyed under the auspices of a girls' school. Page 626.

LABOR and capital were completely at loggerheads over collective bargaining at the second week's hearings in San Francisco of the Industrial Relations Commission. Page 632.

CHICAGO and Cook county have gone ahead by leaps and bounds in their care for the tuberculous. Page 634.

NEW YORK state has put a competent commission at work on a thorough study of the relation of bovine to human tuberculosis. Page 635.

THE SURVEY



COMMON WELFARE



COLORADO MINERS ACCEPT PRESIDENT'S TRUCE PLAN

PRESIDENT WILSON's proposal of a three-year truce in the Colorado coal fields was unreservedly accepted by officials of the United Mine Workers of America on September 15. The acceptance was ratified the next day by the Colorado miners, but not without spirited internal opposition.

At a meeting of the Colorado miners an insurgent element, led by J. E. Macdonald, a delegate, wanted to have the plan submitted to the membership for a referendum vote, but the motion was tabled. James Lord, president of the mining department of the American Federation of Labor, urged immediate and decisive action, declaring that this was "the greatest opportunity that had ever crossed the path of the working class." The peace terms were accepted by a vote of 83 to 8.

In their letter notifying the President of their acceptance of his proposal, officials of the United Mine Workers said:

"We are profoundly impressed with what you say and fully conscious of the fact that in submitting this basis of settlement you are actuated only by feelings of public concern. . . .

"It is our judgment that employers and employes through their chosen representatives ought to meet and settle their differences by mutual agreement. A direct working agreement entered into in a friendly spirit makes for abiding, permanent industrial peace. . . . However, we are mindful of the suffering and waste which this strike has thus far imposed and the additional sacrifice which will be made if it continues."

Rejection of the President's proposal by the Colorado Fuel and Iron Company was contained in a letter to the President made public September 22. While declaring itself in hearty accord with some of the truce provisions, the company vigorously objected to others, and stated that it was preparing a comprehensive plan for peace. The reply of the other coal companies was made separately, and had not been made public when *THE SURVEY* went to press. Representatives of all the companies arranged to meet with the President on September 23.

Especially objection was made by the

Colorado Fuel and Iron Company to the re-employment of "all striking miners who have not been found guilty of violation of the law," on the ground that this might require taking back more men than are needed and that many strikers are still under indictment.

Commenting on the responsibility now resting upon the operators, the *New York Evening Post* says:

"They must realize that the agreement proposed is so sincere an attempt at impartiality and justice that any recalcitrancy on their part will earn them national censure," and quotes the *Pueblo Chieftain* as declaring that the President's letter is "the first step of a determined move to bring about peace in Colorado, even though it has to be forced on the miner and the operator alike."

The *New York Sun* refers rather slightly, however, to the peace plan as a "gentleman's agreement," to be enforced by "the personal skill and power of the President of the United States, operating through an extra-legal device" which, while gratifying to philanthropic sentiment, is "opposed to every instinct of self-government."



THE WIDOW

From a photograph of the painting of the German artist, Hermann Groeber.

GERMANY'S PROMPT MEASURES FOR WAR RELIEF

ADVICES FROM Germany were not available to include in Professor Taylor's article on Social Measures Prompted by the War, published in *THE SURVEY* of September 12. Supplementing the information personally gleaned by him abroad, this note contains the first data received in this country since the war censorship was established, and gives specific intelligence regarding internal conditions in Germany.

The information was furnished to the *Chicago Daily News* by its staff correspondent in Berlin, Raymond E. Swing, whose diary notes covering the first week of the war are a most sympathetic interpretation of the attitude of the German government and the spirit of the German people.

Under date of August 13 Mr. Swing writes:

Berlin, except for the restlessness of its street crowds, has been the Berlin of its quietest day. There has been no confusion, no wild disorder since the few unruly days, no harrowing scenes of misery and grief. This means that every detail was worked out in advance, every man in Germany knew where his place was, and what he should do there. For years great minds have been thinking these things out. The plan worked.

The military mobilization is not so astonishing as the financial and economic mobilization. Germany is the only country in Europe which has not closed its bank, declared a moratorium and seen its economic life crumbled up like the ashes of a burned rag. The war had hardly started before the Reichstag voted, not only the war credit, but nearly twenty laws which will make economic existence and speedy and efficient relief in these next months possible. The shrewdest of them empowers the upper house to wipe out the stock exchange indebtedness of July, which sets the exchange back where it was before the terrible panic occurred.

The various city councils of greater Berlin acted in extraordinary session. Berlin voted a war credit of 6,000,000 marks to be used to provide the city with food. Twenty-three commissioners were appointed to care for the soldiers' families who might be in need. The



*Donkey in the
Cleveland Plain Dealer*

THE NON-COMBATANTS

pension bill supplemented the government pension by duplicating the relief of nine marks in summer. Schoeneberg voted 1,000,000 marks for the same purpose. Charlottensburg and Wilmersdorf took the same step. The latter municipality voted 200,000 marks to pay the rent of soldiers' families in need and 300,000 marks for the relief of business embarrassed by the war.

The food question was faced squarely in Berlin, where 10,000 tons of flour were purchased to supplement the 12,000 tons in store when the war broke out. After the seventh day of mobilization the government put railway trains at the disposal of the various municipalities to bring food supplies to the cities. The military authorities at once fixed food prices to avoid extortion. Shops refusing to recognize these prices could be closed. In all business paper money had to be accepted at its face value.

Response to the appeals for relief work and the Red Cross was immediate. The Kaiser founded a fund for the relief of families killed in the war by subscribing 100,000 marks himself. All the great names of Germany's industrial corporations appeared in the subscription list. Many corporations continued the salaries of employees who have gone to war. The Berlin street car company employed women conductors, selecting the wives of soldiers who have been in their employ and paying them their husbands' salaries. Everywhere women can be used they are called in to replace their husbands. Even the fire department is engaging women.

It would be absurd to deny that the very life of Germany has changed to the roots in these times. The spirit is unanimous and deeply moving. German people are as great in war as in peace.

MUNICIPAL EMPLOYEES ASK FOR LOWER SALARIES

THREE THOUSAND seven hundred and thirty-seven dollars were donated to the Kansas City Board of Public Welfare this year by employees of the board itself. In other words, when it was learned that the municipal appropriation of \$134,460.77 would not be sufficient to finance the undertakings of the board, the employees brought forward a petition for a general reduction of 25 per cent in all salaries during the last two and a half months of the year.

The pioneer effort in America to consolidate various city departments under one head, the board is a prison association, a people's institute, a labor exchange, a factory inspection bureau and many other bureaus rolled into one. Its work, which was described at length in THE SURVEY for January 24, 1914, has grown steadily in volume, and constantly spreads into new channels.

The recent report of the board for 1914, for example, shows an increase of 1,304 cases handled by the Legal Aid Bureau over those handled last year; an increase of 532 jobs secured by the Employment Bureau; an increase of 207 cases treated by the Social Service Department; an increase of 402 dances inspected by the Recreation Department; 122 more lectures held for social workers; 131 more social center meetings promoted, and an increased aggregate attendance at these meetings of 10,315 people. In the Parole Department an increase of \$5,225.13 was collected from delinquent husbands in non-support cases.

A particularly big item in this year's report is the amount of relief tendered to homeless people owing to the unemployment situation. At the municipal quarry there was an increase of 7,792 "days' work" furnished; 5,307 more night's lodgings were given to outcasts, and 6,413 more free meals supplied.

Another interesting feature of the report is the fact that there was an increase of 53 men in the daily average number of men at the municipal farms. L. A. Halbert, the general superintendent of the board, explains this by "the great influx of Industrial Workers of the World into the city to enforce a demand that they be allowed to speak on the streets without any limitation in regard to overcrowding of the streets or the character of their utterances. This resulted in many arrests and the commitment of 83 adherents of this organization to the municipal farm to serve sentences of various lengths."

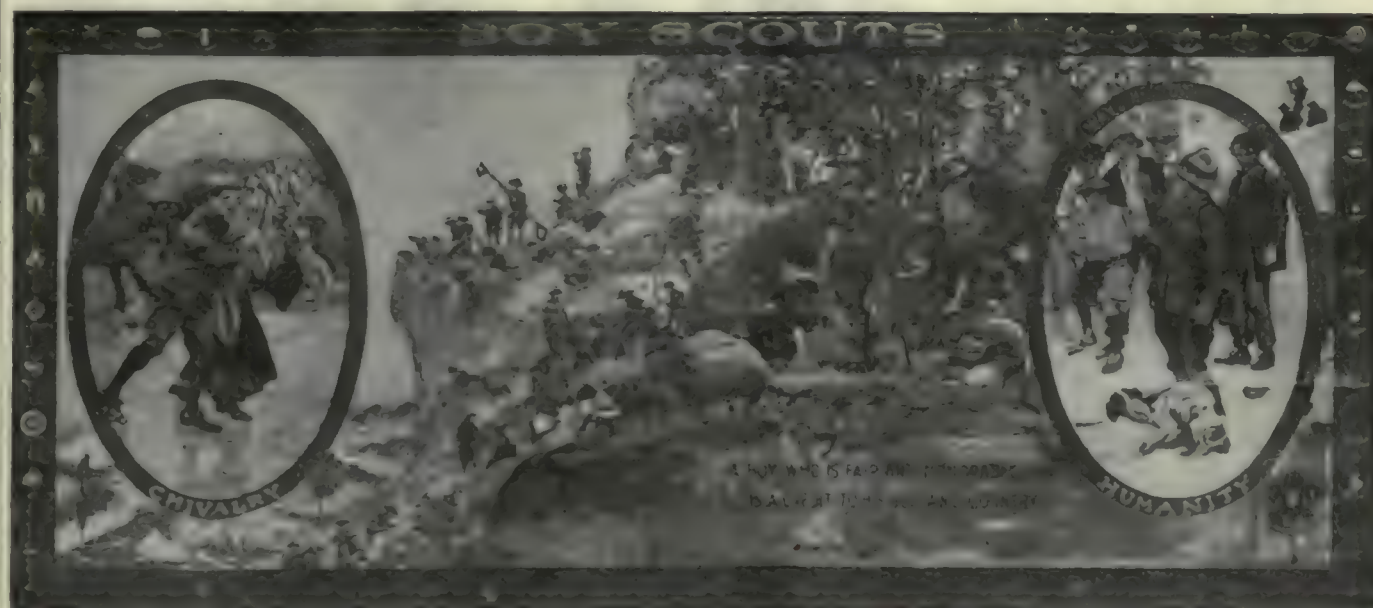
Censorship of picture films and supervision of skating rinks were added this year as new activities under the board. The only lines of work showing decreased results were housing and factory inspection which were sacrificed to provide for the absolutely unavoidable rise in other costs, especially that of maintaining prisoners. In order to take care of this increased work the city administration found it necessary to appropriate \$4,460.77 in addition to the regular budget of \$130,000. This, together with the \$3,737 donated by the employees, the value of \$1,589 given in services by the street department, and improved efficiency and economy have enabled the board to carry out its plan of work.

SCHOLARSHIP FUNDS AND COMPULSORY EDUCATION

SCHOLARSHIP FUNDS, which provide weekly allowances to the families of school children whose incomes have been cut off by death, illness or other mishap affecting the breadwinner, are familiar in several states. They have been devised as an essential link between compulsory education laws and laws prohibiting child labor. Now comes a noteworthy suggestion as to a source of these funds from the Rev. Allan Pressley Wilson, of Baltimore.

Mr. Wilson suggests that these scholarships be established in each school and that the funds be maintained through fines levied upon employers who violate the child labor law. For offenses of this nature he would impose heavy fines, second and third offenders paying proportionally larger amounts.

The administering of the funds Mr. Wilson would put into the hands of the juvenile court. One or more truant officers, he suggests, might be detailed to look after such cases, or a special officer provided for them.



IS THIS A BLOT ON THE LANDSCAPE?

The Boy Scouts of America believe that the benefits of bill board advertising outweigh its defects

THE BOY SCOUTS AND THE BILL BOARDS

CIVIC ORGANIZATIONS which contend that bill boards are a blot on the landscape, a nuisance to be tolerated, if at all, only under the strictest regulation, are faced with a growing use of them by social organizations. It will be remembered that officers of the Pittsburgh Civic Club protested against such use in *THE SURVEY* for March 21.

Since that time the Boy Scouts of America have gone into bill board advertising on a greater scale than any social agency has hitherto ventured. Some ten or twelve thousand copies of the poster reproduced in miniature on this page are being spread over the United States.

The expense of designing the picture, making the plates and all the costs involved have been met by the Posters Advertising Association—an outlay of about \$10,000, as a part of the association's recent policy to give its unoccupied space to religious and social subjects rather than to leave it blank or to carry over commercial posters whose terms have expired.

The case against the bill board has been frequently and forcibly put and has won many converts. The case for the use of bill boards in propaganda is thus put by James E. West, chief executive of the Boy Scouts of America:

"It was my privilege to meet with the Posters' Advertising Association at their annual convention this summer and to have the advantage of analyzing their attitude toward the so-called 'bill board nuisance,' as well as other matters pertaining to the interest of their organization. From the character of the papers read and discussions following same, and the definite action taken, I am convinced that perhaps the chairman of

the bill board committee of the Civic Club of Pittsburgh as well as others interested in the campaign against the so-called 'bill board nuisance' would find it profitable to familiarize themselves with the aims and objects of the Posters' Advertising Association.

"Certainly no one can argue that the benefits to the public by bill board advertising should be eliminated, but I think all will agree that a sane campaign in the interests of efficient bill board posting is desirable. This is exactly what the Posters' Advertising Association is seeking to do. Permit me to suggest that others interested in this problem consider the advantages of making headway with those particularly concerned rather than with a useless campaign of criticism and destruction."

Those who are working in the campaign against bill board advertising see in this free allotment of space to religious and social bodies an adroit move on the part of the bill posters to gain popular favor. It is a counter attack, they argue, that will doubtless delay bill board regulation materially.

HONOLULU'S COMPLICATED VICE PROBLEM

UNDER THE AUSPICES of the board of trustees of the Kaiulani Home for Girls, a committee of nine men and three women, aided by a trained investigator from New York, has spent the better part of a year looking into the social evil in Honolulu, Hawaii.

Iwilei, Honolulu's "red light district," is suffered to exist by the police contrary to law, says the committee in its report. But "by far the larger part of commercialized vice and the extensive clandestine prostitution known to exist . . . is carried on outside of Iwilei."

Owing to the open-air conditions and the presence of many races with their peculiar habits, it was found impossible

to ascertain the number of women engaged in prostitution, but "it is apparent that the evil is very widespread, that social vice in Honolulu is most insidious and that its virus affects family life more extensively than one who has not given the subject, careful study would suspect."

The report assures us that venereal disease "causes here as elsewhere one-third of all the blindness, more than one-half the sterility and 60 to 75 per cent of the gynecological operations performed upon chaste married women. Gonorrhoea is more prevalent here among children under ten than in any place known to the co-operating physicians on our committee."

The committee found that the extent of the social evil is due partly to the moral codes of the native Polynesians and the Japanese (Japanese women over fifteen outnumber the natives two to one) and partly to the presence of 8,000 men of our army and navy.

Insisting upon a scientific policy of combatting the evil, the committee says that the campaign against it "must be many sided, it must plan for a persistent prosecution to cover many decades if not centuries. It must be inherently just and sane, and must advance step by step towards its culmination."

The first move must be the abandonment of the prostitute quarter; the next a "red light injunction law."

Other laws restraining landlords, husbands and parents are advocated, and finally comes a list of "prophylactic social measures" designed to check the evil. Among these are minimum wage and model child labor laws, the wider use of school plants, a municipal theater, a vocational boarding school, home and school education in sex hygiene and more adequate public playgrounds.

folks	āsh'ēs	plūck'y	Saun'ders
clerk	wāg'ēs	ād vānce'	āe cūs'tomed
weight	Bōs'ton	coun'ter	pōck'et bōok
straight	quar'ter	grāve'l'y	āp pēal'ing

A PLUCKY BOY

A little boy came into a store and marched straight up to the counter.

"Well, my little man," said the merchant, "what will you have to-day?"

"Oh, please, sir, may I do some work for you?"

The merchant looked down on Robert's appealing face, and into his bright blue eyes. He was not accustomed to talk with boys, and Robert was not seven years old yet, and was small for a boy of that age.

"You want to do some work for me, do you?" asked the merchant, kindly. "I like boys that want to work; but what kind of work can you do, my little man? Why, you are not tall enough to look over the counter."

"I am growing, please, sir, growing very fast; there, see if I can not look over the

counter!" said the boy, standing on his toes.

The merchant tried to look over the counter at the boy's feet. He could not see the little toes. Then he went round the counter, and came to where the boy was standing.

"I will get nearer to you," said he, gravely,



"that I may see how you look and how large you are." And he looked at Robert for a long time.

"I am older than I look, sir," said the little fellow. "Folks say I am very small for a boy of my age."

"How old are you?" asked the merchant.

60

61

THE CHILD WORKER IN THE CENSUS REPORT OF 1910—BY E. N. CLOPPER, NATIONAL CHILD LABOR COMMITTEE

THE DECREASE in the number of children from ten to fifteen years old engaged in non-agricultural pursuits is one fact in the report of the Bureau of the Census on occupation statistics for 1910, just issued, which is cause for rejoicing. The total number of children so employed was 558,971, and the decrease from the figures of 1900 was 129,236. After a long and unnecessary delay, due to Congressional economy, official facts about the human element in industry, not as to conditions as they are now, however, but as they were more than four years ago, have been made public.

The report is concerned only with the occupations of persons ten years of age and over. Information about the employment of children under ten years was gathered by the enumerators and may be made available later. It is customary in the United States to class as child laborers all children under sixteen years of age who are at work, but the census reports only those from ten to fifteen years inclusive. Of these it states there were 1,990,225 in all occupations. Those from ten to thirteen years of age numbered 895,976.

Of the nearly two million children from ten to fifteen years of age, 1,425,362 were reported as engaged in agricultural pursuits; nearly all of these

were returned as laborers on farms and in dairies, gardens, greenhouses, nurseries and orchards. This is an increase of nearly 35 per cent over the corresponding figures for 1900, which the bureau believes was due to the difference in the basis of enumeration in the two censuses, rather than to any actual increase in the number at work, because the instructions to enumerators in 1910 as to noting occupations were much more explicit than formerly.

Because of the necessary limitations of census taking, these figures do not represent conditions even for the year 1910, but simply for the brief period in the month of April of that year when the information was gathered. Consequently the report contains some statistics that are clearly absurd when considered as representing general conditions. For example, only 49 children from ten to thirteen years of age are reported as employed in all the fruit and vegetable canneries of the entire country because very few such establishments are in operation in April, and this is all the more misleading in view of the specific authorization to employ such children granted to this industry by several states. Again, only 18 children from ten to fifteen years are returned as working in cranberry bogs because April is too early for cranberry gathering.

Among the surprising statements made is one to the effect that 355 little boys from ten to thirteen years of age were at work as laborers on steam railroads! And more than 2,000 from fourteen to fifteen years old were similarly employed! Several youngsters were entrusted with considerable responsibility in connection with the postal service, for the report states that there were at the time eight postmasters, fourteen or fifteen years old, nineteen mail carriers under fourteen, and three railway mail clerks under sixteen! Twenty-one boys and girls of the ripe age of ten to thirteen years are reported as school teachers! The federal government is charged with having had nineteen boys under fourteen years in its employ as messengers, many of whom were probably serving as pages in the United States Senate, for that august body has reserved to itself the right to employ these little boys under the child labor law of the District of Columbia. This law has a fourteen-year age limit, with a specific exemption for the United States Senate.

The bureau reports that as yet no statistics have been prepared on the occupations of children under ten years of age. These figures would be of intense interest, for such information has hitherto never been even collected. It is disturbing to think of little boys and girls, not yet ten years old, working for wages, yet this is actually held up to the children of the country, by one pow-

"I am almost seven," said Robert. "My mother has nobody but me, and this morning I saw her crying because she could not find five cents in her pocketbook.

"She thinks the boy who took the ashes stole it—and—I—have—not—had—any—breakfast, sir."

The merchant looked kindly at the boy. "I can help you to a breakfast, my little man," said he, feeling in his pocket. "There, will that quarter do?" The boy shook his head.

"Mother wouldn't let me beg, sir," was the answer.

"Where is your father?" asked the merchant.

"We never heard of him, sir, after he went away. He was lost on the *City of Boston*."

"Ah! that is bad. But you are a plucky fellow if you are small. Let me see," and he looked straight down into the boy's eyes, which were looking straight into his.

"Saunders," said he to a clerk, "is that cash boy still sick?"

"He is dead, sir; died last night," was the answer in a low tone.

"Ah, I am sorry to hear that. Well, here is a boy that can take his place."

Mr. Saunders looked up slowly,—he put his pen behind his ear,—then he glanced at both Robert and the merchant.

"Oh, I understand," said the merchant; "yes, he is small, very small indeed, but I like him. What did the other boy get?"

"Three dollars a week, sir," said the clerk.

"Put this boy down at four," said the merchant.

"There, my lad, give Mr. Saunders your name and run home. Tell your mother that you have a place at four dollars a week. Here's a dollar in advance; I'll take it out of your first week's wages."

"Work, sir—work all the time?"

"Yes, as long as you deserve it, my man."

If ever broken stairs trembled under the weight of a small boy, those in Robert's poor home did so that morning.

"I've got it, mother. I'm a cash boy! Four dollars a week! And here's a dollar for breakfast; and don't you ever cry again."

62

63

erful interest at least, as an example worthy of emulation. The American Book Company publishes the New McGuffey Third Reader which is widely used in American schools, and which contains a story entitled A Plucky Boy. This interesting lad, so the story runs, was only six years old and small for his age, yet he wanted to help his widowed mother and accordingly obtained permanent employment in a dry-goods store as a cash-boy at \$4 a week.

Several years ago one of the secretaries of the National Child Labor Committee protested to an officer of the American Book Company about the use of this story in a school book, and called attention to the modern attitude as expressed in child labor laws and provisions for both public and private relief. The officer replied that the lesson imparted by the story was valuable and so the sale of the book with this archaic and un-American tale continues.

we may add here, cares a fig about the social movement?

It was only a few months ago that I heard Walter Rauschenbusch, in the course of a speech at a public dinner, give urgent warning on this very point. He was trying to impress upon his hearers the obligation of unremitting endeavor in the prosecution of the great movements for political and industrial reform—the peril of undue patience in "biding our time"—the need of haste, as he put it. "At any moment," he said, among other things, "a great war may break upon us, and the social movement, as we know it today, will be dead for a generation, if not a century." And lo! with a suddenness and upon a scale which Professor Rauschenbusch could not have conceived even in darkest moments of foreboding, the war is here, and the social movement, along with art, literature, philosophy and religion, is indeed dead!

For who is talking in England today about national insurance, woman suffrage, or the breaking of the land monopoly? Who is interested in the enactment of the plural voting bill? What chance has Lloyd-George of living to complete his program of social legislation? Where is the campaign for franchise reform in Germany? Who cares about co-operation in Belgium, or syndicalism in France, or socialism anywhere? Is there an international labor movement any longer; and if there can

WAR AND THE SOCIAL MOVEMENT—BY JOHN HAYNES HOLMES, CHURCH OF THE MESSIAH, NEW YORK CITY

IN THE STORM and stress of the stupendous conflict now raging in Europe, it is inevitable that our attention should be absorbed by the more obvious horrors of the situation. Captured cities, burning harvest fields, desolate homes, bleeding men, weeping women and children—these are the things which are holding our interest to the exclusion of everything else. Yet there must be quiet moments, now and then, when we see more clearly and think more deeply than is possible in the hours of reading newspapers and watching bulletin boards.

Then it is that we begin to understand that there is a calamity in this warfare which is more permanently terrible than any of the surface incidents of the struggle. I refer to the awful fact that suddenly, as in the wink of an eye, three

hundred years of progress is cast into the melting-pot. Civilization is all at once gone, and barbarism come. And the one gone and the other come not for today merely, nor yet for the actual period of the armed conflict, but for years and perhaps generations thereafter.

As Harold Begbie put it recently, "Already now civilization stops—stops dead. . . . Religion, philosophy, literature, painting, and, chief of all perhaps, science, with its torch at the head of our human hosts, are suddenly flung backward; they become of no moment. Who wants to know about Immanence? Who cares to hear what Bergson and Eucken think? Who bothers about books and pictures? Who is ready to endow a laboratory or listen to the chemist and the biologist?" And who,

be said to be such a movement, what does it amount to?

Nor is it only in the countries immediately concerned in this awful struggle that the social movement has vanished. We are three thousand miles away from the smoke and flame of combat, and have not a single regiment or battleship involved. And yet—who in these United States is thinking at this moment of recreation centers, improved housing, or the minimum wage? Who is going to fight the battle for widows' pensions, push the campaign against child labor, or study exhaustively the problem of unemployment? Where is the strike in Colorado and the Industrial Relations Commission? What hope have the tuberculosis workers of selling their red seals this coming Christmas? What are the suffragists going to do to stir a ripple of interest in their cause? THE SURVEY itself, to me the most fascinating magazine now being published, is at this moment about as thrilling as last year's almanac; and I venture to prophesy that its columns will have only a little better chance of attracting public attention during the next twelve-month than my pulpit.

Nor can we hope for any revival of the social movement with the conclusion of the war. If, as now seems probable, the nations fight to the point of exhaustion, the question facing the world at the conclusion of peace will not be that of social progress at all, but simply and solely that of social survival! For days and weeks after the flood went through Dayton, the question before the community was exclusively that of feeding the hungry, clothing the naked, nursing the wounded, and cleaning the streets of mud, debris and wreckage. Only with the rebuilding of offices and homes, and the restoration of normal conditions of life, did the people give even a passing thought to issues of municipal reform and social betterment.

So with the civilized world, when "the grievousness of war" has at last swept by! With commerce disorganized, industry demoralized, wealth destroyed, fields wasted and cities razed, thousands of men slain and greater thousands wounded and crippled, multitudes everywhere perishing of starvation and wretchedness—the urgent problem for the moment will be that of keeping the world going; and for years to come that of rebuilding the shattered mechanism of civilization, creating new stores of wealth, breeding a new race of men—in a word, of recovering "by painful steps and slow" the ground gained by centuries of struggle and sacrifice, and lost, alas! in one black night of madness. Not for generations will the world's life again be normal, and men be free to think not merely of living, but of better living!

The situation is terrible! And yet; may it not be that this calamity, like every calamity, will work at last to final

and universal good? Can we not say today what Lincoln said in 1865, "The Almighty has his own purposes"? Too long have we left unsilenced and unrebuked the apologists for blood and iron. Too long have we regarded war as a passing incident and mayhap a partial good. But, now, if we do not hate this "sum of all villainies" with a perfect hatred, and highly resolve that the dead now rotting on the plains of Europe "shall not have died in vain," we are not even human!

From this moment on, every lover of civilization and servant of human kind—the social worker first among them all—must be a *peace fanatic*. He must seek for nothing before this, care for nothing above this, strive for everything through this. He must fight war as Cato fought Carthage, as Voltaire fought *L'enfer*, as Garrison fought slavery.

Nor must he be content to urge this

ECLIPSE OF RELIGION UNDER THE SHADOW OF WAR —BY GRAHAM TAYLOR

IN EVERY LAND upon which the shadow of war has fallen real religion is in eclipse. Once again Christendom is anti-Christian.

The London *Nation* with fearless frankness acknowledges that "In the second great home of Christendom, the words of Jesus, spoken to redeem mankind from just such a desolating crime as this, are as if they had never been said."

On the eve of the conflict the London *Times* editorially lamented that "for a moment at least, the religious reading of life seems to lack even the substance of a dream," while "most Christian potentates are gathering their forces throughout Europe to the shock of battle, and the Far East and the Far West are left, in their seclusion, to gaze upon the awful spectacle of a world in arms."

To be sure the warring emperors claim God to be on their side, in terms that would seem even more blasphemous if they were not so indicative of a medieval, if not pre-Christian, point of view and state of mind. What could more truly reveal this attitude than the Kaiser's call to arms? "Therefore to arms! We shall resist to the last breath of man and horse. Forward with God, who will be with us as he was with our ancestors. We may by the help of God so use our swords that when all is ended we can replace them in their scabbards with honor. And now I recommend you all to God. Go to church, kneel before him and pray that he may sustain our brave army."

What more naïve tribute to a tribal God was ever paid by the chief of a primitive clan than by the Kaiser's telegram to the crown princess: "I rejoice with thee over the first victory of Wilhelm. God has been on his side and has most brilliantly supported him. To

fight in the dilettante, academic, pink-tea, high-brow way too much practiced hitherto by the organized peace movement. He must join forces, without apology or reserve with Labor, and strike straight and sure not so much at war, as at the things which make war—first, militarism; second, political autocracy; and third, commercialism. The axe must be laid at the roots of the tree—which are armaments, dynasties, and exploitation.

And when, years hence, the works of civilization are restored and the voice of the social worker is again heard in the land, may it not be that he will see a changed world, wherein his task is easy? May it not be that he will look in vain for battleships and thrones and selfish business? And when he consults the history books, to discover when and how these things were wrought, may it not be that he will find himself reading of the War of the Nations in 1914?

him be thanks and honor."

The old emperor Francis Joseph, more feebly but no less certainly, re-echoes the claim of "God on our side."

True again, the churches of the warring nations did not fail to give some expression to their prayerful plea and hope for peace. Pope Pius X died with a prayer for peace upon his bating breath. His successor laments that "the war had aroused faithful against faithful, priest against priest, while the bishops of each country offered prayers each for the success of his own nation, yet victory for one side meant slaughter to the other, the destruction of children equally dear to the Holy Father's heart."

The Archbishop of Canterbury authorized and issued a form of public intercession, promising others as needed in due course, and appointing days of intercession. The state church buildings in all the lands at war, and other temples of the Prince of Peace also are thronged by departing troops and by the multitudes left behind in terrible suspense.

"Through all the world men and women" are described by the London *Times* as "invoking the aid of the God of Battle; priests and peoples of every nation are crying to their God that he is the Lord of Hosts, and that they alone are his chosen people; and today in every temple throughout Christendom, prayer goes up that the Prince of Peace may incline the scales of war." For the first time prayer for Christians is authorized in the Mohammedan mosques, and for the success of German arms, while in Dresden such prayer is prohibited at the English service which is held under police permit and censorship. But we query with the *Times*, "Where, in this return to chaos, are we to discern the workings of any 'power making for

righteousness'?"

Some Protestant church bodies, indeed, continued to protest against war and the spread of it, to the end of those fateful days during which the rulers of nation after nation kept on declaring war against each other. The men of these church fellowships were urged by their National Brotherhood Council and Adult School Union "at once to speak out strongly on the terrible outrage to humanity and the menacing challenge to Christianity involved in a European war, which tramples on Christianity in the heart of Christendom and betrays the name of Christ and the cause of human fellowship before the whole world."

The National Council of Evangelical Free Churches as late as August 5, upon the outbreak of war, which was referred to as "a crime and horror," issued a call for daily united prayer for peace, and called upon the churches "steadily to foster those more generous and humane sentiments which war so ruthlessly destroys, and to inculcate the duties of self-restraint and mutual consideration."

On their return from the first International Conference of the Churches in the Interests of Universal Peace at Constance, the English representatives formally expressed themselves as "dismayed beyond measure at the thought that England may be involved in the cataclysm of the present conflict," and

"for the sake of the land we love and our brethren of other lands, in the name of the God of our common worship, we appeal to our fellow countrymen not to despair, even at this hour, of discovering a just and peaceful solution." These men also represented the Anglo-German Friendship Committee, which, in both its German and British councils, included the most influential clerical and lay leaders of all the churches in both lands.

All this sounds, as an American remarked, "like passing resolutions on the conservation of natural resources on the edge of a prairie fire." It surely humbles those within the churches, who have been wont to overestimate the influence of religion as ministered by them, now to realize how little influence the churches really had in averting or withstanding this overthrow of their highest ideals and sternest standards. Were they any more influential than the brave Socialists in their anti-war manifestos? It discovers the weakness of the hope and the greatness of the need of "evangelizing the world in a single generation" to find how little of the world has been really evangelized. It discloses how futile has been the summons and dependence upon "the church" to stand out apart from and against the national and economic system of our times, as though its members were consciously and organically apart from the life and spirit of their age, or were not

involved in the errors and sins of their generation.

And yet never in the history of the church or the world have the sanity and stability of Jesus' attitude against war and for peace, against self-seeking and for human brotherhood, been more completely demonstrated than by the logic of events, ground out between the diplomatic premises and the terrible conclusions of this war.

If the churches are taught anything thereby, it is to realize how inconsequential exclusively individual religious convictions have proved to be; it is to learn "to think in collectivist terms," as the British nation is said to have suddenly and instinctively begun to think; it is to feel the necessity and acquire the art of mobilizing religious forces and resources, as rapidly and effectively in the interests of peace and progress as the war lords have succeeded in mobilizing their military and naval reserves for the destruction of civilization.

Behind their awful shadows which for the moment have eclipsed the very sun of righteousness, its light still shines serenely and omnipotent, and in that sun there is still to be discerned the form, not of any victorious nation, but the form "like unto the Son of Man," the Prince of Peace. The Hebrew seer foresaw that such as he should be "for an ensign to the people," "the Desire of all Nations," "unto whom the gathering of the peoples shall be."

"THE HOUSE OF BONDAGE"

Esther Morton Smith

THE CRY

GOD of the nameless thousand,
Hopeless and sick of soul,
Crushed in a horror worse than death,
Ruined and wronged till their last drawn breath,
Just God, is this the whole?

Thou Who art Love and Power,
Purity's self Who art,
Lo, where Thine image lies defiled,
That Thou didst fashion as Thy child,
Out of Thy mighty heart!

Thou Who art very Father,
To Thy created race,
Deep in those anguished haunts of hell,
Where shame itself is too pure to dwell,
Hast Thou a dwelling-place?

THE ANSWER

WHERE SO the cry is bitter,
Where so the need is sore,
Thou who wouldst find Me, follow Me,
Travail and toil I offer thee,
Yet with My freedom to be free,
Now, and forever more.

Thou who wouldst find Me, follow,
Into the gates of sin;
Stretch out thy hand, though all seem lost,
Pour out thy love, nor count the cost,
Lo, I am there, within!

INDUSTRY

THE WAY OF THE TRANSGRESSOR IN A CLOSED-SHOP CITY—By JOHN A. FITCH

THE SECOND WEEK of the hearings in San Francisco before the United States Commission on Industrial Relations found representatives of organized labor in that closed-shop city taking the stand to defend their movement against the furious attacks of the employers who had appeared as witnesses. Nowhere in any of the commission hearings have the tactics of the unions been so vigorously and at the same time so specifically scored as in the week of August 31.

The week began with something of a flutter of excitement, for the first witness was James H. Hough, president of the First National Bank at Stockton, who had figured prominently in the testimony of the preceding week. Hough denied having forced Eaves, the laundryman, to join the Merchants, Manufacturers and Employers' Association of Stockton by exerting financial pressure. He was not asked, however, whether he had sent a message to the editor of the *Stockton Record*, threatening him with loss of advertising if he did not change the policy of the paper, as had been charged by F. L. Kincaid; and he left the stand after a very brief examination, without having volunteered any information on that subject.

The first general subject of the week's inquiry was labor conditions in construction camps. The first witness was W. S. Wollner, from the office of the chief engineer of the Northwestern Pacific Railroad. He expressed himself as believing that conditions in construction camps ought to be made as satisfactory as possible, but he was opposed to the activities of the California Commission on Immigration and Housing, which has been trying to improve sanitary conditions in the camps. He declared that the men would not use baths if they were established, but if they were used they would be potent factors in the spread of disease. He also objected to efforts of the commission to establish a minimum of 500 cubic feet of air space for each individual in sleeping quarters. "Men don't want air in sleeping quarters," he said, "they get all they need in the day time working out of doors."

Wollner then went in some detail into the subject of the cost of living. "So far as I know," he said, "the minimum wage on railroad contract work is \$2 per day, and the maximum board charge is 75 cents, which would leave the laborer \$1.25 clear from which, if he did not use liquor, he would merely have to buy his clothes and tobacco. I should say that the average cost of the construction laborer living in a city during a

Probing the Causes of Unrest

XIV

The fourteenth of a series of interpretations of the hearings before the Federal Industrial Relations Commission by a staff representative of The Survey.



period of unemployment does not exceed 35 or 40 cents a day . . . so that for each day he was employed, he would be able to support himself during four or five days of unemployment.

A man can obtain lodging in San Francisco for 10 cents a night, and I would like to say here that one of my grievances against the Immigration Commission is that they are making us, or trying to make us, furnish better living quarters to men in construction camps than they use of their own volition when they come to the city."

Wollner told of a scheme which he has worked out of keeping labor constantly employed on railroad work. He proposes a central employment bureau, which would, of course, be acquainted with the needs of the entire system. It could move gangs of laborers from point to point as needed. The present custom, according to his statement, involves laying men off on one section of a railroad because the job is completed, when at the very time on another section laborers are badly needed and hard to get.

F. M. Andreani, in charge of the immigration office and legal bureau of the Italian consulate general in San Francisco, took sharp issues with Wollner on the subject of sanitation in construction camps. He insisted that men did use the better facilities if offered, and that it did make better men of them. He cited a camp in Alaska, which he had recently visited, where baths and a swimming pool were furnished, and reading rooms provided with books and papers; all of these privileges were respected and enjoyed by the men.

Andreani said that one of the most objectionable features in the construction camps in California was the absence of adequate hospital facilities. Even

though the men are charged \$1 a month for such services, there are some companies which provide no medical service whatever. He told of a man who had his arm torn off at the shoulder, who had to be carried forty-four miles to a doctor. He spoke of another who had a fractured spine, who was taken thirty miles through the woods to the railroad, and then on a train to a San Francisco hospital. The man died after a few months in the hospital.

Another man, working in a camp where every man had to construct his own bunk, fractured his leg before he had time to build one for himself. He was left lying on a blanket on the floor for nine hours before being taken to a field hospital. On account of improper attention at the hospital, the man was said to have been crippled for life.

Andreani stated that some of the construction companies are making money out of hospital fees, which continue to be levied in spite of the fact that the California compensation law requires that the employer shall pay all medical expenses for the first ninety days after the occurrence of the accident.

This witness spoke of further methods of exploitation that exist in some camps, especially where the men work for a sub-contractor. Sometimes there is delay about getting their pay checks cashed, and men are kept in camp, paying board, for a period long after their money is due. He recited some instances where, on account of fees for various purposes, and the holding back of money for board and supplies, men who had been working for several months either had received nothing at the end or were in debt to their employer.

The program for the second day's hearing was collective bargaining in San Francisco. This subject proved so interesting, however, and developed so much controversy, that it ran through Wednesday and over into Thursday morning.

Grant Fee, a general contractor engaged in building construction in San Francisco, arraigned the methods of union labor most severely. He said that there has come to be a one-man power in San Francisco labor unions, and that this power is exercised in a tyrannical manner. He denied that there is any such a thing as collective bargaining in San Francisco, and declared that the unions simply decide for themselves what wages, hours and working conditions are to be and inform the employers of that decision. He told of a tax which is being levied by the Bricklayers' Union, which requires the employing contractors to pay into the union treasury one-half of one per cent of the cost of all brick construction.

L. H. Sly, an open shop building con-

tractor, continued the indictment of union labor. Sly stated that because he does not employ union labor it is impossible for him to buy materials except under an assumed name. If he wants to buy a fire escape or a thousand of bricks he has to employ subterfuge to get them in the local market. The dealers would not dare to furnish him with these materials for fear of a boycott. He charged that his men can do from a third to a half more than the union rules permit the union men to do.

Sly stated that when P. H. McCarthy, president of the Building Trades Council of San Francisco and of California, was mayor of San Francisco, instructions were given to the Building Department not to pass any of his plans, and he had to threaten court action before he could get them passed. He stated also that the electrical work on one of his buildings was condemned by a city inspector, but after getting a favorable report by the Board of Fire Underwriters and the local electric company he threatened the city with legal action, and the work was finally passed without making any changes.

It was James Tyson, president of the Charles Nelson Company, a firm engaged extensively in the lumber business, who made the most sweeping and specific condemnation of organized labor.

"Under closed shop conditions," said Mr. Tyson, "the employer and employee. I am sorry to say, have very little in common. There is no community of interests. The union supplies the unionist with work; the walking delegate is his boss. The employer is of no consequence; he holds the sack, carries the responsibility of the operations and incidentally provides the payroll at the end of the week."

Tyson said that he objected to collective bargaining because it was a one-sided contract, the men not living up to their bargain, except when it suits them to do so. He objected to closed shop regulations, and insisted upon his right to hire and discharge men at will. He declared that union methods tend to demoralize the workmen, because it reduces the capable man to the level of the poorest. His remedies were the incorporation of unions; elimination of the closed shop, shop stewards, business agents, and walking delegates; limitation of term of office to one year; and the establishment of a standard of efficiency. "Let them sell their product the same as we do ours, according to standard and quality."

Elaborating somewhat on the general subject, Tyson said that organized labor does not keep within the law. "If they did," he said, "the Commission on Industrial Relations would never have been appointed." He cited cases of restriction of output, and said that the limit of the work in the Ship Caulkers' Association was such that he has sometimes paid two days' wages for work done in one day of nine hours.

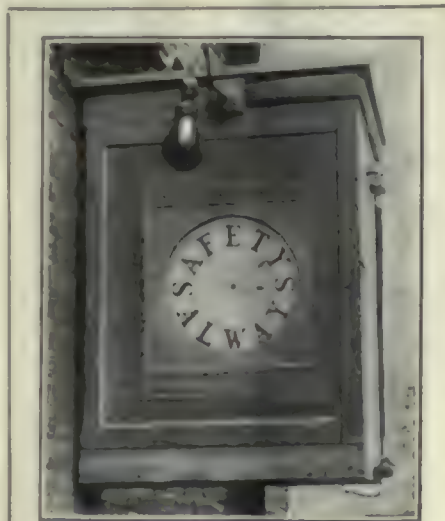
He declared that as a result of union restrictions business is leaving San Francisco. Ten years ago, he said, there were 40,000 men employed in the metal trades of this city, and there were now less than 15,000. An oil company he is

interested in has to buy its tanks and pipe in Los Angeles. His company owns a salmon cannery. They used to buy all of their boxes in San Francisco—now they get them in Washington and Oregon. Five years ago they used to purchase all their logging engines and equipment in San Francisco, but now they have to get them elsewhere. He declared this was due to the higher cost in San Francisco which has come from union domination.

In speaking of violence, Tyson declared there could be no strikes without coercion, intimidation and violence, and that if the authorities would do their duty in enforcing order, strikes would disappear.

Asked by Counsel W. O. Thompson what a working man is to do who has a just cause for complaint and cannot get his grievance adjusted, if he cannot strike, Tyson replied, after a moment of hesitation, "I cannot conceive of such a situation."

The company of which Tyson is president operates a logging camp and sawmill in northern California. A hospital fee of \$1 is charged, but unlike most other companies, concerning which testimony has been given, no fee is charged until a man has been with the company for at least two weeks. Tyson says that half of the men in the camp have their families with them, and that there is very little coming and going. Out of a force of a thousand employees, not more than twenty-five changes are made in a month.



"ON THE FACE OF IT," ITS ADMONITION IS PLAIN

Clock at plant of Harrison Bros. & Co., Philadelphia, which with this inscription was reproduced on a poster distributed by the Information Bureau of the National Council for Industrial Safety, Chicago. The council makes weekly distributions of "Safety First" bulletins, photographs and accident statistics to its members. A pamphlet, How to Organize for Safety, has been prepared and given wide circulation.

A preliminary report recently issued by the council shows a muster of 731 members, representing 750,000 employees. Their third annual congress is to be held at the Hotel La Salle, Chicago, October 13 to 15, 1914.

To reply to the charges against organized labor, P. H. McCarthy, president of the Building Trades Council, took the stand and for three hours or more he dealt out scorn, contempt and invective against the critics of the unions. One witness had criticised the unions because he could not get good men from them when in need of help. McCarthy agreed that an employer does not like to turn to the union as an employment agency. "He likes to see a man running about the city," said McCarthy, "hopping from ladder to ladder, from staircase to staircase, and from roof to roof, pleading with foremen and superintendents for a job. Then he can play one man against another and cut their wages."

The union, said McCarthy, makes it possible for a fair-minded employer to be fair and honest. Without the union the viciously inclined employer fixes the standard. He stated that the real cause of factories leaving San Francisco or failing to locate there is high rents and inflated values of real estate. He mentioned two large companies which he said had gone to Oakland instead of locating in San Francisco simply because values were unreasonably high. He brought in figures tending to show that the cost of building in San Francisco has gone down to a marked degree at the same time that wages were going up and hours being reduced.

One of the practices of San Francisco unions that is most frequently condemned is their refusal to handle dressed lumber, shipped into the city from outside. The unions insist that the lumber must be brought in rough and milled in San Francisco. McCarthy defended this practice and said wages are lower and the cost of living lower on the north coast, where employers wished to have their lumber milled. With the high rates and high cost of living in San Francisco he said that workmen were justified in refusing to handle the product of this cheap labor.

Andrew J. Gallagher, president of the San Francisco Labor Council, also denied the statements made by the employers and insisted that the unions are fair and democratic.

The commission gave some attention to the workmen's compensation law. All of the employers examined expressed their hearty approval of the law. Only one, Sam J. Eva, president of the United Engineering Works, wanted a change. He thought that instead of requiring the employer to pay all of the compensation it should be shared between employer, employee and the state.

An interesting witness on the last day was Fremont Older, managing editor of the San Francisco Bulletin. Asked for his opinion of collective bargaining he described it as a "necessary makeshift,"—better than individual bargaining because the workers could exercise their power thereby; but a still better thing, he thought, would be "a changed ideal of human society, from mere money-getting to more altruistic ideals."

From San Francisco, the commission went to Los Angeles, where hearings began on Tuesday, September 8.

HEALTH

HOSPITALS FOR ADVANCED CASES OF TUBERCULOSIS—BY THEODORE B. SACHS, M. D.

CHICAGO TUBERCULOSIS INSTITUTE

THE BEGINNING of a campaign for improvement of conditions in tuberculosis hospitals maintained by Cook County, Illinois, dates many years back. During a period of several county administrations, the standard of these hospitals was not different from that of the majority of similar institutions in this country.

Some of the familiar features were: housing of patients in large wards, with no provision for privacy; lack of arrangements for open air treatment of suitable cases; lack of well-defined methods of treatment; lack of sufficient and efficient medical and nursing personnel; no medical or laboratory facilities for thorough study and efficient treatment of cases; a "poorhouse" variety of diet; and an insufficiency of domestic service, compelling the employment of patients to take care of the institution instead of the institution's taking care of the patients.

In February, 1912, the general situation in reference to institutional provision for tuberculous patients in Cook County, was as follows:

Chicago was building a municipal tuberculosis sanatorium for incipient and moderately advanced cases, with a capacity of 900 beds. Cook County (of which Chicago is the major part) was maintaining three hospitals for advanced cases:

1. A tuberculosis department in Cook County Hospital (capacity 320 beds), central section of Chicago, for the reception of grave or terminal cases of tuberculosis. Because of extensive building operations in the general hospital, which necessitated a reduction of the capacity of the tuberculosis department, the campaign for radical changes in this institution was postponed until the rebuilding of the entire institution was completed. The situation, however, has been improved in the last two years in the attending medical service, with the result of better study and supervision of cases.

2. The County Tuberculosis Hospital at Dunning, with 220 beds, which has been abandoned since the capacity of the Oak Forest Hospital was increased.

3. The County Tuberculosis Hospital at Oak Forest, with a capacity of 325 beds, for chronic advanced cases.

The campaign for a higher standard was directed at the Oak Forest institution, which was selected to fulfill, when extended and reorganized, the existing need of an efficient county hospital for chronic advanced cases.

To achieve the desired result the following methods were employed:

First. In February, 1912, the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute requested the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis to make a study of hospitals for advanced cases in large centers of population in this country, Chicago included. The aim was to get an authoritative standard for such hospitals formulated by a national organization. A committee consisting of Dr. Theodore B. Sachs, chairman, Dr. Charles J. Hatfield, Dr. Livingston Farrand and Dr. Thomas S. Carrington, secretary, was appointed by the association at its annual meeting, May, 1912. The investigation proceeded and the report of the committee was submitted at the following annual meeting, May, 1913.¹ This report was widely circulated in Chicago among the medical profession, laity, business men, various organizations and city and county officials. The result was a spread of education as to the right standard for such hospitals.

Second. In February, 1912, a resolution was introduced at a meeting of the Board of the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, to submit a platform in reference to care of advanced cases in county institutions, to candidates of various parties for county commissioners at the impending primary election in April, 1912. The platform read as follows:

1. Increased medical service for the tuberculous patients; at least one resident physician for each seventy-five to one hundred patients.²

2. Increased and improved nursing service; at least one nurse for each thirty to forty ambulant cases, and one nurse for each fifteen to twenty bed patients; of these nurses at least one for each fifty patients should be a graduate nurse.

3. An adequate, well prepared and well served dietary of a standard set by recognized authorities in the treatment of tuberculosis.

4. The appointment of a staff of recognized tuberculosis experts to serve without pay, who shall advise and co-operate with the board of

¹See Transactions of the Ninth Annual Meeting of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis, pages 54 to 66.

²In the final campaign for improved service, in the latter part of 1913, clauses I and II were modified to correspond to the standard set down by the special committee of the National Association for the Study and Prevention of Tuberculosis: "At least one resident physician for each 50 patients; at least one nurse for each 15 ambulant cases and at least one nurse for each 10 bed patients, this number to furnish all the necessary day and night service."

county commissioners in the establishment and maintenance of these standards.

The period of time left to induce prospective candidates to sign this platform, was only six weeks; yet out of 160 candidates, 72 signed the platform. The favorable response in this campaign, as well as some future developments, convinced us that platforms of political parties in our future county and city elections must contain "tuberculosis clauses."

Third. With the election of the present board of county commissioners in November, 1912, the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute requested A. A. McCormick, president of the county board, to appoint an advisory committee to study existing conditions in Cook County tuberculosis hospitals for the purpose of recommending needed reforms. A committee consisting of Dr. Theodore B. Sachs, chairman; Dr. Ethan A. Gray, Dr. Stephen R. Pietrowicz, and James Minnick, secretary, was appointed on August 12, 1913.

The investigation proceeded without delay and the results of said investigation were incorporated in a report submitted on November 28, 1913, to the president and board of commissioners of Cook County.³ This report, like the report of the National Association, was widely circulated among all classes of the Chicago community. Its recommendations called for most radical changes, amounting to a transformation of the existing institutions into efficient tuberculosis hospitals.

Fourth. The Chicago Tuberculosis Institute co-operated, through its president and superintendent, in planning the new Oak Forest Tuberculosis Hospital, which, when completed before the expiration of the year 1914, will have a capacity of 600 beds. This will be a modern hospital for the treatment of chronic advanced cases of tuberculosis, in full conformity with the standard laid down for such institutions by the special committee of the National Association, viz: housing of patients in small groups, a sufficient number of single and double rooms and wards of 4 to 8 beds, all the necessary medical and laboratory facilities, ample provision for outdoor treatment, etc.

Fifth. To provide the necessary reforms recommended in its report, the advisory committee for Cook County tuberculosis hospitals aided by the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, made a systematic campaign among the Cook County commissioners for a comprehensive provision in the annual budget for 1914 for an efficient administration of the Oak Forest Tuberculosis Hospital.

³For copy of this report, apply to the Chicago Tuberculosis Institute, 8 South Dearborn Street, Chicago.

Courtesy of the Modern Hospital



The State Hospital at Gardner, Mass., is for the care of the supposedly incurable insane. Its 1,500 patients represent almost every known form of mental disturbance. Dr. La Moure has planned his 1,500 acres of land well, placing divisional farms on the hillsides. The work at Gardner is chiefly out-door farm work. In addition to the farm work, the patients have built nearly all the colony houses of the institution. Some of them do excellent architectural work.

This provision represented an additional item of about \$50,000. Success crowned this most persistent campaign in the history of our tuberculosis organization, a campaign consisting of repeated conferences with the finance committee of the county board and with individual commissioners, appeals at the meetings of the full board and continuous agitation of the question backed by numerous organizations in this city, the campaign throughout being energetically supported by the president of the county board, A. A. McCormick. The following comparative table gives an idea of what has been accomplished in this campaign:

OAK FOREST TUBERCULOSIS HOSPITAL	
	January 1st, 1914
	November 28th, 1913
	Allowed in the Budget
	(327 patients) (445 patients)

Resident physicians ...	1	10
Consulting nurses ...	3	9
Attendants ...	13	28
Domestic service, personnel (kitchen service, janitors, maids, waitresses, etc.)	5	23
Open Air school teacher	1	1
Paid visiting nurse & throat specialist	0	1
Paid visiting dentist	0	1
Business Manager	0	1
Dietitian	0	1
Laboratory equipment	0	\$1,000
Medical and nose and throat equipment ...	0	\$1,000

In the successful campaign just closed we had the enthusiastic co-operation of the highly efficient general superintendent of the Oak Forest institution, the well-known social worker, James Mullenbach, and the highly efficient business manager of the tuberculosis department, Ada Belle McCleery.

The management of the Oak Forest institution is at present putting into operation the reforms provided for—a task requiring much time and labor.

The progress of the gradual transformation of this institution into an efficiently managed hospital has been great-

ly stimulated by the appointment of Dr. Glenford L. Bellis, a trained sanatorium physician, as the head physician of the institution.

Thus after years of apathy in the matter of right care of advanced consumptives, Cook County is solving this problem in a way acceptable to the patient and to the community.

I submit the above methods of campaigning in Cook County for improvement of conditions in hospitals for advanced cases to tuberculosis organizations all over the country, particularly the submission of "tuberculosis platforms" to candidates at city and county elections; incorporation of "tuberculosis clauses" in platforms of political parties in such elections, and vigorous campaigns before such elections among all classes of the community.

THE PRACTICAL PROBLEMS OF BOVINE TUBERCULOSIS

THERE IS, PERHAPS, no public health question which has been the subject of so much bitter controversy not only between health authorities and producers, but between different schools of science, as the question of the danger and the control of bovine tuberculosis. For a long time followers of Robert Koch maintained that the tuberculosis of cattle was totally distinct from that of human beings, and that the milk of tuberculous cows had never been shown to produce tuberculosis in children. Gradually, however, upholders of the contrary theory, under the leadership of Dr. Theobald Smith, have won their way and the danger to man of bovine tuberculosis seems established.

The practical question, however, that which affects cattle growers and dairy men, is still far from settled, and the country should be grateful to the state of New York for undertaking a thor-

ough study of the whole subject. The announcement of Governor Glynn's commission to undertake this work will meet with general approval, for it includes men whose names command universal confidence. Dr. Theobald Smith and Dr. Herman M. Biggs are known to everyone; there are also Dr. Philip Van Ingen, of the New York Milk Commission; Dr. H. L. K. Shaw, of Albany Medical College; Prof. V. A. Moore, dean of the New York State Veterinary College, Cornell University; Calvin J. Huson, New York state commissioner of agriculture; V. Everit Macy, of Ossining, superintendent of the poor of Westchester County; H. J. Wright, editor of the New York *Globe*, also prominent farmers and breeders of dairy cattle.

RACIAL CHARACTERISTICS AND NEGRO PROGRESS

AT A CONFERENCE at New Orleans called by Dr. Oscar Dowling, of the Louisiana State Board of Health, to consider means of improving the Negro race, Dr. William C. Woodward of Washington expressed his belief that the high death rate among Negroes was not due to their surroundings so much as to racial tendency. He had seen white people living in the alleys of Washington amid conditions quite as unhygienic as any surrounding Negroes; yet among these white people the death rate was not so high as among Negroes.

Dr. Dowling emphasized as of highest importance for improving the conditions among Negroes, first, housing; second, education. In the overcrowded shacks of the Negro sections, immorality, venereal diseases and tuberculosis are rife. In the work of education he urged not only the sympathetic co-operation of white people but also the best effort of the more intelligent colored people.

Emphasis on possible improvement of

Courtesy of the Modern Hospital



The shops and rooms at the Gardner State Hospital, for sewing and weaving provide for indoor occupations and turn out practically everything from kitchen utensils to home-made rugs and carpets. As in the most modern hospitals the excited or violent patients are given active work to do. Many patients play well on the piano or other musical instruments, and excel at bowling or billiards.

the Negro race was also given in a paper written by Dr. Jacques Loeb and read at the recent meeting in Baltimore of the National Association for the Advancement of Colored People. Dr. Loeb said that it was "contrary to all known facts to say that with a pigmented skin or with a certain type of eyes, must necessarily be connected a lower degree of intelligence or moral control. . . . All known facts indicate that [mental and moral traits] are not limited to special races, but are the peculiarity of certain strains or families, independently of race. It is an open question whether with equal facilities and care the children of different races would show widely different mental and moral development."

Dr. Loeb in concluding expressed his opinion that it was contrary not only to justice but to scientific fact to deny colored people equal rights and equal economic, social and educational opportunities with white people.

A "TEACHING HOSPITAL"

The prejudice against the use of hospitals for teaching purposes is so general in this country that there is surprise over the recent gift by James Deering to Wesley Hospital in Chicago, of \$1,000,000 to be used for the care of "real charity patients" and in connection with the teaching of medicine in Northwestern University Medical School. He stipulates that the hospital is to be a teaching hospital, and that the medical school to whose faculty the hospital is entrusted must have a high standard. In this way he provides for the clinical teaching of future physicians at the bedside of the patient—the only place where it can be adequately given—but he also provides for the proper care of the charity cases in the hospital. Anyone who knows the inside workings of a hospital knows that the

visiting staff of eminent physicians can give only the most perfunctory attention to the ordinary run of cases in the big free wards,—there simply is not time for anything else; and though the man who is lucky enough to have a rare heart lesion secures as much notice as he would if he were a private patient, the poor rheumatic or dyspeptic is left to the tender mercies of the interne. But if ward rounds can be combined with teaching the situation becomes quite different, for the time and the interest of the visiting staff are more than doubled.

SIMPLIFIED PLUMBING

The folly of laws requiring expensive and complicated plumbing in houses is pointed out in an editorial in the *Journal of the American Medical Association*. These laws are usually framed more by those interested commercially in the production and installation of plumbing equipment than by public health experts, and these people are very likely to defend such legislation by exaggerated statements about the danger of escaping sewer gas.

As a matter of fact, we do not know whether there is any danger at all from sewer gas, and although the best and most expensive kind of plumbing is certainly desirable, still it remains true that the chief obstacle in the way of a town which wishes to abolish the dangerous privy vault (dangerous because accessible to flies) is the great expense of installing modern sanitary plumbing. The best way, therefore, to work for public health is to devise some means of simplifying and cheapening the equipment of an ordinary bathroom. All unnecessary refinements and elaborations in plumbing outfits are a hindrance and not a help to the health of the community.

On the first of September commenced the five months' course in public health nursing offered by the Henry Street Settlement, New York city, in co-operation with Teachers College and the School of Philanthropy. The course includes field work in district nursing, pre-natal care, obstetrics, infant welfare work, tuberculosis and school nursing, and social service work. Also lectures on the principles of public health nursing, municipal sanitation, family rehabilitation, preventive medicine and modern social problems.

The first state tuberculosis sanatorium for colored people in this country has been secured in Delaware. The site for the new sanatorium is about half a mile from Hope Farm, and consists of several acres of well-wooded and well-watered land. A temporary building has been opened, but it is expected that accommodations for twenty patients will be ready this fall. The new hospital will be administered from the Hope Farm Sanatorium.

The General Education Board has given \$500,000 to Yale Medical School on condition that professorships of the chief clinical courses be on the full-time basis, and that the schools have control of the New Haven General Hospital.

The Toronto Department of Health has organized a division of child hygiene. Appointments will, it is reported, be made by the professor of pediatrics in the University of Toronto and the health officer.

It is announced that a six-story building will be erected by the Illinois Central Railroad, opposite Jackson Park, Chicago, as a hospital for employees of the railroad and for passengers who may be injured.

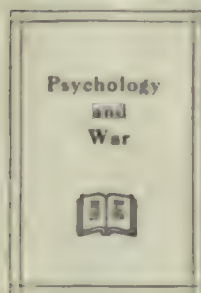
BOOK REVIEWS

THE UNCONSCIOUS

By Morton Prince, M.D., LL.D. Macmillan Co. 549 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.12.

GLIMPSES OF THE COSMOS

By Lester F. Ward. Twelve Volumes: Volumes I, II and III. G. P. Putnam's Sons. Price, 3 volumes, \$7.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$8.00.



Peace has her victories.

It is impossible, in reviewing these two books and relating them to one another, not to relate them also to the earthquake and tornado which is shaking Europe and the whole planet at this time. They are still, small voices, these two

books. They will not have many readers. But they subtly and profoundly show that war is an anachronism; that a larger constructive destiny has already laid hold on the race; that the struggle of races, considered as a dynamic force in history, has nearly ended, and that the struggle of The Race against impersonal barriers, has begun.

Why are these books, *The Unconscious* and *Glimpses of the Cosmos*, associated in one review? The first is an essay in technical, experimental psychology; the second is a documentary, mental biography of a philosopher of sociology. Dr. Morton Prince has presumably not concerned himself, save casually, with the social aspects of his theme—at least, the book under review does not show it. Lester F. Ward once told the writer that his own knowledge of psychology, in its special aspects, had been gained almost entirely from the writings of William James.

Probably Ward and Prince knew or know little of the field in which the other is eminent. But for readers of *THE SURVEY*, these books will connect themselves in an imperative way. Dr. Prince studies the inner problems of human personality, the nature of its maladies, the laws of its work and growth within the individual organism, and the means of its therapy. Lester Ward depicts the sway of the race and of society, constraining the individual soul with an enormous and complex gravity; he discusses the rôle of purposeful work in the social order, and shows in a general but conclusive way that increases in genius and happiness are waiting to be brought about through social adjustments of a creative kind; and he shows what these adjustments must be.

A word, before discussing these books in detail, as to their suggestive relation to the one preoccupation of the moment—the world-war. Dr. Prince's work belongs to the rapidly developing field of

"subliminal psychology," in which, Professor James said, the greatest scientific results of the coming century are to be looked for. Subliminal psychology has altered permanently the human outlook in one generation, through the intimate team-work labors of a great Frenchman (Charcot), a great German (Wundt), a great Englishman (Myers), a great Belgian (Bernheim), a great Austrian (Freud), and such American workers as James Prince, Sidis and Stanley Hall. The list is illustrative, not exhaustive.

The beneficent fruits, in medicine and pedagogy, of this science which is yet only at its dawn, flow back impartially to all peoples. Already, from the demonstrated facts of subliminal psychology, there emerge social duties of an essentially international kind—duties of world-wide statistical research, of changed policies toward the adolescent races, of world-wide co-operation in the restriction of drugs, of world-wide eugenic measures.

Beside any one of those needs, the shifting of a trade route or a political boundary, the sentimental domination of Slav over Teuton or of Mongol over Aryan, even the destruction of militarism which is self-doomed, shrink to unimportance. Nay—war, no matter how vast or protracted, cannot materially check the advance of this science or the changes in human life which it involves. War, or bourgeois contentment with things as they are, can deprive our own generation, our children, perhaps our grandchildren, of some of the gain, but will the history of three million years, yet to be written of humanity on this earth, be greatly impressed with such a retardation?

As for the writings of Ward—here we may observe a rugged American man, indigenous as Abraham Lincoln or a red Indian, emerging from an iron discipline in the American Civil War and passing up, through varied cosmopolitan influence, to an outlook and wisdom absolutely planetary in their breadth. A Frenchman—Comte; a German—Haeckel; an Englishman—Darwin; an Austrian—Odin; an American—Ward. Again we see the onward flood, international and inter-racial, of a science whose prescriptions are indifferent to political boundaries, whose criticisms cut as deeply into the self-complacency of England or Germany as into the egotism of the Fiji Islander, and whose dazzling prophecy includes the human race.

Now, for the essential bearing on one another of *The Unconscious* and *Glimpses of the Cosmos*. Dr. Prince prefaces his work with these words, uttered by Bergson: "To explore the most sacred depths of the unconscious, to labor in the subsoil of consciousness, that will be the principal task of psychology in the century which is opening. I do not doubt that wonderful discoveries

await it there, as important perhaps as have been in the preceding centuries the discoveries of the physical and natural sciences."

Prince's book is the second of a series of which three are promised, and which might be collectively called "An Exploration of the Soul." These are clinical and experimental studies, falling within abnormal psychology but laying the basis for a more vivid and conclusive normal and general psychology such as might be predicated from the writings of William James and of Tarde. Incidentally, the work of Prince is simply freighted with lessons for each one of us in the task which presses on each, of regulating and enhancing "the fountains of his own will."

An immediate transition from Prince to Ward is found in the following paragraph from Ward's great but little-read *Psychic Factors of Civilization*: "The preëminent service of Schopenhauer to philosophy has been that of turning the current of thought out of the old and hopeless channels of objective (intellectualistic) psychology, into the new and promising channels of subjective (emotional) psychology. Here, and here alone, is there hope for a science of mind."

And the following paragraph places us out of Prince's special field, and fairly within Ward's: "Provided that means of satisfying wants can be secured, then the greater the number and the higher the rank of such wants, the higher the state of happiness attainable. The problem of social science is to point out in what way the most complete and universal satisfaction of human desires can be attained; and this is identical with the problem of greatest happiness."

And this point is curious and significant: that both Prince and Ward are systematic determinists and monists, yet the writings of Ward are a veritable gospel of the efficacy of purposeful endeavor; his principle of "telesis," which is in practice indistinguishable from psychic and moral freedom, is shown as creating a new era not only in human life, but in the cosmos. While to the man on the street, the whole of Prince's work, beginning with his famous and classic work on the multiple personality of "Sally Beauchamp," and down through all his experimental results, is a lesson in the potency of deliberate influence, the modifyability of human character, and the possibility, to which no limit can be set, of reconstructing, liberating and aggrandizing the individual soul, here and now.

Space forbids a more detailed juxtaposition of these two books, each of which holds the forefront of a great scientific movement. But their connection in this review is not accidental. The writer is certain that general readers, and social

workers in particular, will get the best results in scientific reading when they, the readers, assume a general human standpoint and view the insulated, specialized sciences in relation to one another. This is peculiarly true in psychology and sociology, which are two sides of one thing, each a mystery unless viewed in the light of the other.

To describe the two works briefly. The Unconscious is an essay in psycho-analysis. Psycho-analysis is properly a method, or group of methods, for the disclosure of the human mind and the diagnosis of mental disease. But in the popular and scientific mind, psycho-analysis is likewise a bold and radical theory, the theory, namely, that virtually all "subconscious" mental processes are sexual in their nature. Psycho-analysis, however, as a growing technique of research and diagnosis, long antedates the time when the genius of Freud and the dogmatic reiteration of his followers invaded and captured the science, temporarily, on behalf of a sweeping and rather mystical doctrine of sex.

Prince is an original, empirical worker, and he first became widely known through his descriptions of the Sally Beauchamp multiple-personality case, a year or two after the publication of Freud's far-reaching studies on hysteria. Prince has for seven years edited the *American Journal of Abnormal Psychology*, and has for long been one of the most sanely and courageously selective and moderate workers in abnormal psychology. He has successively done much to save the American medical mind from being swept, first by the physiological theories of Janet, the great French psychiatrist, and subsequently by the sexual prepossession of the Freud school, not very successfully, for the moment, in the latter case, it must be confessed.

The present volume, *The Unconscious*, is a semi-popular work—popular to the extent that it can be fully understood by a reader who has previously known nothing of the subject, and that it gives a careful and generous statement of the various conflicting theories which may be said to rage in the psycho-analytic field. In his effort at clarity, Dr. Prince reiterates and expounds almost to weariness, but this repetition is all devoted to essentials. To dwell on his book, annotate it, and depart from it for further reading, would be a liberal education to any serious-minded person, and the student would find himself amazed at the wealth of general relationships and richness of insight into his own personal nature, which would flow from the task. *The Unconscious* can be read without a previous reading of Dr. Prince's earlier work, *The Dissociation of a Personality*. Space lacks for any kind of summary of the richly-freighted pages of this book.

Lester F. Ward's book—the last that will appear from one of the greatest souls America has produced and one of the most original and industrious brains of the century—is as bold in its conception as it is naïve and unusual in its carrying out. It is a twelve-volume mental autobiography; the present issue consists of the first three, and not the most interesting, volumes. The value which the world will place on *Glimpses*

of the Cosmos will depend on the value which, in fullness of time, it places on the message of its author as delivered in the five great books of his life beginning with *Dynamic Sociology* in 1882 and ending with *Applied Sociology* in 1907.

The writer believes that the Russian censors, who twenty years ago put the *Dynamic Sociology* in the flames, and the students of Ruskin College, Oxford, for whom Ward's writings have been more or less of a bible, sensed correctly the meaning of Ward's philosophy to the rising world of democracy and responsible liberty. The feminist movement owes one of its profoundest statements to Ward. He seems to have forecasted Henri Bergson by several years, all that is comprehensible in Bergson's principle of "creative evolution" being contained in Ward's "cosmic synergy."

Ward overthrew, exhaustively and radically, the doctrine of evolutionary fatalism, preached as a social gospel by Herbert Spencer until it became the language of the *laissez-faire* school the world over. In his *Psychic Factors of Civilization*, a noble, independent structure in the world of thought, which as the years pass remains strangely unvisited, Ward laid the theoretical connections between the organic and psychic worlds, showed the priority of feeling over reason as the creative power in mankind, and placed intellect in its relation to that part of the soul which, as all now recognize, is its more ancient and enduring part. Finally, the *Applied Sociology* is a magnificent evangel of democracy and equal opportunity, based on an attempted demonstration of the boundlessness of potential genius equally scattered through the race.

Those who share this estimate of Lester Ward's work, will not find the projected twelve volumes either tedious or, in places, trivial. Whether the remaining nine volumes will be published is to depend, it is stated, on the kind of welcome given the present three volumes. For the entire work not to be published will be a sorrow to numbers which will increase with each year. In description of the three published volumes it may be said, that Ward was for most of his life a government agent in the geological survey and Smithsonian Institute; that he came to sociology through the underlying sciences, and was an authority on paleobotany and a thorough biologist. His literary and historical culture was extremely wide, though always held with a kind of simplicity and innocent vanity which can best be described as ante-bellum.

The *Glimpses* contain, in the main, essays which range from theological polemics (Ward was aggressively Ingersollian in his young years) through all kinds of social and economic issues to discussions of the origin of life on the planet, the nature of pre-organic evolution and the classification of fossil plants. With these, go explanatory papers devoted to the several important books of his life, together with the raw materials, in successive stages of elaboration, which went into *Dynamic Sociology*. The outright biography is scattered through the miscellaneous papers, and all is arranged chronologically. The whole result gives

a kind of patient, self-reliant, granite-like impression, something of the elaborate dignity of the "elder statesmen."

But those who knew Ward, or whose lives have been deeply penetrated by his philosophy, can not treat this book impersonally; not even those who may have seen him only once, as when, immediately before his death a year ago, he spoke on eugenics in the Ethical Culture Hall in New York. An old man, white-haired, frail, beautiful; with the subtlest gracious humor; rigid in his technical exposition, infinitely non-popular, quietly announcing, on a great mooted question, a verdict—a negative verdict, which, whether ultimately correct or not, was stimulating and tremendous.

JOHN COLLIER.

THE QUESTION OF ALCOHOL

By Edward Huntington Williams, M.D.
The Goodhue Co. 128 pp. Price \$.75;
by mail of THE SURVEY \$.80.

National Prohibition a Growing Issue



Whether one believes that national prohibition will help or harm—nobody claims that it will utterly cure—one must confess that it is a coming political issue, the *National Liquor Dealers' Journal*, according to the *World's Work*, asserting that twenty-seven states would vote for it. And, of course, conditions can not have reached this pass without a real battle being on between the liquor dealers and the opposition, represented by the Anti-Saloon League, which is rapidly drawing to its side the foremost men of industry, who have to manage large groups of workers.

These men are joining the anti-alcohol ranks for various reasons, one being that the employers' liability laws have made accidents so expensive as to bring about a careful investigation of their causes. It has been found that too many accidents in large manufacturing plants work back to drink, and not to heavy drinking alone, but to moderate drinking.

Now, of course, many guns will be fired before the end, and one that has recently been let loose is a literary gun, *The Question of Alcohol*, by Edward H. Williams, M.D. Whether Dr. Williams wanted his articles, now embodied in book form, to be brewers' ammunition, we can not know, but ammunition they are. As fast as they appeared in the *Medical Record* they were, for the most part, printed over in liquor journals, and one that appeared in THE SURVEY, Temperance Instruction, was sent out broadcast by publicity agents of the liquor trade.

The little book is admirable for the brewers' purpose, seeking to undermine the two strongholds of the opposing camp—national prohibition and alcohol education—first as carried on in our public schools, later in the form of posters and exhibits.

Taking first the attack on education, this assault hits precisely where it can hit with force, on the deplorable exaggeration that seems to follow in the wake of temperance. Every advocate of anti-

alcoholism must regret this exaggeration, oftentimes making it necessary for the business men, social workers and physicians now pouring into the ranks to rehabilitate the subject before they can get a hearing.

Dr. Williams lays bare this grotesque exaggeration and misstatement, but to my mind he fails to do what the real reformer would do,—offer help for the situation. He lays the misstatements before you (rather magnifying them, it seems to me), and, with never a word for all the good text books that exist side by side with the somewhat hysterical ones, he cries out that under the knife of this grotesque education the consumption of liquor has been steadily rising, leaving the impression, in some way, that increasing consumption is due to the scepticism implanted in the young mind by our present alcohol education; anyway, it has not been effective—and there Dr. Williams drops it.

It is the place where Dr. Williams drops subjects that makes a social worker, rightly or wrongly, distrust him. He drops the subject precisely where the social worker would cling to it for dear life.

Thus, the real reformer would have given more recognition to all the good matter in the schools, and agreeing most frankly to the bad, have earnestly declared that in view of the "menace of drink" we must consecrate ourselves to veracity (nothing short of veracity having long-range power). And since history proves that all lasting reform comes slowly and through education, we must secure either federal or state committees of physicians and others to bring forward adequate textbooks in which facts are not suited to inclinations, but inclinations to facts.

A social worker condemns only to construct. Again, to help, you must not put forth pieces of truth, but all of it. Dr. Williams puts forth this piece of a whole truth, namely, that our consumption has been rising. But he does not add that all this time we have been taking into the country thousands and thousands of new drinkers.

As a matter of fact, the figures of the *American Grocer*, compiled purely for business purposes, show that the United States reached the height of its per capita consumption in 1907. Since then we have not risen, but have slightly declined. The *Grocer*, July, 1914, thereupon notes that prohibition is holding in check consumption, keeping it from rising along with immigration. So it would look to me as if all this education was beginning to tell on the mind of the people, slowly but surely.

We come now to Dr. Williams' arraignment of prohibition. Briefly he says that while liquor still flows freely in the South, prohibition has placed it beyond the reach of the very poor, who are therefore taking to cocaine. I do not know anything about the facts here,—they are, I fancy, too recent to be treated adequately. But if drug fiends are increasing alarmingly in the South because liquor, while still flowing freely, is withdrawn somewhat from the very poor by reason of its being expensive to transport, I say to myself why in the face of all this did West Virginia go dry by

such an amazing majority, and why has Virginia entered into such an enthusiastic dry contest?

Dr. Williams then takes up the question of prohibition versus insanity. He says that some people say that the decrease of insanity in Kansas is due to prohibition. Dr. Williams says that they should not make this statement, and I think that he is quite right. Prohibition has not yet prohibited enough anywhere for us to make dogmatic statistical statements.

But Dr. Williams then goes on to show that while we can not say it has decreased insanity in Kansas, we can say that this still unprohibiting prohibition would seem to have increased certain forms of insanity. There, I think, Dr. Williams falls into the same trap of those whom he accuses.

To prove his point he shows that that form of insanity called alcoholic psychosis is larger in prohibition Kansas than in wet Nebraska or South Dakota, similar states, and he draws this delightfully brewerish conclusion: that the reason that Kansas leads its sister states in this particular is that whiskey, not beer, causes most alcoholic psychosis, and in prohibition states whiskey, not beer, is the thing that men drink. So we are left with the general impression that as Kansas could not get beer so easily as Nebraska could, Kansas developed 5 per cent of this form of insanity while Nebraska developed only 4 per cent.

It may all be true, but no man on earth can say it is true simply by the facts put forth by Dr. Williams.

Truly, if prohibition is to come, it will come not out of manipulated statistics, but on broad lines—the lines of the practical business man. I am amazed at the number of business men in Massachusetts who tell me that, while they would not vote for state prohibition, they most certainly intend and shortly expect to vote for national prohibition.

Now the business manager is convinced that moderate drinking does slow down quick thinking and open the way to inefficiency and accidents. It is to eliminate drinking quite as much as drunkenness that he will vote for national prohibition, nor is he moved by being told that these normal drinkers will all take to drugs if deprived of their daily quart of beer. They are not alcoholics, and looking across the country at the millions who never touch liquor, he does not see any harm in trying to turn the average drinker into the total abstainer, first by constant education, second by nation-wide prohibition which removes private profit and ultra-accessibility.

Of course, civic clubs must be provided in place of the saloon, for men must meet, eat, talk and drink together,—but they need not drink alcohol. This is the way the practical business man looks at it, and many of the physicians that I know look at it in this way. Dr. Williams does not, and neither do the brewers.

The real prohibition, of course, is the *educated will*, the boy coming out of the home with the will as educated against alcohol as the will of the average girl is now educated against the social evil.

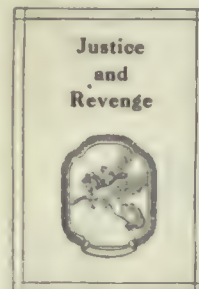
My honest opinion is that nation-wide

prohibition is coming here, and that it will do good work, because the community really is getting in earnest about the alcohol problem; but it will not do the work that it should do, unless social workers flank it with brilliant systems of organized education and with well-developed schemes of recreation, substitutes for the saloon.

ELIZABETH TILTON.

A HISTORY OF PENAL METHODS

By George Ives. Frederick A. Stokes Company. 409 pp. Price \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.15.



The title of this erudite volume might well have been a History of Penal Methods in Great Britain, since the materials are drawn chiefly from English sources. Continental and American authors are rarely mentioned. Up to the end of the sixteenth chapter

one feels that he is companion of Dante in the hopeless world, with not even Purgatory in sight. It is cinematographic melodrama which dulls the sense of moral horror by dint of repetition. The recital of these abominations in the name of justice has a practical purpose: to show us that what we call justice is merely ancient, savage revenge with a solemn mask of law and formality. The revolting facts are dragged out of corpulent note books and the references to books cited furnish a rather elaborate bibliography of the history of punishment. Even John Howard comes off with scanty respect, and at times one feels that he would like to have these former official culprits represented by counsel to see if they might not set up some shadow of defense.

The constructive suggestions of the latter chapters are in the main principles which have found frequent expression in the meetings of the American Prison Association, the National Conference of Charities and Correction and the Institute of Criminal Law and Criminology; probation, parole, education work in reformatories, parole on conditional release, humane and patient care of discharged men, and asylum treatment of those who cannot safely be restored to freedom.

There is one exception which American public opinion will not tolerate: "All who can not ultimately lead useful, human, tolerably happy lives, should be destroyed as soon as ever their condition has been determined." This same plan was proposed several years ago, but the book in which it was offered has seldom been mentioned since the first reviews. The author has not pictured to himself the effect on public morality of a wholesale slaughter of incurable offenders, nor the difficulty of deciding when they are incurable. The work colonies of Cleveland and Kansas City, and still more those of Belgium and Holland, indicate a better disposition of those who cannot be either happy or useful in competitive groups.

CHARLES R. HENDERSON.

TOYNBEE HALL AND THE ENGLISH SETTLEMENT MOVEMENT

By Dr. Werner Picht. Macmillan Co.
248 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.33.

Account of the
"Mother of
Settlements"



spiriting setting forth of the original settlement gospel and a valuable though partly discouraging account of the present situation at Toynbee Hall.

The treatment of the subject as a whole is rather confusing on account of the shifting from time to time of the angle of vision. The reader finds it difficult to know in many places whether general statements refer to Toynbee Hall, to any one of several groups and types of settlements, or to the whole English settlement enterprise.

The American reader will note an attitude on the part of the author of traditional social superiority; atoned for in a measure by that sincere and devoted concern for less fortunate brethren as individual brethren which the democratic reformer often lacks.

In his desire for an apostle as a personification of the center for the fine and rare enthusiasm which led to the founding of the first settlement, Dr. Picht develops to a further point than any previous writer the beautiful story of Arnold Toynbee; though it must be said that Arnold Toynbee had a comparatively slight direct or even indirect influence on the settlement proposal. Mr. and Mrs. Barnett, who were the real creative intelligence, occupy a relatively slight place in Dr. Picht's record; and Edward Denison, the true forerunner, is just mentioned.

The influence of Toynbee Hall as a center of humanizing culture for East London and as a training school for the public service are convincingly set forth. Hardly enough emphasis is given to the service of Toynbee Hall in placing constructive social service on an unsectarian basis. This contribution ought to be set over against what Dr. Picht truly says about the more steady and continuous vitality of the religious settlements.

One can not but feel that Dr. Picht is too deeply impressed by the unfortunate transition stage through which Toynbee Hall is now passing. He seems to take the undeveloped and somewhat cynical point of view of a leaderless group for the established attitude of the settlement. It is true, as Dr. Picht points out, that Toynbee Hall is deficient in the matter of direct, human neighborhood relations; and the neighborhood idea is undoubtedly, as he holds, the touchstone of settlement life and progress. But certain settlements—a few very notable cases on both sides of the water—have their reason for existence primarily in strong contact with certain broad phases of working-class life. The long and hon-

orable roll of men whom Toynbee Hall has sent into important posts in public life and educational service, all of whose careers show clear traces of their life and work in the East End, will prove that the "mother of settlements" has not failed to make vital connection between the centers of culture and the centers of industry.

A number of the English settlements, including most of those where men are chiefly responsible, and Toynbee Hall most of all, are today suffering from the very logic of their success. Dr. Picht quotes a member of Parliament who said that the social legislation of the past twenty years would have been impossible but for the settlements. This whole tendency, including its bearings on education and religion, has led to the drawing off of settlement leaders far more rapidly than they could be replaced.

There must in the nature of the case come a period of revival—which Dr. Picht, with all his settlement faith, hardly foresees—of the ancient English tradition of responsible and resourceful civic leadership in every local community in the kingdom, which will once more reinvigorate those settlements which are today suffering a decline. The profound significance of the settlement in bringing together separated classes for purposes of national unity, which Dr. Picht properly emphasizes, contains in itself the motive which, in the new era upon which England is entering, must mean much to the future of such a center as Toynbee Hall.

Surely also, with all the very fine records of devoted educational service in connection with the club work at Toynbee Hall, the fact that at the present moment its club work is in abeyance can only go to show that the settlement is passing through one of those relaxed interims which must be expected and must not be taken too seriously.

Of the settlements generally, numbering forty-five in the United Kingdom, we have a brief but informing account. They include a larger proportion of men residents than do our American settlements, though in some cases the men seem merely to lend their presence. Speaking broadly, they are either in charge of clergymen, who have young candidates for the ministry as their associates, or the houses are directed by women of education and much practical experience. In either case, there seem to be properly serious standards for the training of new recruits. Efforts toward inter-settlement conference and federated action are in general making good progress, though the particular type of young men whom Dr. Picht met at Toynbee Hall seem to be still in the stand-offish stage. The demand for women who have received proper training in the settlements in connection with specialized social work, public and private, seems to be much greater than the supply.

The main lines in which Dr. Picht feels that the English settlements have made their important contribution are: (1) their direct influence upon a very large number of individuals; (2) the provision of local leadership; (3) their effect on public opinion and on legislation; and (4) their creation of a wakeful social con-

science.

The difficulty at present, and for the future, he thinks, with Toynbee Hall particularly in mind, is that the power of the early ideal has waned. But the devotion of the pioneer is a thing by itself, and cannot be transmitted. The difficulty with Toynbee Hall and with some of the other important English settlements is that a consistent, determined, resourceful system is not created and maintained for securing and training earnest and capable new recruits, from among whom the leaders of the future would come.

The book contains a brief statement as to the decline of university extension and the rise of the Workers' Educational Association, as agencies of culture for the working classes; a type of effort which unfortunately seems to be hardly under consideration anywhere in this country.

ROBERT A. WOODS.

NURSES FOR OUR NEIGHBORS

By Alfred Worcester, A.M., M.D.
Houghton Mifflin Company. 266 pp.
Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

Sympathetic
Side of
Nursing



This is a book sure to arouse criticism if not antagonism. We are not accustomed to hear strictures on the modern trained nurse, unless perhaps in private conversation. When we speak of her in public it is rather in a vein of unqualified praise. We assume that she has the qualities of Florence Nightingale with the addition of the scientific training possible only in these latter times. To enhance her glory we usually refer to the old-fashioned nurse of our grandmothers' day, who is invariably pictured as a Sairy Gamp.

Dr. Worcester in this book tells us that the nurse of today, and incidentally the physician of today, has not gained in all ways by the training of modern times, but that certain very precious and holy things have been lost since the old-fashioned kindly neighborhood watcher and helper gave way to the product of the modern training school.

It should be possible for every nurse to read with respect this searching criticism of her profession, for even if she feels that in her own case and that of others she knows all Dr. Worcester's statements may not apply, she must admit that by and large they do apply, and that much good would follow if his book could meet with a reception on the part of hospital training schools, open-minded and humble, instead of resentful and self-defensive.

Dr. Worcester has studied nursing in the famous schools of Europe, and when we read his descriptions of the school founded by Miss Nightingale, of the school at Kaiserswerth in which she received her training, of Pastor von Bodelschwingh and his colony at Bielefeld, and of the unique school at La Source with its tiny hospital and its clinics in the homes, we can guess beforehand what Dr. Worcester has to say about the American trained nurse.

Briefly stated—and it is a pity to have

to state briefly this sermon of brotherly love and service—Dr. Worcester says that modern medical practice is interested more in the disease than in the individual sufferers therefrom, and this attitude of the physician influences the nurse in the training school.

The training given nurses is better technically than humanly; we can feel surer that patients will be treated aseptically than that they will be treated tenderly, surer that their bodies will be kept clean than that their souls will be treated with reverence. It is not that Dr. Worcester is pleading for careless nursing. He insists on the contrary on an education more extensive than that now offered in the majority of schools, but he would have it rounded, not narrow.

Our nurses are taught to believe that they learn most when they are in large hospitals surrounded by hundreds of patients, regardless of the fact that one nurse can only serve a small number of people, and that she gains nothing from the others.

Our training schools are all hospitals; the American knows of no other kind of school. And yet the sick that the nurse sees in the hospital represent only a small part of the sick in the community, for they are almost altogether the acutely ill or the surgical cases, while the chronic, the incurable and the helpless aged, find no place in our hospitals. It is for this reason he believes that the nurse who has had an excellent record in the hospital breaks down when she attempts private practice and has to care for the nervous, the feeble, the hopelessly helpless. She has learned to do one thing for twenty patients; she needs to learn to do twenty things for one.

In the foreign training schools, which Dr. Worcester holds up as models to us, nurses are prepared for home practice in the homes of the people. Ours, taught exclusively in the hospital, naturally strive to reduce the patient's home to a hospital. "The deaconess is trained to help the home and family of her patient. The modern nurse knows how to make the home into a hospital; she also knows how to exclude the family, and too often she does not know how not to make life miserable for the servants."

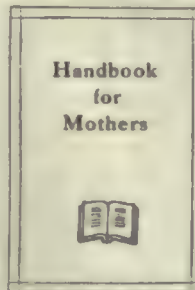
There is a beautiful picture, drawn from life, of the old-fashioned "night-watcher," with her scanty science, but her abundant tenderness, and there is a striking contrast also given between the old family physician whom few of us have been fortunate enough to know and his brisk, impersonal, highly efficient, and somewhat dehumanized successor, whom we all can recognize with a smile and a sigh.

There is no space in a review for discussion of the practical suggestions made by Dr. Worcester for the conduct of a model training school. For that the book itself must be consulted. What I wish specially to emphasize is the value of the book as a revelation of our shortcomings, not only in the field of nursing, but in all forms of social work, and as a plea for that spirit that giveth life as over against the letter that killeth.

ALICE HAMILTON, M.D.

SELF-TRAINING FOR MOTHERHOOD

By Sophia Lovejoy. American Unitarian Association. 182 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.08.



That motherhood, as something more than maternity should become a profession is the thesis of this little book. And professions demand preparation and skilful technique. The author describes how a group of college-bred women who felt their total lack of wisdom as they looked into the faces of their children, undertook and carried out a two-year course of training for motherhood—under the guidance and suggestion of a mother? No, of a mere man.

Truth compels the reviewer, another man, to add, however, that the book contains much internal evidence that the most valuable lessons the mothers learned were self-taught. This is encouraging because it should lead other mothers to make similar studies.

The method of study is not very clearly described but the results obtained are such that other mothers may make use of them. The chapter on discipline will be found of special value to parents, as it clearly states the Spencerian principle of punishment and gives many concrete and sensible suggestions as to its application. The necessity of poise and self-control among parents and consistently carried-out methods of discipline is again and again urged and illustrated.

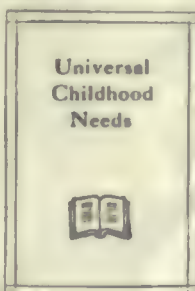
The attitude of a mother toward unsatisfactory school situations will also be found of special value. The sincere quality of the book is indicated in this passage:

"I do not claim that it is easy to be a conscientious and successful mother, but I do claim it is a duty, and may be a great privilege and opportunity, and a mother's effort will lead to success if she but persevere according to the law of cause and effect. The starting point is self-training."

HENRY W. THURSTON.

THE CHILD IN THE MIDST

By Mary Schaufler Labaree. The Central Committee on the United Study of Foreign Missions. 272 pp. Price \$.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$.58.



This is the fourteenth text-book published under the direction of the Central Committee. "It is not a book for children, but a book about children the world over." The author, as we are told, is merely a "missionary daughter, granddaughter, wife and mother who was born into an environment of missionary intelligence and activity," and has since had personal associations with many nationalities.

The book is written with missionary spirit and purpose, but shows also how children in other lands, as well as in the United States, need opportunities for health, play, freedom from crushing labor, schooling and sympathetic companionship. The appeal is strong, and cumulative in its effect upon the reader of the successive chapters, for such an organized service to childhood the world over that everywhere the child shall at least have a chance to grow in all the directions which his nature craves and in which in all climes he shows such marvelous potentiality of achievement.

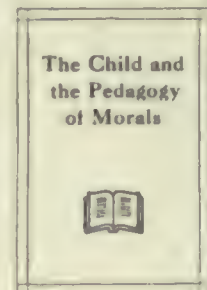
If, as John Fiske argues, the lengthened period of infancy—the prolonged appeal of the helpless child—has actually created the human father and mother out of merely animal parents, is it not scientific to expect that the same appeal of the child, made more and more effective through the whole period of immaturity the better it is understood, will slowly also recreate human society from industry to religion until all human institutions alike will serve the child in that wise, tender and parental spirit in which the highest types of individual fathers and mothers now serve the fortunate children of their own homes?

To the reviewer at least, this is the prophecy that is latent in the leadership of the little child, a prophecy that all who believe in it can do something to help realize. Mrs. Labaree's little book should add many to those who are now militant believers in this prophecy.

HENRY W. THURSTON.

CHARACTER DEVELOPMENT

By Charles Keen Taylor. The John C. Winston Company. 239 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.



This book seems to me sound in theory but as worked out crude and not wholly consistent with its own theory. The theory is in substance that the physical, mental and moral factors in a child's life must all be considered in relation to each other, and that

all instruction must follow the psychological stages of development of the individual child. This theory demanded that the growing child himself and especially his developing interests in and reactions upon the complex human society in which he finds himself, be taken as the chief guide in deciding both the what and the how of the pedagogy of morals.

No sooner is the reader properly prepared to find this book worked out in harmony with child psychology than he is plunged in Chapter I, pp. 40-41, into a discussion before children of six and seven years of such adult and grown-up, not to say controversial, topics as the qualifications and methods of election of the mayor, the nature and origin of the "state," the story of territorial expansion in the United States, the theory of law, and the duties of the president.

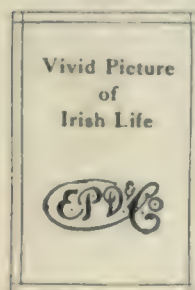
In many passages—e. g., formal manual training on p. 53, the study of Latin pp. 110-111, abstract teaching of civics p. 124, the teaching of formal grammar p. 181—formal, traditional ways of teaching are keenly criticized by the author. Nevertheless, again and again—e. g., on pp. 40-41 above quoted, p. 101 in recommending an outline of the structure of the government of the United States, p. 137 where a child of twelve is said to begin (?) to have an interest in history, and on p. 124, where the problem of city planning is tackled without sufficient preparation along the line of knowledge of the functions that must go on in them—the author falls into the errors which he himself condemns.

It would be too much to expect, however, that a pioneer book could satisfy all its critics in its choice of particular topics and their sequences. The method proposed by the author, if consistently followed, will by actual test with children of different stages of development help him and his fellow teachers to eliminate those exercises which he thinks ought to fit their stage of development but in fact are still often being imposed upon them from without and above. The impression left upon the reader is strong that the writer is trying hard to free his technique from the dogmatic and traditional in pedagogy and to follow the psychology of the child, but that as yet he is far from complete success.

HENRY W. THURSTON.

CHILDREN OF THE DEAD END

By Patrick MacGill. E. P. Dutton. 305 pp. Price \$1.35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.44.



Children of the Dead End is an unique autobiography presented in the form of fiction. The author, an Irish poet, starving, sits on a dung heap and marvels at the beauty of the sunset. The book grips from the first page, where the little boy is born in the house of Irish poverty. Every picture of Irish life is vital. The little boy's fight with his stupid, ugly schoolmaster, his courageous setting forth to sell himself and his labor at the hiring market at Strabane "beyond the mountains"—all is told with tender sympathy and yet with a firm touch. The wandering life of the navvy in Scotland, compelled to live in darkness and filth, is full of tragedy. But the Irish in him always loves a fight, and more than one good one is vividly described.

And through it all, the soul of the poet shines. No environment can really degrade his splendid vision of the beautiful. His pal, Moleskin Joe, is a fine fellow, and though one feels forcibly the arraignment of a social order which inflicts such hardships on hundreds and thousands of young able-bodied men, there is no escaping the conclusion that it does breed men of a fine virile type—a rough, primeval, godless crew, but none-the-less possessed of a vigorous, red-blooded manhood that unflinchingly

calls out one's instinctive admiration.

The tragedy of Norah Ryan is the deepest note of sadness in the book. The terrible price women have to pay for misplaced affection is one of the unsolved problems of our social order.

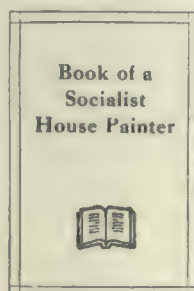
"I saw," says the author, "pictures of young women with the blood of early life in them, and the fulness of maiden promise in them walking one by one in the streets of the midnight city—young women fair and beautiful, who knew of an easier means of livelihood than that which is offered by learning the uses of sewing needle or loomspindle in fetid garret, or steam-driven mill. In the flames and the redness, I saw pictures of men and women who suffered: for in that and that only there is very little change through all the ages."

The author is master of a good English style, and the occasional verses scattered through the volume are not to be overlooked.

ARTHUR V. WOODWORTH.

RAGGED TROUSERED PHILANTHROPISTS

By Robert Tressall. Fred'k A. Stokes. 358 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY, \$1.37.



Ever since Jacob A. Riis wrote *How the Other Half Lives* we have had numberless books about the laboring classes, sometimes frankly fiction, sometimes sociological studies of varying insight and literary value. Men have joined the multitude of "unskilled" workers and lived their precarious life as nearly as it is possible to a man who knows that he can escape when he will from his distasteful surroundings. The results have made good "copy."

It is impossible, however, for the average literary man to write convincingly of a class of society in which he was not born and bred. A careful record of details of every day's existence—hours of labor, food, pleasures—all these things make up the sum of life on its material side in every class. These things can be learned by any one who chooses. But there is another, a more spiritual, side of life—life as it looks to those who live it from necessity, whose whole existence centers there.

Robert Tressall, house-painter, is the author of *The Ragged Trousered Philanthropists*; a record of the lives of a group of English artisans. Not literature, but a bit of real life, sordid, hopeless, always a losing battle against debt and disease.

In America it does not seem characteristic of the class to which Tressall belongs to be so humble minded. "What is good enough for the likes of us is good enough for our children" is not the sentiment of the American artisan who paints and carpenters and plumbs our houses.

Owen, in the book, preaches Socialism, in season and out, and somewhat tediously to his fellow workmen (and to the reader). Their dense ignorance, their stolid acceptance of things as they

are (wherein their "philanthropy" lies), is a hopeless barrier against progress. Until Owen's fellow workmen see the situation as plainly as he does there is no solution of the problem. Whether, when they do see it, their answer will be his particular kind of Socialism, or not, is beside the mark.

MARIE RENÉE FELIX.

BOOKS RECEIVED

ELEMENTARY HOUSEHOLD CHEMISTRY. By John Ferguson Snell. The Macmillan Co. 307 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.38.

PHYSICS OF THE HOUSEHOLD. By Carleton John Lynde. The Macmillan Co. 313 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.38.

RACIAL INTEGRITY. By A. H. Shannon. Smith & Lamar. 305 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.09.

RECONSTRUCTION IN NORTH CAROLINA. By J. G. de Roulhac Hamilton. Longmans, Green & Co. 684 pp. Price \$4.50 (cloth), \$4.00 (paper); by mail of THE SURVEY \$4.70 and \$4.20.

MUNICIPAL LIFE AND GOVERNMENT IN GERMANY. By Wm. Harbutt Dawson. Longmans, Green & Co. 507 pp. Price \$5.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.92.

SALESMANSHIP. By Jas. W. Fisk. Economist Training School. 144 pp. Price \$3.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$3.07.

HEALTH WORK IN THE SCHOOLS. By Hoag & Terman. Houghton Mifflin Co. 321 pp. Price \$1.60; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.72.

SOME RECENT DEVELOPMENTS OF POOR RELIEF. By W. A. Ballard. P. S. King & Son. 46 pp. Price \$1.12; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.15.

THE SOCIAL DISEASE AND HOW TO FIGHT IT. By Louise Creighton. Longmans, Green & Co. 87 pp. Price \$3.36; by mail of THE SURVEY \$4.1.

THE AMERICAN INDIAN ON THE NEW TRAIL. By Thos. C. Moffett. Missionary Education Movement. 302 pp. Price \$60 (cloth), \$40 (paper); by mail of THE SURVEY \$60 and \$49.

PROBLEMS OF CHILD WELFARE. By George B. Mangold. The Macmillan Co. 522 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.14.

THE NEW HOME MISSIONS. By H. Paul Douglass. Missionary Education Movement. 266 pp. Price \$60 (cloth), \$40 (paper); by mail of THE SURVEY \$60 and \$49.

THE QUESTION OF ALCOHOL. By Edw. Huntington Williams. The Goodhue Co. 128 pp. Price \$75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$80.

MISSIONARY WOMEN AND THE SOCIAL QUESTION. By M. Katherine Bennett. Council of Women for Home Missions. 47 pp. Price \$18; by mail of THE SURVEY \$22.

HIGH SCHOOL COURSES OF STUDY. By Calvin O. Davis. World Book Co. 172 pp. Price \$1.50 by mail of THE SURVEY.

HIGH SCHOOL ORGANIZATION. By Frank W. Ballou. World Book Co. 178 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

THE RISE OF THE WORKING CLASS. By Algernon Sidney Crapey. The Century Co. 382 pp. Price \$1.30; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.40.

THE UNCONSCIOUS. By Morton Prince. The Macmillan Co. 549 pp. Price \$2.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$2.12.

THE SPIRIT OF LIFE. By Mowry Saben. The Mitchell Kennerly Co. 253 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.59.

MY NEIGHBOR—A Study of City Conditions—A Plea for Social Service. By J. S. Woodworth. Missionary Society of the Methodist Episcopal Church. 340 pp. Price \$50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$62.

POVERTY AND WASTE. By Hartley Withers. E. P. Dutton & Co. 178 pp. Price \$1.25; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.35.

MY AUTOBIOGRAPHY. By S. S. McClure. Frederick A. Stokes Co. 266 pp. Price \$1.75; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.88.

A YEAR BOOK OF THE CHURCH AND SOCIAL SERVICE IN THE UNITED STATES. By Harry F. Ward. Fleming H. Revell Co. 186 pp. Price \$50 (cloth), \$30 (paper); by mail of THE SURVEY \$56 and \$34.

INSURGENT MEXICO. By John Reed. D. Appleton & Co. 325 pp. Price \$1.50; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.60.

SCATTERED LEAVES. By Andreas Bard. The German Literary Board. 62 pp. Price \$35; by mail of THE SURVEY \$40.

SONGS FOR THE NEW AGE. By James Oppenheim. The Century Co. 175 pp. Price \$1.20; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.30.

SHALL I DRINK? By Joseph H. Crooker. The Pilgrim Press. 257 pp. Price \$1.00; by mail of THE SURVEY \$1.10.

Communications

STRIKE PUBLICITY

TO THE EDITOR: In your issue of August 8, in an article on Strike Among Southern Textile Workers, the statement is made that the newspapers failed to give publicity to the strike in the Fulton bag and cotton mill. You are in error, as Mr. Hearst's *Georgian* gave all the publicity possible, and was so given credit by the Textile Workers' Union. I trust you will correct your misstatement.

HENRY M. DONNELLY.

[Secretary Maine State
Federation of Labor.]
Augusta, Maine.

PARENTAL SEX TEACHING

TO THE EDITOR: In my work in this city as well as in other places where I have had to deal with juvenile crime, I feel more and more the lack, the terrible lack, of sex training in even little boys and girls. These cases as they come to me are the most hopelessly depressing experiences that one can meet as you, of course, know.

I am not going to insist that all parents should approve of sex hygiene taught in the schools because that is a many-sided question and one of exceeding delicacy. But here is my plan that I wish could be given some chance. It would help all juvenile work and would give the innocents a chance.

Why can't we have some short, clear-cut, oral test of every parent who wants to enter a child in the schools, beginning at the kindergarten age? Why shouldn't the school, which is attempting to do so much for the child, know whether the parents are fit to guard the morals of their child and whether they will exercise that divine right of parents to inform their child about the mysteries of life, as we hear them so often proclaim they should? If they are not fit guardians and are too ignorant or too neglectful to teach anything as it should be taught, educate them by making it necessary for them to learn how to teach before they can qualify as the parents of a school child. Then if the parents can not qualify, the work would be turned over to a specialist.

I do not believe this would be interfering with personal liberty too much. It is the school law in most places that a child must be vaccinated before he enters the schools and many have different opinions on this subject. Vaccination affects a probable condition; sex training affects an unalterable condition. It seems to me it would not only awaken the parents but it would safeguard the child as no plan has yet done. I think parents ought to get all the examinations anyway and then the poor juvenile offenders would have a little fair play.

Nothing makes me more discouraged than to do something for a delinquent girl of thirteen or thereabouts and have

her mother say that her girl is perfectly innocent! Why should she be innocent at that age? It is far more important that she be pure! Knowledge and purity must go hand in hand!

IRMA ERWIN POPPIER.

[Policewoman.]

Fargo, No. Dak.

TRUE PIONEERS OF PEACE

TO THE EDITOR: Why do we not start now to tell our boys and girls the truth about war, instead of leaving their heads full of romantic notions of military glory absorbed from current school histories and story books? Suppose we teach them who are the world's true heroes—the saviors and enhancers of life—and discourage all the youthful admiration for men whose title to fame rests chiefly on the successful slaughter of their fellows. It is high time to stop idealizing the soldier.

While the army virtues—obedience, courage, loyalty, etc.—are constantly held up to children for admiration and emulation, the army shortcomings (by which I mean not the shortcomings of certain bad soldiers, but those inherent in military life at its best) are carefully ignored by adults and children alike. Why not bring out the fact that the army in its perfection is the very negation of democracy? That it harks back to medievalism in suppressing individuality and personal responsibility, demanding instead such blind obedience to authority as we require from a slave or a horse? That slowly and surely the young recruits are turned into mere automata—highly efficient machines for killing?

The children taught thus will have clearer vision on these things than we whose minds are so befuddled with inherited traditions that we cannot recognize murder when it comes tricked out in gay trappings and is labelled "patriotism." Much as we all deprecate war and its frightful consequences, it seems extraordinarily difficult to pass righteous judgment on the vicious deeds of an army! Special dispensations are granted for the direst cruelty, trickery, robbery, arson, and all on account of those early influences which threw a lasting glamour over all things military.

Cadet corps hold grave menace for the future on this account, and the same is true of the Boy Scout movement, despite the generally admirable character of its activities. I know it is claimed that the Scouts are a non-military organization, but nevertheless the psychological effect of a khaki uniform is very powerful, and when these boys parade with the Regulars or National Guard on Decoration Day, who will deny that probably a majority are fairly bursting with pride over the conscious-

ness of being young soldiers already? Thousands of Boy Scouts are actually performing semi-military duty in England today.

There is a movement afoot in New York—the Boy Pioneers—which aims to combine the obvious advantages of the Scout idea with definite anti-militaristic teachings—not merely non-militaristic, you observe. Universal brotherhood is insisted on with all its far-reaching consequences; militarism and nationalism are shown up in their true colors. There are comrades and brothers in every land; it becomes unthinkable to bear arms against them.

Here is a suggestion for churches, schools, parents—in fact, for all who are eager to do something for the cause of international peace beyond deploring the lack of it today. When there are enough pioneers in the world—whether or no they belong to this particular organization—there will be no more wars between nations.

NINA BULL.

Buffalo, N. Y.

CO-OPERATION: ICH DIEN

TO THE EDITOR: The mere existence in our democracy of a great class of enormously wealthy persons is an anachronism. Without discussing the causes of the condition it is quite obvious that the use of riches, even from the most conservative point of view, for the peace and security of those who possess them, can not safely be selfish, extravagant and ostentatious in the presence of a "fourth estate," sensitive and observant and now just aroused to class-consciousness. The miner, whose "joy of labor" must be got by grubbing in the bowels of the earth envisages the fact that while he receives \$3 a day, the heir of one of his former bosses gets an income of some half million a year from a trust established out of proceeds from the mine in which he digs.

The discontent at the situation was once met with defiance, as voiced in Brownell's famous war ballad by the ambushed "old cove," who insisted on peace:

"Let me alone, for I've got your tin,
And lots of other traps snugly in;
Let me alone—I am rigging a boat
To grab whatever you've got afloat;
In a week or so I expects to come.
And turn you out of your 'ouse and
'ome;

I'm a quiet old cove,' says he with a groan;

'All I axes, is, Let me alone.'

But from whatever source, though simultaneously with the exposure of the great abuses of the public trusts of the insurance organizations, there has been auspiciously developed the sense of trusteeship in individual possessors of wealth and with it the ideal of "service" which is progressing with most encouraging rapidity. A large number of those whose powers are fitted for mental rather than manual use are aiming to serve, not their own groups alone, but those whose abilities are suited to different kinds of activity, with a more generous spirit indeed than has been developed in what is loosely called the "working class."

The newer thought is that this service must be exercised, not in dispensing, but in gaining the fruits of livelihood. There is no longer indiscriminating laudation of the man who has made use of opportunity to accumulate wealth, and then makes announcement that it is a shame to "die rich" and claims recognition for the gift of that which he should never have gotten.

At-one-ment cannot be accomplished under such conditions. It must be the essential ideal and the practice from the beginning. If the wealthy today can not divest themselves of their riches they can at least avert from their children the danger of entering a "parasite" class. Let capital be willed or given to aid in the establishment of every sort of co-operative organization in which the youth who acquires or inherits ability may find a proper sphere for the use of the finest energy, to be rewarded by rational and moderate compensation. The great co-operative businesses of Europe have been directed by men of such qualities as to compete with the enormously remunerated captains of industry on salaries which we consider laughably small,—tragic as it is that it should so appear!

Large sums might be placed in trust under suitable management for the use of industries when threatened by serious disturbances and insoluble internal antagonisms, to place them upon a purely co-operative basis, organized as corporations to be managed by properly chosen salaried officials,—a magnificent opportunity of service. A notable example for the individual who would lead the van in social redemption was the Jena Karl Zeiss Institution with its prosperous and co-operative business (not "profit-sharing"). The founder of this plant, who had achieved a large fortune, without losing a natural inclination for a simple life, and being inspired by a real spirit of service, placed the whole of his property in the foundation organized, he and his fellow administrators and their successors by its charter receiving a salary which is a small fixed multiple of the best workmen's wages.

A domestic co-operative enterprise, the Potomac Glass Company of Cumberland, Md., has passed beyond the experimental stage and is a useful example, not only of the system, but of the part the capitalist may have in launching it.

The organization of the company resulted from a strike of the employees of the National Glass Company which operated a factory some ten or fifteen years ago. The strike was a long and bitter one, and eventually ended in wrecking the business of the National Company and driving it from the territory. During the time the strike was being waged, there was much violence between the strikers and strike-breakers imported by the National Company. A government injunction against the strikers was finally obtained, which was disobeyed by some of the leaders of the strike and they were imprisoned for a time.

When it was seen that the National people had lost in the struggle, and that

it was only a matter of time when they would have to retire from the field, a number of its former employees determined to form a new company, which was to be conducted on a co-operative plan, and the Potomac Glass Company, with a capital stock of \$25,000, was launched. About forty of the ex-strikers subscribed for the stock, which, however, was not entirely subscribed, former Senator George L. Wellington taking the remaining part of it. He was the only outsider holding any of the company's stock, all the rest being held by the employees of the concern.

Loans from Mr. Wellington enabled the company to tide over hard times at the start. They have all been returned, and dividends have been declared as follows: 1910, 10 per cent; 1911, 32 per cent; 1912, 62 per cent; 1913, 72 per cent, and 1914, 92 per cent. There is also a monthly dividend of 1 per cent, making 12 per cent annually, and at Christmas a dividend of 20 per cent was declared, while the other day there was 60 per cent more.

The company is in excellent condition. There have been no strikes and the men work together amicably. They have a factory worth \$100,000 and book accounts of \$25,000 more. There is no indebtedness whatever, and from present appearances they will have 100 per cent next year.

The employees of the company are a first-class type of men, many of them owners of property and depositors in the savings bank, while some of them are or have been holders of positions of trust in the city or county government—altogether they are a worthy, prosperous and intelligent part of the community.

Here are examples worth following:

ERVING WINSLOW,

Boston, Mass.

WAR

TO THE EDITOR: I have looked forward to THE SURVEY of August 15 coming to know what it had to say about this awful sacrifice of humanity going on in Europe. When I open it I find that its leading article is about the war, not about the frightful loss of our brothers' lives, not about the desolation, wasting at noon-day, not about the widows and orphans or the bloodthirst,—only about "our biggest records" in emigration, and how "depression in the countries affected will cause numbers to seek opportunities in this new country." I suppose it is a kind of inverted Monroe doctrine applied to the conflagration of Europe.

W. G. WILKINS.

Derby, England.

PEACE STAMPS

TO THE EDITOR: By all means let us make general the publicity campaign against militarism, as recommended in the recent numbers of THE SURVEY. The poster stamps as described by Mrs. Tilton, it seems to me, would be widely used. Keep your readers informed as to what is doing in this matter and I believe there will be glad co-operation on the part of all of us.

HARRY L. CANFIELD,

[Pastor Universalist Church.]

Woodstock, Vt.

JOTTINGS

SOCIAL WORK CONGRESS POSTPONED

The war has caused the abandonment of plans to hold the Sixth International Congress on Social Work and Service which had been arranged to meet in London in May, 1915. Preparatory work for the Congress was well under way and the executive committee announces that it will be resumed when opportunity presents.

CINCINNATI DIRECTORY

The Cincinnati Council of Social Agencies has made an interesting innovation in the Cincinnati Social Service Directory for 1914 which it has just issued. Immediately preceding the classified descriptions of the social agencies of the city, it has published a list of 59 organizations which have received the endorsement of the council. Following this list are printed the requirements for endorsement. The directory thus acts not only as an encyclopedia of the city's social agencies, but also as a means for bringing about better standards in social work.

RECENT PAMPHLETS

Everyman's Son. By Prof. Herman Schneider. Vocational Guidance Propaganda of the Consumers' League of Connecticut, Hartford. Price 20 cents.

Sources of Information on Recreation by Lee F. Hanmer and Howard R. Knight. Department of Recreation, Russell Sage Foundation, 130 East 22d Street. Price 10 cents.

Eugenics and Social Welfare, a bibliography of eugenics and related subjects compiled by the Bureau of Analysis and Investigation of the State Board of Charities, the Capitol, Albany, N. Y.

The Family and Marriage, an analytical reference syllabus, by George Elliott Howard, Professor of political science and sociology. Published by the University of Nebraska, Lincoln. Price 75 cents.

The Thirteenth Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education. Part 2 Plans for Organizing School Surveys with a Summary of Typical School Surveys. University of Chicago Press, Chicago, Ill. Price 75 cents.

A Guide and Index to Plays, Festivals and Masques, for use in schools, clubs and neighborhood centers. Compiled by Katharine Lord, Alice Minnie Herts Heniger and Howard Broadstreet for the Arts and Festivals Committee of the Association of Neighborhood Workers. Published by Harper & Brothers, New York city.

A List of Private and Semi-private Agencies Providing Summer Recreation or Instruction for Children of School Age within New York city, with introduction and summary. Prepared by Mabel Parker Huddleston, chairman, Committee on Education of the Association of Collegiate Alumnae. Price 10 cents of Mrs. J. H. Huddleston, 145 West 78th street, New York city.

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